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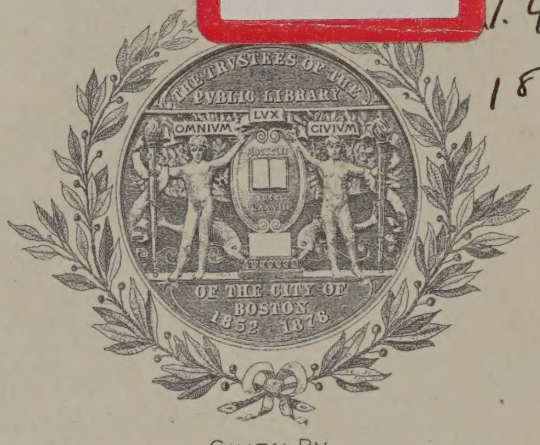

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ERRATA.

Page 25, col. iii, line 6. For "five" read "twelve."

Page 151, col. iii, line 20 from bottom. For "cases" read "causes." Line 15 from bottom, For "XII." read "XIX."

Page 152, col. ii, line 4. For "misusage" read "coinage."

Page 159, col. iii, line 18 from bottom. For "Wednesday" read "Thursday."

Page 184, col. ii, lines 2 and 1 from bottom. For "If he has to keep Brown satisfied" read "If Brown has to keep Jones satisfied."

Page 206, col. i, line 34. For "Don" read "Donn."

Page 248, col. iii, line 17 from bottom. For "pure" read "poor." The same correction should be made on p. 249, col. i, line 28.

Page 249, col. ii, line 26. Insert "assail" after "to."

Page 380, col. i, line 33. For "ships" read "bridges."

Page 420, col. iii, line 25. For "Francis" read "Felix."

Page 464, col. iii, line 24. For "Greyson" read "Grayson."

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Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1887.....		1,417,600 13
Total Marine Premiums.....		$5,060,569 22
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1887, to 31st December, 1887.....		$3,672,331 21
Losses paid during the same period	$1,599,468 25	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses.....	$788,846 38	
The Company has the following Assets, viz.:		
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Loans, secured by Stocks and otherwise..		1,559,100 00
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Premium Notes and Bills Receivable....		1,362,986 07
Cash in Bank.....		218,192 40
Amount.....		$12,237,283 35

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 5, 1888.

The Week.

THE order establishing a new system of classification for the civil service in Washington marks another long step forward. Its effect is to bring within the operation of the reform system every person employed by the Government in Washington except the laborers and unskilled workmen at the bottom and those excepted by the rules at the top—practically, the whole body of subordinates. It is announced that a similar classification for the customs service and the postal service throughout the country is now being perfected by the Commission, and will soon be promulgated by the President. It is by such extensions as this that the progress of the reform, despite all drawbacks, is shown.

Within a week from the adjournment of the Chicago Convention every Republican organ in the country finds itself put upon the defensive, and called upon to answer a question the mere asking of which is a signal of distress. The keynote of the canvass is found in this opening sentence of an editorial article in the Boston *Journal*: "A *Journal* reader asks, 'What shall I say to people who criticise the free-whiskey plank in the Chicago platform?'" There are various ways of answering the question. One is to tell a lie, as the Boston *Journal* does, when it says: "Perhaps there is no better answer, on the whole, than to say that there is no such plank in the platform." But lying is of no use, for it will not do to stop with the mere assertion that there is no such plank—the editor must go on and try to show that he is right; and that is fatal. The *Journal*, for example, attempts to explain that probably the abolition of the tax on tobacco and upon alcohol used in the arts, and the policy of reckless extravagance to which the party is pledged, will use up the whole surplus; but, after all, it has to admit that, if it does not, the party is committed to "the entire repeal of internal taxes rather than the surrender of any part of our protective system."

There remains one other policy—bold, positive, aggressive. It is the policy of Col. Ingersoll, as laid down in his speech at the Republican ratification meeting in this city on Friday evening. No "defensive campaign" for Col. Ingersoll; no disingenuous attempt to deny that the free-whiskey plank is there; no weak effort to excuse it on the ground of finance; but eager, earnest, impassioned championship of free whiskey as the best possible way to promote the cause of temperance. For candor and courage combined no better answer to the question "What shall I say?" can be found than this answer by Col. Ingersoll:

"Mere liquor does not make drunkenness. The moral question of the whole thing is to have the burden of government rest as lightly as possible. Temperance walks hand in hand with liquor. I do not think that if the Mississippi River ran pure whiskey, and the banks were loaf sugar, and the flats grew mint, and the bushes were tea-spoons and tumblers, there would be one more drunken man than now. I am perfectly willing to have those who wear foreign velvets and drink Château Yquem pay the taxes, but I don't want to have the fellow who drinks the domestic article taxed one cent."

The "defensive campaign" upon which the Republicans have embarked is illustrated by the interview with Mr. Ernest H. Crosby, the high-license leader in the New York Legislature. When the "Paris message" appeared, Mr. Crosby heartily endorsed its argument for the retention of the tax on whiskey as a temperance measure. Now he endorses the repudiation of that doctrine by the Republican party, and excuses his tergiversation by the plea that "the free-whiskey plank in the Republican platform is the result of looking at the subject from the tariff side rather than the temperance side." This suggestion, that the point of view from which a measure is passed affects its operation, is truly diverting. Everybody knows that to cheapen the price of whiskey is to increase its consumption enormously. Mr. Crosby admitted last December that, looking at the matter from the temperance side, the tax on whiskey ought to be maintained, in order to restrict its consumption; now he says that if you look at the question from the tariff side, and call the tax on whiskey a "war tax," which ought to go, it is all right to increase its consumption enormously! "There is a moral side to it," said Mr. Blaine last December, and Mr. Crosby then said: "I believe that Mr. Blaine is wise." Now he says, "It is purely a matter of finance." In such absurdities and inconsistencies does the "defensive campaign" involve the representatives of what was once "the party of moral ideas."

When are the late Blaine boomers going to begin to work for Harrison? At present they are devoting all their time and strength to the personal abuse of everybody, in and out of their party, who did anything to prevent the success of the Blaine plot. It is probably a great relief to men so sore with disappointment to make faces at their jubilant enemies, and to call them liars and horse thieves, but that is not the way to promote union and secure victory for the party. Here is Charles Emory Smith, the inventor and custodian of the great Fitler boom, devoting his powerful intellectual forces exclusively to a showing up of Senator Quay's nefarious conduct in standing by Sherman at Chicago, and thus defeating Blaine. He does this work in his editorial columns, in double-leaded type; and, lest there should be any doubt as to who the gifted author is, he signs "C. E. S." at the end. Here is an extract which gives a fair idea of the tremendous force of the attack: "The leadership of Senator Quay was unwise and disastrous; the following of the delegation for the most part was abject and humiliating. The one was neither sagacious nor unselfish; the other was neither well-chosen nor self-respecting." This is carried on with wonderfully sustained power through an entire column. We have perused it all with pleasure and admiration. It shows with pitiless logic that Quay's failure as a leader consisted in his refusal to join Mr. Smith in the great Fitler boom. "If Fitler could not have been nominated," says Mr. Smith, "he could at least serve to stand for the State until the delegation could decide where its vote might be *prudently transferred*." Of course, that means transferred to Blaine. Nothing else would have been considered "prudent" by this great mind. Finally, Mr. Smith says—after exclaiming of Senator Quay's course, "What amazing politics!"—"We want a united party with trusted leadership; we can have it with reason, fair play, and liberal counsels all around; but the course pursued at Chicago is not the way to get it." But the course pursued at Chicago nominated Harrison, did it not?

There is a furious row in Pennsylvania between the Chairman of the Republican State Committee, Mr. Cooper, and Senator Quay. Mr. Cooper says that the trouble began upon the floor of the Convention in Chicago, when Mr. Quay told him that if he did not stop meddling with the members of the Pennsylvania delegation, he would have the Sergeant-at-Arms place him under arrest. Mr. Cooper, who is an "undying Blaine man," was laboring with the delegation in favor of his hero, and was explaining to them the apparently inexhaustible subject of Mr. Blaine's cable messages. In telling his story now, Mr. Cooper reveals the interesting fact that in addition to the two cablegrams which the *Tribune* has published, including the one marked "Private—use wisely," there was still another. The two were presented by Boutelle to the final caucus of the Blaine men on Monday morning, the day of Harrison's nomination. Mr. Cooper says:

"There was a feeling prevalent that they might be forgeries, and in order to determine whether they were genuine, it was decided to send Mr. Blaine the following cablegram:

"'Two cablegrams have been received from you persisting in your declination. Some friends doubt their genuineness. Cable me at once in Mr. Carnegie's cipher. BOUTELLE.'

"We had our suspicions aroused by the fact that the two cablegrams differed in the name 'Edinburg' and 'Edinboro,' from which place they were alleged to have been sent. After sending this inquiry, we took a vote, and found we could command 578 votes for Blaine at the proper time, and it was decided that if a reply should not be received from Mr. Blaine by the beginning of the fourth ballot, he was to be nominated. We adjourned our conference with that distinct understanding. As the second ballot was about to be taken, the expected answer was received from Blaine, saying that his two previous despatches were correct."

Now, the interesting point about this third message is, how came Boutelle to have in his possession the key to Mr. Carnegie's cipher? It must have been left with him before the coaching tour was begun, and its being so left seems to imply an understanding of some kind between Boutelle and the coaching

party that an emergency might arise demanding its use.

Justice should be done to Mr. Chauncey Depew. If he had not carried off the New York delegation at the start, Mr. Blaine would have got the bulk of those votes in the Convention. If he had not been a candidate before the Convention met, if he had not divided the primaries and county conventions, Blaine would have been nominated. New York cared nothing for Sherman, or Alger, or even Harrison. She wanted either Blaine or Depew. If there had been no Depew, Blaine would have had the State delegation, either with or without his own consent. History should be vindicated, and will be in the end. When the muse takes up her pen to trace the political currents of the year 1888 whose composition of forces led to the fourth and final defeat of James G. Blaine, she will write the name of Chauncey Depew as one of the chief contributors thereto. What Mr. Depew did he had the best reasons for doing. Mr. Blaine opened the road for him as much as for Sherman, Alger, and the rest. The fact remains that if Depew had not been in the race, Blaine would have got the prize and would have accepted it, Mr. Carnegie being the witness.

Mr. Depew has, since his return from Chicago, announced his intention of going to Europe for a few months. We trust he will seize the opportunity which this will give him of looking up the rascally Dutchman who so grossly imposed upon him last year about the passage of "a free-trade law," with great resulting misery in Holland, and the transfer of the Government of that country to "theorists." This person was not a chance acquaintance made at a hotel or in a railway train. He was, Mr. Depew said, "a prominent business man," and therefore can be readily found in Amsterdam, or Rotterdam, or Schiedam, or thereabouts. Mr. Depew owes it to his own reputation to expose his shameless lying as soon as he finds him. His task will not end, however, with the punishment of this dishonest man. It will then be his duty to find out what it is that caused the awful change which he says he witnessed in Holland last year, and which occurred between 1884 and 1887—a change which was nothing short of the conversion of a model community into a den of pauperism, and socialism, and crime. We hope he will make searching inquiries among the "theorists," and let us hear all about it in the fall.

It took the Republican Convention six days to make a Presidential ticket, and, after all, it seems that the work will have to be done over again, for the record shows that it nominated a "free-trader" for Vice-President. On the 5th of April, 1880, Mr. Townshend, Democrat and "free-trader," moved to suspend the rules and pass the following bill:

"That sections 2503, 2504, 2505 of title 33 of the Revised Statutes of the United States be revised and amended so that the duty on salt, printing-type, printing-paper, and the chemicals and materials used in the manufacture of printing-paper, be repealed, and that said articles be placed on the free list."

This was nothing more nor less than an "assault upon the protective system," which every "friend of American labor" was bound to oppose with all his might; and yet among the yeas, along with such names as Morrison and Mills, one finds recorded that of Levi P. Morton. The Republican party has thus nominated for Vice-President a man who has declared himself in favor of free salt and free raw material, in preference to free whiskey.

It was an act of injustice on the part of Mr. Reed of Maine to "sit down" on Judge Kelley as he did when the latter moved to postpone consideration of the Tariff Bill until after the election. The truth is, that the Chicago Convention endorsed Kelley's policy to the letter, and virtually proclaimed him the leader of the party on the tariff question. Until the Convention met and adopted its platform, Kelley was the only advocate of free whiskey in Congress, and the only Republican of note in the whole country who favored that policy. He and Warner Miller were the only ones who favored an increase of duties in order to lessen the revenue. The Convention adopted both these ideas, prohibitory duties and free liquor, and put them in the party platform. By so doing they handed the sceptre of leadership to Kelley, and it is sheer impertinence and usurpation on the part of Reed to take it away from him. If the Republicans in Congress are not ready to make an aggressive fight to embody their declared principles in legislation, the very least they can do is to put off the vote till after the election.

The Boston *Commercial Bulletin*, a high-tariff organ, is much cast down by the terms of the following circular sent out by the Sugar Trust:

"On and ofter July 1, 1888, New York refiners will not sell their sugars through any broker who sells sugar for refiners not in the Union or who corresponds with a broker who does. Please inform us at once if this will affect our relations with you. Do you sell direct or through a correspondent sugars for any refiner not in the Union?"

The first criticism of the *Bulletin* upon the circular is a literary one. It objects to the use of the word "Union" instead of Trust, which it considers a deceptive attempt to avoid the opprobrium which attaches to the latter phrase. It insists that the Sugar Trust should sail under its own colors, because it is really a Trust, and not a mere combination or union. Its next and chief objection is that the Sugar Trust is seeking to crush out competition by preventing grocers and dealers from selling any sugar except that which they (the Trust) supply. This course of procedure is said to be "unchristian and un-American." "Any man or set of men in the United States," it goes on, "has the right, now and ever, to go into the business of sugar refining, and no man nor set of men has the right to hinder in the least other than by fair competition." And then it says in conclusion, and with much solemnity: "This is a free country." No, dear *Bulletin*, this is not a free country, and will not be until people are allowed to buy sugar and other things without any other tax than such as may be required for the honest support of an economical government. The Chicago platform demands the repeal of the whiskey tax rather than the surrender of "*any part* of our protective system." Sugar-growing and sugar-refining are both parts of the protective system, and trusts are the natural outgrowth of that system. The Chicago platform is the true bulwark of all the trusts. Moreover, the platform does not prohibit any trust from calling itself a union if it likes that name better.

A rather weak attempt has been made to ascribe the lock-out, or strike, or disagreement, or whatever it may be called, by which 100,000 workmen in the iron trade are now out of employment, to the apprehensions of manufacturers concerning the pending Tariff Bill. Mr. T. M. Jones of the American Iron Works, Pittsburgh (we quote from the *Tribune* of July 1), said: "The agitation of the tariff had a decided influence upon the action of the manufacturers in refusing to sign the scale. The discussion in Congress causes an unsettled condition in trade, and, consequently, being unable to foretell the future, it is not deemed prudent to make contracts that would undoubtedly be affected by a reduction of the tariff." This Mr. Jones, the *Tribune* adds, is a brother and partner of the Chairman of the Republican National Committee. It is singular that the Jones family have so little confidence in the Senate of the United States, without whose concurrence no change can be made in the tariff. It will be very strange if the Republican Senators do not live up to the platform lately adopted at Chicago, which requires the repeal of the whiskey tax rather than the surrender of "any part of our protective system," and which demands an increase of taxes instead of a decrease, in order to reduce the revenue. If these declarations are not emphatic enough to protect bar-iron, and to enable the Joneses and other like-minded persons to fight the Amalgamated Association of Iron and Steel Workers without danger of a fire in the rear from Congress, it would be hard to understand what form of guarantee would suffice. It is certain that the Republicans control the Senate, and that no bill can become a law which does not pass that body. It is not likely that any Republican Senator will "spit upon the platform," as Horace Greeley did upon the Whig platform of 1852, though some Republican newspapers are doing this indignity to the Chicago construction, and many Republican voters are likely to.

It is evident that Mr. Jones is trying to throw dust in the eyes of the public, at the same time that he cuts down the wages of his employees 10 per cent. If it is an apprehended and not an actual decline in the price of bar-iron that leads him and his fellow-manufacturers to reduce

wages, their action is not justifiable. If it is really a fear of legislation that may not, after all, take place, and that cannot take place without the consent of the Republican Senators, then Mr. Jones and his fellow-manufacturers have been untruthful in their statements to their workmen. They have said that the market at the present time does not justify them in signing the scale, not that a future problematical and uncertain market may justify them. If they had said what Mr. Jones now says, that the Mills bill is causing the trouble, the workingmen would have laughed them to scorn. No such argument would have been given a moment's consideration. The men know that whether the tariff is one thing or another (and it has certainly not been on a descending scale for a quarter of a century past), the annual strife about wages is as regular as the seasons or the elections. They ought to know by this time that the rate of wages has no relation at all to the tariff, for whenever any desperate strife occurs their places are always filled by the overflow of newly arrived immigrants from Europe.

The dismissal of Mr. Seth Low of Brooklyn by the *Tribune* as a "Sunday-school politician," because he cannot swallow the Republican platform, is simply a renewal of the war on the "Pharisees and hypocrites" and "mollycoddles" which followed the bolt against Blaine in 1884. There is no class which excites so much deadly animosity among the Blaineites as men who make any pretence of bringing principle to bear on politics. Consequently, the Sunday-school, as a place in which the duty of following conscience without regard to consequences is taught, has become a synonym with them for cant and humbug, and serves as a term of reproach. All the political morality they teach themselves is marked "Private—use wisely."

The editor of the *Sun* has evidently made up his mind that he has no use for the remainder of his once proudly advertised circulation. In spite of the fact that his name has been hissed at the ratification meetings of the County Democracy and Tammany Hall, he sticks bravely to his policy of saying on an average one word for Cleveland and Thurman and three against them in every issue of the paper. He speaks favorably of them in a leading article, and "knifes" them slyly in paragraphs or extracts. At regular intervals he publishes judicial calculations showing that the Democrats are going to have a close fight, with the chances against them, if they stand honestly by their platform, and all these are promptly quoted in the Republican papers as "important Democratic admissions." Few things calculated to injure the Democratic ticket escape the editorial eye or fail to get into the *Sun's* columns, but it is very rarely that a sign of defection from the Republican ticket and platform, like the Chicago *Tribune's* articles, for example, finds the light there. This is a slyer game than the *Sun* played in 1884, when it did its best to elect Blaine, but it is not sly enough to escape the consequences which that entailed.

The letter addressed to Secretary Fairchild by Mr. James Burt, who had been in substance accused of participation in "sugar frauds" in connection with the Sherers at this port, repeats the statement frequently made before, that the question in controversy between Dr. Sherer and the Department, viz., whether the polariscope tests of sugar at this port were correct or not, was submitted to the National Academy of Sciences last year and decided in favor of Dr. Sherer. We think that the Secretary cannot afford to ignore this fact any longer. The National Academy is certainly better authority than a Boston newspaper reporter, better than Assistant Secretary Maynard, better than Secretary Fairchild, better than anybody else. It is, moreover, an authority recognized by law as competent to give decisions upon questions of this kind. When a government appoints a newspaper reporter to make investigations upon which charges affecting the reputation of individuals are based, and rejects or suppresses the counter-testimony of the highest scientific authority in the land, is it not bound to make some explanation of the reasons for so singular a proceeding?

"STAMFORD, Conn., June 28.—Four oyster sloops from Long Island are tied up at Stamford by the United States Marshal, and their captains arrested for taking oysters in Connecticut waters. This will prove an interesting question if brought before the court."

The above, which forms part of the telegraphic news of the week, strikingly illustrates the point made by Mr. Wells in his speech on the "Fishery Question" before the Reform Club, namely, that the separate States of the Federal Union claim to the utmost extent that jurisdiction over territorial waters, in respect to fishing, which the Senate of the United States, by refusing to ratify the Fishery Treaty, deny by implication to the people of the British provinces, and especially to the poor fishermen of Newfoundland. The parties in both cases claim that products of the sea—"oysters" or "bait"—caught in waters over which their local legal jurisdiction extends, are under their exclusive control as property, to use or sell, or not to use or sell, as they may see fit. In the case of Connecticut this seems right and proper. In the case of Newfoundland Messrs. Frye, Ingalls & Co. consider the claim presumptuous, and the effort to enforce it an outrage on the American people, to be resisted even to the point of war.

The college graduates have begun to receive their annual warning from the sages of the newspaper press against thinking too highly of the education they have received at college, and against supposing that it is going to be any particular use to them in the battle of life, and especially in the editorial career. There is no point on which some of the sages are so emphatic as the folly of supposing that a college degree will help a man in solving the solemn problems of journalism. One bright and particular star, in fact, laid it down recently that a college graduate was *ex vi termini* a spoiled journalist—that is, that preparation for a degree incapacitated a youth for the production of the pungent paragraphs, and the spicy headlines, and the castigation of hostile contemporaries, in which the journalistic novice is supposed to pass his time. It appears, however, that these efforts to keep down competition have very little effect, and that the college graduates, every year, in greater numbers and with undiminished audacity, continue to offer themselves for the awful and solemn duties of the journalistic calling. In order in some degree to save these youths from the consequences of their own rashness, a school of "practical journalism" has been set up in Cornell University, under the superintendence of a former reporter of the New York *Sun*, who is to instruct the undergraduates in the art of reporting fires, accidents, crimes, and thrilling incidents generally. This is apparently a branch of the larger department of "theoretic journalism" presided over by Prof. Fitch of the Rochester *Democrat*, in which, as we understand it, the art of journalistic thought and research is taught.

Mr. Theodore Thomas, in his long legal fight with the Musical Protective Union, has obtained a decision in his favor from the Supreme Court General Term, which is a serious blow to all kinds of boycotting. In the autumn of 1885 Mr. Thomas imported from Europe a new oboe player, there being at that time obtainable in this country no player of that peculiar and difficult instrument whom he considered competent to play in his orchestra. Being himself a member of the Musical Union, Mr. Thomas was fully aware of the existence of two by-laws which had been made especially to protect musicians in this country against the competition of new players from abroad. One by-law forbade the members of the Union from playing with non-union members on penalty of a fine for the first two offences and of expulsion for a third offence. Another by-law forbade the admission of any one to membership of the Union until after he had lived in this country at least six months. When the new oboe player appeared, the Union at first warned the other members of the orchestra, then fined them, and was about to expel them when Mr. Thomas went to the courts and obtained an injunction forbidding the Union to either fine or expel him. Argument was had upon this before Judge Potter, who sustained the injunction and referred it for final decision to the General Term. A few days ago the General Term made a decision affirming that of Judge Potter; Judges Brady and Van Brunt signing it, while Judge Daniels dissented. The decision is in the same line as that of the Court of Appeals in the case of the foreman of Gardner & Estes; the ground being, we believe, that the attempts of the Union to interfere with and injure Mr. Thomas's business constituted a "conspiracy" as defined by the Penal Code.

THE MUGWUMP JUSTIFICATION.

NOTHING but time could have furnished a justification for those who, in 1884, took upon themselves what we admit was, under the circumstances, the very great responsibility of severing their connection with the Republican party, and assisting in the transfer of the executive branch of the national Government to the Democrats. How great this responsibility was, may be inferred from the fact that in the opinion of the great majority of the Republicans, some or all of the following consequences were very likely, if not certain, to result from the accession of the Democrats to power. We cannot do better than quote Mr. Carlisle's enumeration of them in his speech on Thursday night, although we have frequently set them forth in these columns ourselves:

> "It was said that the election of a Democratic President would be immediately followed by the prostration of our manufacturing industries, the derangement of our finances, the debasement of our currency, and the destruction of the public credit; and that even the civil and political rights of the people would not be secure. According to these partisan prophets, the Supreme Court of the United States was to be reorganized and the constitutional amendments annulled; the Confederate debt was to be paid and the Confederate soldiers pensioned; the colored race was to be reenslaved in the South; the doctrine of secession was to be reasserted; the soldiers and sailors of the Union were to be deprived of the pensions and bounties heretofore granted to them, and all the terms and conditions of the adjustment which succeeded the late civil war were to be entirely disregarded."

This is not rhetorical exaggeration. It is a simple and strictly accurate description of the view, taken by a large proportion of the Republican party, of the attitude of nearly one-half the American people towards their own political system. Now, we were in 1884 of opinion that the mere existence of this belief was in itself a public danger; that good government under a constitution like ours was not attainable except through the competition of two great parties for popular favor, and that it was essential to the working of this competition that both should be held competent to administer the Government, however much they might differ on questions of policy. We held that the notion that there was only one party fit to execute the laws, must soon debauch that party by making it reckless and indifferent to public opinion, and that it had, as a matter of fact, debauched the Republican party, and that we could not have healthy politics without upsetting it.

The Mugwump vote in 1884 did upset it. It restored the regular working of party government in the United States by putting the opposition in power. It dissipated by actual experiment the terrible superstition that nearly 5,000,000 of voters were ready to ruin the country if they got a chance. We may safely ask all those Republicans, and especially the younger ones, who broke away from their party in that year, whether the experience of the last four years, on this point at least, has not fully justified their course. What American is there who cannot today, as the result of President Cleveland's Administration, speak more hopefully both of the present and future of American institutions than he could in 1884, even after conceding the truth of all that has been said or can be said touching the President's failure to meet the expectations then entertained of him as a reformer? His Administration has demonstrated once more that the United States Government is safe, not only in the custody of a certain class of Americans, but in the custody of any American majority, however made up. Surely this is an immense gain; surely it is of itself enough to make all Independents feel happy in looking back on their work of four years ago.

But this is not all. The secession of 1884 was also due in part to the belief that the Republican party had lost all its earlier impulses and aspirations, and had fallen irretrievably under bad influences, and that real reform was not to be looked for at its hands. That this was not a mistake, we think the history of the past four years has conclusively proved. In the first place, the Republican party, in exercising in that interval its legitimate function of a hostile critic, far from finding fault with the President's failures to reform, has reproached him for nothing except promising to reform, and has in every way in its power encouraged him to violate his promises and practise the abuses which his supporters expected him to abolish. In the second place, through all its organs in the press, it deliberately retained its hold on Mr. Blaine up to the meeting of the late Chicago Convention, as the best living exponent of its spirit and methods, thus proving that the nomination of 1884 was not the result of haste, inadvertence, or defective information. It then confirmed this action of the press by electing a convention which was only prevented from nominating him again by his own blundering and that of his agents, in an attempt to give the nomination the air of a compulsory return to public life of a wearied patriot. This view of the matter, too, has been amply confirmed by the platform drawn by the Convention, which, after much "arraignment" and declamation, actually proposed no positive legislation except a reduction of taxes, which is to include the abolition of those on whiskey and tobacco! On this platform, it has nominated a gentleman against whom personally we have not a word to say, but whose claims on the confidence or respect of the Independent voter may be inferred from the fact that, although he voted for the Civil-Service Law, he vigorously opposed the prohibition of the worst feature of the spoils system—the assessments on officials for party purposes—and disgusted even James G. Blaine by his activity and persistence as an "influence" at Washington. His position on the great question—the greatest question in politics, in fact, for every civilized community to-day — the nature and incidence of taxation, may be inferred from the following passage from a speech in Chicago on the 20th of last March:

> "I am one of those uninstructed political economists who have an impression that some things may be too cheap; that I cannot find myself in full sympathy with this demand for cheaper coats, which seems to me necessarily to involve a cheaper man and woman under the coat."

This at first blush sounds simply like the somewhat heartless expression of a successful lawyer's contempt for the small cares of that great mass of mankind who have to think well over every dollar they spend. But it is something far more serious than this. It is the language of a man who, assuming him to be honest and sincere in his public talk, has never either read or reflected on the nature of the sacrifices which the Government of a country demands from the bulk of the population when it asks them to give part of their earnings for its support. And there is a curious light thrown on this extraordinarily foolish talk by the fact that this candidate, who has such a contempt for cheap clothes, is put on a platform which calls for cheap whiskey. No Mugwump of 1884 can look on these things without feeling that in that year he chose the better part, and that time has only made his way plainer.

TRANSFORMATION OF PARTIES.

A FOREIGN observer, after a careful study of our political assemblies and our election methods a few years ago, expressed the opinion that the Republican party "contained the intellectual and moral bone and sinew of the American nation." The judgment was undoubtedly correct at the time it was rendered, but it is already evident that it will not hold true in the year 1888. A transformation of parties has been going on for four years past, and is now proceeding more rapidly than ever before, which changes the political attitude of the intelligence and morality of the nation, and ranges the preponderance of these ruling forces on the side of the Democratic party.

Democracy was in its early days the party of the people, really as well as nominally. But the rise of the slave power changed the nature of the organization. The dominant force in its councils came to be the oligarchy of slaveholders, a body numerically small, but politically most influential. Under its sway the party fell constantly further and further away from the principles of true democracy, as laid down by its founder, Thomas Jefferson, and became more and more thoroughly the party of a class. It broke its pledges, it repealed the compromises which it had declared for ever binding, it surrendered its convictions.

It was inevitable that such a policy should array against the Democracy the intelligence and the moral sense of the country. It was from this source that the Republican party was drawn. It owed its origin to the protest of the North against the attempt of the South to extend slavery, and at first it went no further. As Lincoln put it in one of his joint debates with Douglas in 1858, the issue was simply, on the one hand, to keep slavery out of new Territories and restrict it for ever to the old States where it then existed; or, on the other hand, "surrender and let Judge Douglas and his friends have their way and plant slavery over all the States — cease speaking of it as in any way a wrong — regard slavery as one of the common matters of property, and speak of negroes as we do of our horses and cattle." On that issue it was cer-

tain that "the intellectual and moral bone and sinew" would ultimately be found in the new party which Lincoln represented. The course of the Democrats during the war and during the reconstruction period only served to mass these forces more and more compactly on the Republican side.

The growing demoralization which characterized Grant's two administrations, and the disgraceful performances which followed the election of 1876, arrested the drift of the better forces towards Republicanism; but the inertia of party is exceedingly strong, and the most disgusted members of the organization still indulged hope for its rehabilitation—a hope which was encouraged by the nomination of Garfield in 1880. The selection of Blaine in 1884 was a rude shock, which forced many thousands of the most conscientious Republicans to vote against the candidate of their party; but most of them still clung to the hope that this was only a temporary aberration, from which it would recover.

The truth was, however, that the nomination of Mr. Blaine was more than a functional disturbance: it was the symptom of an organic disease which had attacked the very vitals of the party. *Nemo repente turpissimus*, is hardly less true when applied to organizations of men than to the individual; no party suddenly becomes most base. When it presents as its perfect flower a dishonest man, it is only because it has gradually been sapped of its virtue, so that it yields easily to the temptation of vice when veneered with "magnetism." The elevation of Mr. Blaine signified that the Republican party was no longer the party "of the people, by the people, for the people," which Lincoln led.

At last the party has thrown off all disguise, and openly appears as the champion of special interests against the masses of the people. At first the advocate of moderate protection for a limited period to "infant industries," as a mere incident of the taxing prerogative, it has now become the advocate of "protection for protection's sake," as a permanent feature, and the most important feature, of our governmental system. In 1876 and again in 1880 it "avowed the belief that the duties levied for the purpose of revenue should so discriminate as to favor American labor," thus clearly recognizing the principle that duties should primarily be levied only because they are necessary to support the Government. In 1884 it still virtually recognized the same principle by pledging itself to reduce the revenue, then larger than was demanded by the necessities of the Government economically administered, and promising to "relieve the taxpayer." But in 1888 it has turned its back upon its whole record; it ridicules its own former doctrine that duties are properly "levied for the purpose of revenue"; it condemns economy and demands extravagance, in order that more revenue may be needed; and when even extravagance seems to be insufficient, it proposes to repeal the tax on whiskey rather than lower any of the taxes on the food and clothing of the people.

The moral side of the tariff issue is here plainly revealed to the apprehension of the dullest mind. The "uncrowned king" of Republicans has himself presented it with remarkable force in his "Paris Message." Nobody can improve upon his argument of last December against the Republican platform of June, when he protested against the repeal of the whiskey tax because "there is a moral side" to the question, because the consequent cheapening of whiskey would increase its consumption enormously, and because "it would destroy high license at once in all the States."

In his 'Twenty Years of Congress' Mr. Blaine has shown how the Republican party came to absorb the intellectual and moral bone and sinew. In speaking of the Republican Convention of 1856, he says: "The Democracy saw at once that a new and dangerous opponent was in the field—an opponent that stood upon principle and shunned expediency, that brought to its standard a great host of young men, and that won to its service a very large proportion of the talent, the courage, and the eloquence of the North." A generation later it is the Democratic party, chastened by repeated defeats and sobered by responsibility, which stands upon principle, and there can be no doubt that its appeal will attract the same elements which were drawn to the Republican party thirty years ago. Already one sees signs of the revolution in the changed attitude of such men as the Rev. Dr. Storrs and ex-Mayor Low of Brooklyn. Already, too, one sees the difficulties of the "defensive campaign" which the Republicans must make, in the sneering editorial of the *Tribune* on Mr. Low as "a Sunday-school politician." The watchword of the Republicans in 1888 is the absurd cry, "Do you want British free trade?" as the watchword of the Democrats a generation ago was the equally silly cry, "Do you want your daughter to marry a nigger?" It is a melancholy end for a party which once contained, and deserved to contain, the best forces of the nation.

THE PROHIBITIONISTS AND THE WHISKEY TAX.

The attempt of the Republican party to masquerade in the livery of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union is meeting with ridicule from the very women who fashioned the garments. The sham was so apparent that no statesmanship was necessary to detect it. When, therefore, Miss Frances E. Willard, President of the Union, found that the Republican party, which has steadily advocated high license in local politics, had endorsed her demand for the repeal of the national liquor tax, her sentiment, instead of being that of self-congratulation, was that of scorn. In her address before the National Prohibition ratification meeting on June 22, she expressed this sentiment with all the emotional earnestness of which she is the mistress. She summed up the situation in the following words: "The party stands arrayed against itself in its State and national policy. The house is divided against itself and cannot stand."

It is the obviousness of the last sentence which gives to it its significance. For the past few years the restrictive taxation of the liquor traffic has been the one moral idea which the Republican party has everywhere endorsed. Yet the highest possible high license cannot compare in importance with the internal-revenue system. The Crosby bill as it passed the Republican Legislature proposed a tax of $300 upon each saloon where distilled liquors were sold; the internal-revenue system imposes a tax which averages $500 for every saloon, restaurant, drug-store, and grocery where liquors of any description are sold. The number of saloons and restaurants in the nation is but 90,000. The national liquor tax is $90,000,000. Were a high-license fee of $1,000 everywhere imposed and enforced, the concentration of the traffic would be such that the burden would not be equal to that which the internal-revenue system now imposes. Mr. F. N. Barrett of the *American Grocer*, whose estimates regarding the consumption of liquor were published by the Internal Revenue Department, calculates that half of the liquor consumed is bought not by the glass, but by the gallon. The effect of the internal-revenue tax upon the price of this portion is easily estimated. The cheaper grades of whiskey can be manufactured for twenty cents a gallon. The tax raises this price 450 per cent. Had the Crosby bill been made a law, the further increase would have been confessedly slight. Yet the party which advocated that, in the interests of morality, this further increase must be made, is now willing to make real the Irishman's dream of "whiskey a shilling a gallon, and no hanging for stealing," in order to preserve to the protected classes the extortions of the war tariff undiminished.

The argument which will be heard time and again during the coming campaign, that the Prohibitionists also are in favor of repealing the internal-revenue tax, is worthy of consideration. There is no doubt that the Prohibitionists are the sincere friends of temperance. Why, then, do they seem to endorse the position of the Republicans?

This question is easily answered. In the first place, they do not endorse it. At the ratification meeting mentioned above, Chairman Dickey violently denounced this plank in the Republican platform, and Miss Willard sharply distinguished between the Republican idea of free trade in alcoholic liquor and the Prohibition idea of no trade at all. This distinction is a thoroughly tenable one, and will be endorsed by every Prohibitionist in the country who has not crazed his own intellect by violent talk about "blood money."

In the next place, the chief argument of the Prohibitionists against high license does not apply to the national liquor tax. They have found in their municipal and State campaigns that the revenues derived from the saloons stand in the way of their agitation. Even the more sober-minded among them have thus come to regard high license as the liquor traffic's chief bulwark. It was very natural, then, that some of them should have supposed that the national liquor taxes would have a similar effect. The Re-

publican platform demonstrates their mistake. The national revenues derived from the traffic, instead of being its national bulwark, are its national menace. If anything shall ever bring the Republican party to endorse national prohibition, it will be mainly the desire to get rid of this revenue. Prohibitionists will not support the Republican declaration in favor of untaxed whiskey until the Republicans shall support their declaration in favor of no whiskey. The mass of them at the South will follow the lead of Senator Colquitt and support the Democracy. At the North they will vote in increased numbers for their own party ticket. North and South, they will be alike repelled by the Republican declaration in favor of free whiskey.

The platform adopted at Chicago offends the common conscience of the nation quite as much as its common sense. To the average man the demand that the war taxes in all industries shall be maintained rather than diminish the bounties to the favored few, is protection reduced to absurdity. In an equal degree the demand that the war tariff on necessaries shall be maintained, even though its maintenance involves a whiskey deluge, is protection wedded to iniquity.

THE NATIONAL LIBRARY BUILDING.

When Congress passed the act, some three years since, to erect a building for the National Library, it was felt by all interested in education and intellectual progress that a great step forward, though much too long delayed, had at last been taken. We fear that feelings of an opposite nature will greet the announcement of the vote of the House, on June 18, by which that body, by a vote of 114 to 50, not only refused to provide the means for continuing the work of construction, but resolved that it should be discontinued. We presume that such radical legislation, especially with the very large majority in its favor, was a great surprise to all concerned. It was the more astonishing because Mr. Randall, who had consistently opposed all previous bills granting money for this purpose, had provided, in reporting the item of $500,000 for going on with the work, for a strict limitation of the field of expenditure.

The truth is, however, that for years before the bill passed the House there was a general belief that it was, or would be made, the occasion of stupendous jobbery. We should hesitate to say that any Representatives voted for it because of this, but there can be no doubt that many voted "aye" in spite of it, feeling that the evil of enriching a few scamps at the expense of the taxpayers was more than balanced by the urgent need of proper accommodations for the immense collection of which Congress is the trustee. But most of them must have voted with great misgivings. The bill required—a condition, we believe, without a precedent—that the proposed structure should be built according to the plans of an individual architect, named in the bill, who was (outside of Congress) alleged to be incompetent, and was known to be far more of a lobbyist than a builder. He had previously been granted the extraordinary favor of a trip to Europe at the public expense, in order that he might study the libraries of the Old World, yet it was charged that his incapacity was such that all technical work was done by his partner, who otherwise was kept out of sight. And sure enough, when the office of construction was organized under the law, while the architect (only one architect having been contemplated by the act) was allowed a salary of $5,000, a person to do the work was provided for at a salary of $3,000, which was given to the aforesaid partner. Meantime, the proposed building was vigorously attacked by persons whose opinions were entitled to careful consideration. The Association of Librarians, at two different annual meetings, earnestly protested against it, as being a display of so-called architecture with almost total disregard of the needs of a library. At the same time the plans were strongly condemned by an editorial contributor to the *Century* as being bad art, while an exposure of their deficiencies by Mr. Poole, the Chicago librarian, was circulated in pamphlet form.

It seemed, however, that the plan was loved for the enemies it had made. In the House, particularly, it was the occasion of floods of eloquence, notably by Mr. "Windy Wordy" Rice, who orated and perorated at great length, carefully eschewing all practical considerations, but dwelling with fond delight on the arts of Greece and the arms of Rome, and implying that the library of Solomon in all his glory was not arrayed as would be that of Congress. It was to be not merely, nor indeed chiefly, a library, but a vast museum, art collection, rogues' gallery, and curiosity shop; and in its lofty halls countless generations—not of students, or scholars, or even Congressmen, but of country bumpkins—were to be awed by the limitless expanse of books visible to the naked eye, and spellbound by the beauties of a correspondingly great collection of the productions of "graphic art."

The promoters of the enterprise did, however, condescend to one piece of practical information, viz., that the cost of the structure was not to exceed $2,000,000, or, allowing for contingencies, $2,500,000—twice the sum, by the way, which is to provide for the far more useful collection of the Boston Public Library. But after the ground had been cleared and the foundations begun, there was a long hitch in the progress of the work, which was plausibly explained by the architect at the beginning of the present session, but which was otherwise accounted for by outsiders. The paper of Representative Dingley charged jobbery directly on the architect, and the Washington *Republican* asserted that no progress would be made until the superintendence of the work was given into the hands of a new commission—a hint which was followed in the appropriation bill just defeated. Of the three members of the Commission, it was argued that the Secretary of the Interior could not, in the nature of things, find time for such work, that the architect of the Capitol had his hands full of other work, as well, it was said, as being at cross-purposes with the architect Smithmeyer, and that the Librarian was not a man of affairs.

At the opening of the present Congress, the discontent with the slow progress of the work and distrust of the architect had reached such a height that the Commission found itself forced to appoint, at a salary of $4,000, Mr. Green, who had just completed the State-War-Navy building, to "superintend" the construction, or, as was said, to checkmate Smithmeyer's supposed plans of jobbery, and, at any rate, to prevent his drawing $5,000 a year (with the use of a coupé) indefinitely, with next to nothing to show for it. Shortly after this, Mr. Green being examined by the House committee of investigation, testified that the work would, he thought, require for completion not $2,000,000 or $2,500,000, but $7,000,000 to $10,000,000; and upon this exposition the House appears to have felt justifiable anger at having been deceived and trifled with, and refused further supplies till more economical plans, under other architects, should be laid before it.

ARTS AMONG FRENCH BEGGARS.

Some very interesting revelations have recently been made of the methods of the professional beggars in Paris, under the name of the various "trucs," or, as we in our slang should call them, "rackets," which they "work" in extracting money from the benevolent. The business of begging has, in fact, there been reduced to an art, displaying the usual French finish and perfection. It has a standard printed manual or textbook, the large edition of which is entitled 'Le Grand Jeu,' or Big Game, and the small abridged edition, 'Le Petit Jeu,' or Little Game. The former costs six, and the latter three francs, but they differ only in the amount of information they contain. The plan of both works is the same, and consists of a sort of directory containing the names of the various charitable persons capable of giving money or clothes in each quarter of the city, with some account of their means and pursuits, and of the particular "truc" or device which must be used in working their failings respectively.

This is the way the 'Grand Jeu' reads:

M. A.—Rich proprietor; readily gives a five-franc piece; pays rent in cases of eviction.

M. B.—Never gives any money; ask for clothes.

Madame C. (widow)—Is interested in children only; ask for a layette for the baby and linen for the mother; can also get milk tickets for the baby.

M. D.—Very religious. Occupies herself in getting people married and in promoting baptisms and first communions; gives full suits of clothes.

M. E.—Protestant; dresses children so that they can go to school; gives orders for shoes and clothes; asks for addresses and sends to make inquiries; must have a friend ready to answer.

M. F.—Old and radical Republican; very rich; tell him you are the victim of the Reactionary party.

And so on.

Of course pious Catholics offer the most fruitful field to the professional beggar, and especially pious maiden ladies; and the way of approaching them recommended in the manual shows a deep insight into human nature. A Catholic maiden lady or widow, especially in France, is charitable as a religious

duty, for the Church is very strenuous in making the relief of the poor a means of personal edification. Therefore, a poor man coming to such a lady with a story of a suffering wife and children, especially if seasoned with allusions to "better days," has always, *prima facie*, a fair chance of success. But as these stories are numerous and commonplace, the manual recommends that in approaching maiden ladies their sense of social propriety, as well as their religious sense, should be appealed to. That is to say, the beggar is advised to confess with some appearance of confusion that, although he has lived happily with his wife for many years, "their union has not been blessed by the Church," an omission which has long afflicted them both keenly, especially on the children's account, but that, alas, since they began to reflect seriously on the spiritual misery of their situation, they have never been able to get clothes sufficiently decent to go to church to be married—for, of course, even the poorest have their self-respect and sense of dignity, and would like to give their wedding day, though too long delayed, the air of a fête. This is almost always successful if well managed, because the lady can rarely bear to lose a chance of rescuing people from a positively sinful mode of life.

As a rule, when the story takes effect, not only is money given to get some clothes for the marriage, but the lady promises to see her own curé at once, and get him to perform the ceremony after a previous visit to the unhappy couple at their domicile. Sometimes, when there is a couple, and the man or woman is not a solitary impostor, they wait for the priest, and go through the ceremony with a fortitude bred by long use, but sometimes they decamp before any steps are taken to visit them.

The baptism or first-communion "truc" is worked in the same way. The pious lady is informed with streaming eyes that the children have never been baptized, or have never had their "first communion," either situation being of course full of horror to a good Catholic; and the reason of it is simply want of decent clothes for the family and of the small fee for the curé. Here again, if there are really children in the case, they often stand their ground, and take their baptism and the communion with the nonchalance of long experience. One woman confessed to an investigator, with some hesitation, that she herself had been married fourteen, and her children had been baptized eighteen times, and that every occasion brought her clothes or money. This reminds one of the Chinese witness who came before Mr. Justice Maule in England, and offered to take the oath on the Bible as a Christian. The Judge, doubting his Christianity, asked him where he had been baptized, and he answered through the interpreter that "he was baptized in every town he came to." In other words, in every town he, like the Parisian beggars, found some one who wished him to be baptized, and was willing to make it worth his while, in the Chinese sense, and he, therefore, cheerfully complied.

Another "truc" is what we should call the "rent racket," in which the beggar calls on the well-to-do man about twilight on a stormy evening in the autumn or winter, when the salon or cabinet looks particularly cosey in the lamplight, and makes known that his landlord is awaiting the result of the application before depositing him and his family on the sidewalk in the rain or snow. The case is a hard one, and inquiry at that moment very inconvenient, so the money is apt to come. It is also not a bad dodge for a young man in shabby black to visit a confirmed sceptic and priest-hater—such as abound in Paris—and represent himself as having been expelled from his home by a bigoted father for refusing any longer to study theology, the fabulous character of which he had found out and loathed, and in his distress had come to the most noted friend of free thought within his knowledge.

The "teacher dodge" is also said to be an excellent one, but is rather baser than most of the others, as it has frequently to be practised on persons of small means, and the practitioner has to have some smattering of literature. He comes to a professor or schoolmaster dressed so shabbily that it will be impossible to offer him immediate employment, and represents himself as a brother teacher out of place, and penniless through a series of misfortunes, and generally gets something on the spot, pending inquiries, which, of course, are always fruitless. But extremely bad clothing and considerable dirt are absolutely necessary here, in order to ward off all danger of an invitation to come in, sit down, and converse on scholastic matters. There are also some political "trucs," which the manual considers worthy of attention, though not eminently productive. That is, you may go to a Conservative as a poor man of right principles who has been driven from his employment by the hostility of a lot of Communists, and has gone down step by step into starvation, or you may go to a Radical as a Communard who has been hunted to death by the police for having conscientiously served the Communist ranks in a moment of youthful enthusiasm for humanity. In this field, so strong are the traditions of illegality in France that nothing seems wholly improbable. There came before the police courts the other day in Paris a case of blackmail, in which a poor young man was threatened with arrest by bogus detectives, and paid several sums for immunity. Being asked what he thought he was to be arrested for, he said he never heard or never inquired—he presumed it was to be an "arrestation politique," or political arrest; and being asked what this was, he said he did not know. The old "lettre de cachet" is still in the French air. 'Le Grand Jeu,' is, on the whole an interesting book, and a translation with adaptations to our manners might find some sale here.

THE LAST OF ANCIENT FRANCE.

PARIS, June 13, 1888.

THE Duc de Broglie is giving us a succession of historical works, in which he throws much light upon the history of the reign of Louis XV. It is somewhat singular that the history of the wars and of the diplomacy of the eighteenth century is, in many respects, less known than the history of earlier times. This is owing to the complications of the questions which were treated, to the shifting character of the alliances, to the disturbing elements brought into the politics of Europe by the rising power of the house of Brandenburg. The issues were new; the old lines which separated the great Powers were changing; the philosophical ideas which were in the ascendant, modified the principles of politics.

The eighteenth century may be defined as an age of transition—a great and confused preparation for the French Revolution, which disturbed all the foundations of the old equilibrium. The Duc de Broglie is studying its history in the Archives of our Foreign Office, and he has brought to light many facts which were unknown or little understood. He revealed to us first the hidden diplomatic correspondence of Louis XIV. in the volumes entitled 'Le Secret du Roi.' Louis XV. corresponded directly and secretly, independently of his own ministers, with some of his diplomatic agents. The Comte de Broglie was one of these, and it is natural that the Duc de Broglie should have taken much interest in this correspondence. In the volumes which followed he gave us all the details of the great duel between Maria Theresa and the great Frederick, and showed the part that France took in the mighty questions which arose in Germany at the time of the conquest of Silesia. Two volumes came out under the title of 'Frédéric II. et Louis XV.,' and two volumes more under the title of 'Frédéric II. et Marie-Thérèse.'

We have now two volumes more, under the title of 'Marie-Thérèse Impératrice (1744–1746). They begin at the moment when Louis XV., who had been lying dangerously ill at Metz—so ill that at one moment his life was despaired of—had recovered and left, by slow stages, for Freiburg im Breisgau, which was besieged by the French Army. The King spent a few days at Lunéville, at the house of his father-in-law. He made a magnificent *entrée* into Strasbourg. The siege of Freiburg was conducted by the King in person; it lasted a long time, and meanwhile Frederick, who had boldly taken Prague and established himself in Bohemia, was complaining bitterly that his French allies did nothing for him. Freiburg was take on the 7th of November, 1744, and Louis XV., who was impatient to return to Paris, was unwilling to begin a new campaign. He merely sent a few detachments to increase the French corps, commanded by Ségur, which served under the orders of Seckendorf; the French Army of Germany took up its winter quarters in the region of the Lower Rhine. The two allies of France, Frederick before Prague and Charles VII. in Munich, both remained in a very precarious position.

The malady of Louis XV. seemed to have diminished his faculty for work, which had never been very great. At Metz, when his life was in danger, the Duchess of Châteauroux, his mistress, had been dismissed. What would the King do now? How would the drama of Metz end? The Duc de Broglie tells, with many details, the story of the secret reconciliation of the King with the Duchess of Châteauroux, of her short triumph, so soon ended by her illness and death. The Duchess knew the King well. She wrote to the Marshal de Noailles: "The King is in perfect health, and so am I; let us only hope it will continue so, as, for the rest, I have no doubt it will." And when she saw the King for the first time, her first word was, "How they have treated us!" alluding to those who had caused

the separation in Metz. The return to favor of Mme. de Châteauroux produced an immense sensation. "Les dames reviennent" was, says the Duc de Broglie, the universal cry under this outrage to honor, to decency, and to religion. "Since he takes back his *catin*," said the *dames de la halle*, "we will not say a paternoster more for him." The Duchess of Châteauroux died of a dangerous fever, even before she could punish her enemies and reëstablish her full empire for a day. She was buried secretly, to avoid the insults of the populace. The King was much grieved, but he soon looked for new distractions, "since, in a depraved heart, pain may be great, but makes no long sojourn."

Louis XV. had left his allies in a dangerous position. Frederick was obliged to evacuate Bohemia. The King of France sent him the Marshal of Belle-Isle to concert a plan for a new campaign. Belle-Isle went first to Munich to confer with the Emperor, who felt himself in great danger. On his way from Munich to Berlin, he had the imprudence to take a road which led him to Elbingerode, in the territory of Hanover. Notwithstanding all his protests, Belle-Isle was arrested and conducted a prisoner to England, where he remained at Windsor. He was not set free on parole, but shut up in the great tower, where he was guarded day and night. On his arrival at Windsor, Belle-Isle learned of a great event in the papers (he had seen none during all the time of his forced journey): he heard of the death of the Emperor, Charles VII., whom he had helped to place on the throne.

"Belle-Isle a captive, Charles VII. in his grave, Bohemia reconquered, Bavaria threatened, the imperial dignity once more promised to the ambition of Maria Theresa, what remained of the great design which had convulsed Europe and cost so much blood to France? Hardly a thought in the mind of the man who had conceived it, and who was now condemned to impotence and champing the bit, languishing in a foreign land. There never was a more complete wreck; never was a political error more cruelly punished." The French Government, in the opinion of the Duc de Broglie, ought not, when the empire became vacant, to have tried at the same moment to intervene again in the imperial election and to pursue war at the same time in Flanders and in Italy. Louis XV. and his Ministers did not understand the force of the old proverb: "Qui trop embrasse, mal étreint." D'Argenson was Minister of Foreign Affairs; his portrait by the Duc de Broglie is admirably drawn. D'Argenson was a thinker, perhaps a dreamer; he had secretly conceived the plan of a new constitution for France (his 'Considérations sur le Gouvernement de la France' was only published after his death); he was a philosopher, and, twenty-five years before Rousseau, he prophesied the advent of democracy; he had intimate relations with Voltaire. He wished for peace, but France was at war and could not abandon all her positions over the Rhine or in Flanders; she had engagements with her allies. What was France to do with the son of Charles VII., the new Elector of Bavaria? Maximilian was only eighteen years old. He claimed the quality of Austrian Archduke and of King of Bohemia; he represented in his person all the rights of the House of Hapsburg, but these proud qualifications did not hinder him from being defenceless; the Austrian armies were on the soil of Bavaria. The French Court had been deaf to the last entreaties of his dying father; he had no army, no money; he was in danger of being taken into captivity. D'Argenson did not help him, and when Maria Theresa invaded Bavaria, it is not much to be wondered at if the young Prince accepted the conditions imposed by her. In a fortnight the whole Electorate was conquered without a struggle, and the new Elector was obliged to promise his vote in the imperial election to the husband of Maria Theresa.

It is evident, from all the details given by the Duc de Broglie, that the Elector acted in harmony with the popular feeling in Germany; that, though he renounced the pretensions of his dynasty, he satisfied his people when he reconciled himself with Maria Theresa. Germany was tired of the French alliance and of the French interference in her own affairs, and young Maximilian was the unconscious and unwilling representative of the national feeling. Can we call it exactly the national feeling? At the very moment when Maria Theresa imposed hard conditions on the Elector of Bavaria, she promised him a part of the spoils in the hereditary domains of Brandenburg. It was not enough, she said, to take away from the *robber* of Silesia what he had stolen from her; he must be punished by the loss of some, at least, of his provinces, and Bavaria should have her part. Thus the dangers increased for Frederick; and meanwhile his ally, the King of France, was giving all his attention to his campaign in Flanders. Under the influence partly of D'Argenson, who wished to have a purely defensive policy in Germany; under the influence, also, of his generals, who wished to concentrate all the forces of France at one point, Louis XV. neglected for a while "la guerre d'Allemagne," and himself prepared to join the fine army of Flanders, which he placed under the command of Maurice de Saxe.

Maurice had shown fine qualities of command in the defensive campaign of Flanders during the preceding winter. He had been looked upon till then only as a very daring and bold general; in this last campaign he had proved that he could combine prudence and skill with valor. He was a curious type of the German *condottiere*—given to the coarsest pleasures, always willing to fight and to play, looking on war as on a sort of game, living in the lowest company, as fond of money as of honors, a singular mixture of greatness and of moral destitution, of heroism and of vulgarity. The chief who was to be opposed to him in the new campaign was the young Duke of Cumberland, the second son of King George, who was only twenty-two years old, but who had shown much valor at the battle of Dettingen. It was universally thought that Maurice de Saxe was rushing to certain defeat, that Cumberland was destined to beat him; meanwhile, the Duc d'Aremberg would beat the Prince of Conti, who held a defensive position on the Rhine, and the two victorious armies were to concentrate under the walls of Paris. "I will get there," said Cumberland, "or I will eat my boots." When Maurice heard of this, "There is," he said, "an Englishman who is a little of a Gascon; if he cares to eat his boots, I will prepare them for him."

Maurice de Saxe marched on Tournay in order to undertake the siege of this town, and as soon as it became clear that a general action was imminent, Louis XV. joined him in person with the Dauphin. It was a bold undertaking to attempt once more to describe the battle of Fontenoy. All the readers of the Duc de Broglie's book will be unanimous in saying that his account is truly a masterpiece. There is a ring in it, a vigor, an enthusiasm which reminds the reader that the writer has in his veins the blood of two Marshals of France. I know few pages in all French literature finer than those which end the volume:

"Yes, it was a fine day, but the last of ancient France! She is there, still whole, still full of life and resplendent with all the jewels of her crown: a sovereign in middle life, full of a bellicose ardor which for an hour at least makes us forget all and forgive all; next to him, the heir of this secular monarchy, keeping, in his eyes of an almost infantine purity, a fire which shows the blood of Saint Louis and of Henri IV.; around them, all the sons of the ancient knights, worthy of their ancestors. . . . But let a half century pass, where will it be, this monarchy, the living incarnation of the country? Where will be all those who surround her and cover her with their bodies, the Noailleses, the Birons, the Grammonts? Their names will only be found disfigured in the decrees of a revolutionary tribunal, or inscribed on a funereal stone in the melancholy valley of Brittany, where lie the remains of the victims of Quiberon. Others, I know, have taken their place and fill it well. Sons of our land, transformed into soldiers in order to repulse the invasion of the enemy, will cover with their blood the fields already fertilized by their hands. Battalions organized by the iron hand of a conqueror will enter all the capitals of Europe. . . . You who shall read these pages, children of the French family, bid a last adieu at Fontenoy to the image of a past which made the prestige of your name. Before entering on the high sea, the sailor gives a look at the shores of his native land, brilliant with the fires of the setting sun."

Correspondence.

THE PRESIDENCY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The nominations have been made, and the four months' campaign is now to begin, a process regarded by foreigners with equal wonder and contempt. The turmoil and excitement pervading all classes of the country, the platforms, the brass bands and torchlight processions, the infinite speech-making apparently about nothing, the vast expense, and the interruption of business—all these seem to them to be not only folly, but wasteful and dangerous folly; and it is to be feared that their opinion is shared by not a few among our own countrymen.

There is no one who finds the business less to his taste than myself, yet I believe it to be richly worth all it costs, being in fact of quite inestimable and priceless value. The subjective effect, to begin with, is no small matter. It is well for a people that they should at intervals turn aside from the absorbing pursuit of money, and give themselves up to an interest common to all. It is the one thing that binds all together from Maine to Texas and from Oregon to Florida. All Europe was astounded at the outbreak of loyalty to the Union during the war, and certainly nothing does more to keep it alive than this embodiment of common interest in the Presidential election. An English writer, after describing a procession in New York in 1884, says, "Imagine eight hundred English barristers turning out from the Temple and Lincoln's Inn to walk in slow procession from London Bridge to South Kensington, shouting themselves hoarse for Gladstone or Disraeli." Yes, and imagine what a spirit in the nation that would imply.

But the objective effect is infinitely more important. Is it possible to estimate too highly an institution which, at the crisis of the civil war, gave us Abraham Lincoln, with Stanton, Seward, and Chase on one line, and Grant and Sherman and Sheridan on the other? Europe is bowed down with the weight of armies, for which the plea is that, however unprofitable and crushing they may be, it is necessary to have them ready for the one hour of trial. It would pay us to go on with Presidential elections for a century, even if the questions to be decided and the candidates to be se-

lected were of no importance, provided that they kept the machinery in such working order that the torrent and rush of the national will should place the right man at the head in the hour of supreme need.

President Eliot, in his excellent Phi Beta Kappa address at Harvard, said that democracy had accomplished three things—the war of Independence, the formation of the Constitution, and the preservation of the Union. But that he expressly declined any effort at prophecy, he might have added that our democracy stands face to face with a fourth problem which if it can solve, it will win for itself an undying crown of glory, and that is the conflict between the two branches of Government. To appreciate this we must take a somewhat wider view. France has been for eighteen years under the government of the Chambers, and though they have made a wonderful progress over previous attempts, there are again manifest signs of failure. The instability of ministries, the disorder of the finances, and the menace to the civil service and religious organization, have thoroughly alarmed the country, and it is turning its eyes as always towards a strong executive. Boulanger, himself a transparent humbug, is only the expression of this tendency. A strong President might do something, but he is elected by and the mere instrument of the Chambers, and neither Grévy nor Carnot has shown any power of resistance or any confidence in appealing to the country. There seems to be no resource but revision of the Constitution. Boulanger wants this in the interest of dictatorship, the Monarchists and Bonapartists in that of their respective schemes, and the Radicals—sad omen !—in that of a single omnipotent Convention. Revision means revolution, with results which no man can foresee. In Great Britain the extension of the suffrage is causing grave uneasiness. Parliament is omnipotent, and the Ministry just as much its creatures as that of France is of the Chamber. The executive power has no direct relation to the country at large. If trouble ever comes, there will be, besides the possible evils of democracy, an evil as bad and quite irrespective of that—the absolute rule of a legislature.

I have heretofore urged *ad nauseam* that Congress in its working is little or no better than the French Chamber, though the framework of our society and the condition of our finances are so strong that it cannot at present do so much harm. What I wish now to dwell upon is the power of the nation to set up its own executive, to support him in his efforts to bring Congress to reason, and to eject him if he shows signs of abusing his power for selfish purposes. There is not, and there never has been, anything like it in the world.

When I trouble you with a letter, it is always and only for one purpose. At present the force of the national will is thrown away on account of the restricted and negative power of the President. The elect of ten millions of voters ought to have as good a chance to be heard by his constituents as the member from a petty country district. Mr. Cleveland, in his tariff message, has hinted pretty strongly that it is Congress, and not party, which is the real obstacle to reform. In his acceptance of the nomination he has alluded in no doubtful terms to the forces which rise up on every side to resist the performance of his duty. If he or any future President should have the courage to ask, in accordance with the Senate report of February 4, 1881, that through his ministers he may have a public voice in the guidance of legislation and in appeal to the country against the dictation and domination to which he is subjected by Congress—then we shall see what view of the matter will be taken by democracy. G. B.

Boston, June 30, 1888.

SENATOR INGALLS'S ABUSE OF THE PRESIDENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I take the liberty of suggesting another case "de lunatico inquirendo" to be added to the one furnished by your Cleveland correspondent in No. 1197. It is the author of the article "Fetishism in the Campaign" in the June number of the *North American Review*. Nobody but a political monomaniac would or could come before the public with such a paper. No President of the United States within the existence of the aforesaid *Review* has had such absolute control of his party as Mr. Cleveland, and that party embraces about one-half the people of the country; yet a "grave and reverend" Senator tells us that he is without one spark of ability, and owes his present influence to his utter disqualification in the fullest sense of this term.

I am not a Democrat, and have little or no interest in the success of the Democratic party, but I claim to be able to see that it is not composed of fools and idiots, with a brainless pate for its leader. Here is clearly an instance of language having command of a man instead of vice versa, as is usually the case. Political animosity has so befuddled the "distinguished Senator's" brain that he does not know, and perhaps cares little, what he is saying. And yet he is one of the "trusted Republican leaders." From the infatuation which possesses this man and many others less able, rather than from that which holds the Democratic party spell-bound, we may well pray, "Good Lord, deliver us!" C. W. S.

CLEAR, USED SUBJECTIVELY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Fitzedward Hall's letter on "*Clear*, the Adjective, used Subjectively," in the *Nation* for May 31, establishes a long and respectable history for this locution in English. Yet this history is but modern when compared with the date when our usage had its origin in the two Romance languages, French and Italian. It is nearly three hundred years, according to Mr. Hall, since the word was first employed with this meaning in English; but it occurs in precisely the same sense in Old French, some five hundred years before.

The first instance I find is in Philippe de Thaun, who flourished A. D. 1100-1135. In his 'Cumpoz,' 3220 (ed. Mall), occurs:

"D'içoselez bien clers."

In the 'Assises de Jérusalem' (thirteenth century):

"Je ne suis mie si cler come de l'autre."

In Italian the first occurrence (rendered a little doubtful, it is true, by the ambiguous case of the pronoun *mi*) is in Dante, 'Paradiso,' viii, 91:

"Fatto m'hai lieto; e così *mi fa chiaro*
(Poichè parlando a dubitar m'hai mosso)
Come uscir può, di dolce seme, amaro."

Passavanti (died 1357):

"Per esser più *chiaro* d'esser ben confessato."

Similar to the verb *clear*, as used by Downe in the supplementary quotation made by Mr. Hall, is the Italian *chiarire*. Thus, by Vincenzo Martelli (died 1556), Lett. 13: "Il che mi fece credere fosse andato a *chiarirsi* di qualche dubbio."

To me it seems more probable that English should have derived this usage from the Italian than from the French, for two reasons. First, in middle English there is not, so far as I am aware, any trace of it; and, secondly, because its occurrence in such a translator as Brent would seem to indicate that he, at least, had found it in Sarpi or some kindred Italian author. Besides, I know of no evidence that the locution persisted in French down to the sixteenth or early seventeenth century, at which time it makes its appearance in English.

Albert S. Cook.

University of California, June 19, 1888.

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will issue in the fall 'Omitted Chapters of History, Disclosed in the Life and Papers of Edmund Randolph, Governor of Virginia,' etc., by Moncure D. Conway.

Seven short stories by as many Philadelphia writers will be united under the title 'The Septameron,' to be published by David McKay of the same city.

Henry Holt & Co. will issue shortly a novel entitled 'In Hot Haste,' containing peculiarly interesting descriptions of German life.

The third volume of the 'Poetical Works of Robert Browning' (Macmillan), includes "Pippa Passes," "King Victor and King Charles," "The Return of the Druses," and "A Soul's Tragedy." The frontispiece is a curious portrait of the poet in 1835, in the full guise of the Romantic period.

The late Robert Carter's 'Summer Cruise on the Coast of New England' has been revived after a quarter of a century by Cupples & Hurd, Boston. It is hardly a classic, and in a literary point of view it suffers by comparison with similar narratives in which our popular magazines abound. Fish and fishing inspire a large part of the author's observations, which are most interesting when they relate to places since transformed into fashionable seaside resorts. Mr. Carter's praises of Mt. Desert—the furthest point reached on his voyage—involve a prophecy which has since been fulfilled, yet still not according to the possibilities of the island.

Mr. Sweetser's 'Mount Desert Guide-Book' (Portland: Chisholm Bros.) succeeds but does not displace the late Mrs. Martin's standard Guide-Book. It has neither the literary flavor nor the refined style of the latter work (fancy Mrs. Martin writing: "But the air is *tout à fait* different," or larding her description with the humors of Mr. Sweetser's page 18). Nor do its woodcut illustrations match her dainty photographs, nor is its map as fine a reproduction of that of the Coast Survey as hers. Of course changes have taken place in the past three years, which Mr. Sweetser is now the first to chronicle; and matters of transient interest (like the location of cottages), which Mrs. Martin avoided, are fairly in his province.

For especial use at the twenty-fifth anniversary of the battle of Gettysburg, just passed, Gen. Abner Doubleday has compiled, and the Century Co. printed in a neat brochure, with numerous maps, 'Gettysburg Made Plain.' The author, we need hardly say, was a part of what he describes.

Seasonable is not just the word for the reprint of 'Snap-dragons, and Old Father Christmas,' by the late Mrs. Ewing (E. & J. B. Young & Co.). There are, however, sensible persons who affirm that Mrs. Ewing's tales are always in order, and we will only add that Mr. Gordon Browne has again been employed to illustrate her fantasies, with his usual distinguished success.

Fifty-three examples of 'Royal Academy Pictures, 1888,' are given in the supplement to the *Magazine of Art* bearing this title (Cassell & Co.). They are better than the run of similar French photo-mechanical memoranda, and possess a good deal of interest, especially the portraits.

In his 'Records and Record Searching: a Guide to the Genealogist and Topographer' (London: E. Stock), Mr. Walter Rye prints what he has "learned during the last quarter of a century about the Public Records" of England. He informs the uninitiated how to compile a pedigree; how to write the history of a parish or other place; he describes the various categories of records and their repositories, explains the technical terms and abbreviations therein employed, gives lists of the various record publications of the English Government, and adds many odds and ends of information that he has picked up in the course of his investigations. The directions in regard to compiling the history of a place read somewhat like a cook-book recipe, but they may be useful to amateur historians. The work, as a whole, will prove a valuable guide to Americans going to England for the first time to consult original records.

Mr. G. H. Balg, whose translation of Braune's 'Gotische Grammatik' we noted favorably some years ago, is now publishing, by subscription, a 'Comparative Glossary of the Gothic Language, with Especial Reference to English and German.' Subscriptions will be received by the author, at Mayville, Wisconsin, or by B. Westermann & Co., 838 Broadway. The work is to be complete in seven or eight parts, at 50 cents each. Three parts (192 pp.) have already appeared, coming down to the word *hweila*, 'while.' We take pleasure in commending the enterprise to our Germanistic readers. When complete, the dictionary will supply a long-felt want. It is fuller than any of its predecessors in citations and references. Also, the treatment of etymologies is very full. Some of the author's etymological equations we might dispute, others we should like to see made more precise. But the work, as it stands, bespeaks the author's great industry and courage, and merits support. It is dedicated to Prof. March, and has the approval of Whitney, Max Müller, and Skeat.

The origin of the name Canada is laboriously sought in *Modern Language Notes* for June by Prof. A. Marshall Elliott. He pronounces it European and Spanish, finding its nearest primitive meaning to be a glade or swampy pasture such as bear this designation to-day on the pampas of the Argentine Republic. The fitness of applying such a term to the bold north shore of the St. Lawrence below Quebec —the first tract called Canada—is, however, hardly obvious.

Mr. W. A. Bardwell makes, in the *Library Journal* for June, an appeal for an index to illustrations, of which it can only be said that it would be a fine thing if it were practicable. A single line might, we think, be pursued most usefully, and that is portraiture. The editors of our illustrated periodicals have more and more seen the permanent value of this class of engravings, and the workmanship steadily improves. If only a contribution to *American* iconography were attempted, the result would be worth having. But librarians need not be taxed for this service; any intelligent person with superabundant leisure might undertake it.

The *American Meteorological Journal* at Ann Arbor, Mich., offers a prize of $200 for the best original essay on tornadoes, and one of $50 for the second best, with $50 still to be divided among those worthy of special mention. They must be sent to Prof. M. W. Harrington at the Astronomical Observatory, Ann Arbor, or to A. Lawrence Rotch, Readville, Mass., on or before July 1, 1889, with sealed addresses.

A capital rapid sketch of the romantic career of Joel R. Poinsett, accompanied by a good portrait, is begun in the July issue of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*, by Dr. C. J. Stillé. It is to be continued. Poinsett's papers have, it appears, been given to the Pennsylvania Historical Society, and are said to illustrate very fully his public and private life. He was a great globe-trotter, and an eye-witness of many famous events, such as, to mention but two, Napoleon's interview with Metternich on August 15, 1808, when he threatened Austria with annihilation; and the fight between the *Essex* (with the boy Farragut on board) and the British *Phœbe* and *Cherub*, off the port of Valparaiso (not Callao, as Dr. Stillé has it) in March, 1814.

The genius who presides over the illustrations of the new *Universal Review* will have to take care lest they bring the enterprise into deserved ridicule. To say nothing of the scandal caused by the short-skirted decoration of the Rev. H. R. Haweis's perfectly serious discourse on "The Parson, the Play, and the Ballet," Prof. Freeman must have felt mortified at the cheap pen-and-ink "humorous" design marring the page devoted to his article on "How to Grow Great Men." Mr. Freeman, by the way, comments on Mr. Lowell's New York Reform Club address, which declared it "the first duty of nations to produce great men." The political article, on "Home Rule and the Opposition Leaders," is by Mr. Frank H. Hill, whose view is that Mr. Parnell's movement "will most likely share the fate of the Repeal, Young Ireland, and Fenian movements which preceded it." Mr. Harry Quilter does for the Salon what he did in the first number for the Royal Academy, with plenty of pictorial examples.

That it is a difficult thing to write entertainingly about caricature is proved once again by Maurice du Seigneur in the June number of *Le Livre*. He combines as well as may be in one brief article an historical retrospect, with special reference in our modern period to the French school, descriptions of certain designs, and selected (rather than select) legends. But his greatest service is in annexing some inedited designs—Eugène Giraud's big-head and little-body portraits of Sainte-Beuve and G. Flaubert; and many amusing sketches by Albert Coinchon, and even by Prosper Mérimée. Another illustrated paper in this number is on the literature of horse-racing in France, and is written with a light touch by the Comte de Contades.

The vexed question as to the identity of the great river of Thibet, the Sangpo, with the Brahmaputra or the Irrawaddy, may now be regarded as settled in favor of the former river by the testimony of one of the native surveyors sent out by the Indian Government. This man, known as "K. P.," a native of Sikkim, had, in a former exploration in 1878, traced the course of the Sangpo to a further eastern point than any previous traveller had reached. On this present journey he was traitorously sold as a slave by his companion, a Chinese lama, in the Pemakhoi country, a little north of Assam. "K. P.," however, contrived to escape from his captivity, and followed the river down to a place where it "falls in a noble cascade, 150 feet in height and spanned by a rainbow, into a dark lake hemmed in by lofty cliffs." The existence of this waterfall was reported many years ago by the Abbé Desgodins, a French missionary in eastern Thibet, from native sources of information. From this point the explorer pushed on to within less than fifty miles of the Indian frontier, to a place where "he could descry, looking down the river, the haze above the Assamese valley on the eastern horizon." Here, for some unexplained reason, he apparently was obliged to turn back.

—*Scribner's* for July contains an article by Prof. Seymour which might well serve as a guide for the traveller in modern Greece. He shows, by his sketch of routes and excursions, how much the country has been opened up and made accessible within the past few years, partly in consequence of the classical study which has been carried on upon the ground; and the descriptions he gives of places and of manners and customs are excellent. The paper, however, seems meant rather to be an aid to the tourist, and to tempt him into a region where travel has been hitherto attended by great discomfort, than to embody the results of observation. Prof. Young's narrative of his journey to Russia to observe the solar eclipse of 1887 loses what would have been its main interest, inasmuch as a cloudy day made the expedition a failure; but he writes instructively of the great observatories he saw during his passage through the European countries, and the article is well illustrated. The best illustrations, however, are given in connection with the second of the railroad series, written by John Bogart. This deals with the engineering problems of construction, the tunnelling and bridge-building, and the difficulties of passing from level to level in mountainous or rough country. Especial attention is paid to the subject of driving foundations for bridges, particularly by means of the pneumatic caisson, of which the construction and workings are clearly described. There is a tone of enthusiasm in this article, an accent of the *esprit de corps*, which shows how truly engineering is the living American art. Other articles are not remarkable. Mr. Sullivan's story sustains his reputation as a careful and refined writer. Mr. Stevenson's remarks on the authors who are most popular and most nameless, the writers of the lowest reading class, are in his usual felicitous manner. Mr. Lathrop's Battle Ode for the Gettysburg anniversary reminds us that when the Pindaric style is execrable, nothing in poetry can be worse; this attempt no more resembles Campbell or Gray than a flying-machine does Pegasus.

—*Harper's* is as lacking in distinction as its companions. The leading contribution is a very excellent description of the life of the naval cadets at Annapolis, and the illustrations have the merit of freshness. The next leading paper, upon the conditions of life in the great new farming regions of Nebraska, Kansas, and Dakota, is a very faithful account of the matter, and the special topics (including that of the vast loaning business of the frontier) are well chosen. Mr. Warner, on the contrary, in his descriptions of the cities of Columbus, Springfield, and Indianapolis, is as near being dull as he ever gets; the only noticeable point he makes is the curious absence of any real local habitation and name for Lincoln's memory at Springfield, such as exists at Mount Vernon and Monticello for Washington and Jefferson. He seems to look to Kentucky to furnish the pilgrim-shrine eventually, but just how it is to be made he does not indicate. There is an archæological paper upon Egypt by Mr. Petrie, in which he enters upon the curious and perplexing labyrinths of race-types in ancient sculpture, and makes a number of interesting but inconclusive speculations. Mr. Lafcadio Hearn furnishes an ill-written and pretentious paper of travel in the West Indies, of which nothing

better can be said than that it gives occasion for a number of illustrations of negro types, male and female, which are not without an anthropological interest. The fiction of the number is enlivened by the first part of a novelette by Rider Haggard, in which we are sent back again to Allan Quatermain and the African wilds, to entertain our imagination with adventures.

—The *Century* is not more fortunate than the other magazines of the month. It is without an article above the average, and seems to fall back upon its war papers for supplies. The narrative of the career of the Confederate ram *Albemarle*, by those who were most directly engaged on both sides, is an interesting episode, and is remarkably well told; Lieut. Cushing's account of his escape down the river, after he had succeeded in blowing up the ram, being especially spirited and plain. The list of reunions of the veterans in which representatives of both armies have taken part is especially noticeable for the prominence of the Virginians in these exchanges of good will, Richmond and Lee Camp holding an easy and marked leadership in this work of peace. The Gettysburg poem, which is contributed by a Confederate soldier, Will H. Thompson, is also evidence of fraternity coming from the Southern side. Its sentiment is admirably toned to the occasion, and the expression itself is far better than is common in the magazines; some of the stanzas might well have been omitted, but in several there is that real lyric force which in American verse is noticeably absent. The Lincoln biography draws the portrait of McClellan as the "young Napoleon" very unfavorably, and in the discussion of the foreign affairs, and especially of the *Trent* incident, brings us back to statesmanship and the great value of Lincoln's restraint acting on Seward's temperament. Mr. Kennan continues his journey through the Irtish steppes with excellent travel-pictures, and the Sinaitic desert is photographed by an enthusiastic camera-explorer. The subject of disinfectants is treated briefly in another article, and Dr. Buckley discusses dreams in his warfare with superstition. The Lichfield Cathedral furnishes some pretty bits of illustration for Mrs. Van Rensselaer's series.

—An antiquarian correspondent writes us an odd incident concerning the grandmother of Levi Parsons Morton, the Republican candidate for Vice-President. In 1791 this lady, born Frary, in Hatfield, had been brought as a bride by her husband, Justin Parsons, to his home in Goshen, Mass. But the custom of warning all newcomers out of town, lest they should "gain a legal settlement," and so the town be obliged to maintain them in case they became paupers, was vigorously observed. Justin Parsons being then Constable, it became his duty by a paper on a post, and also crying aloud in church, to warn his wife "that she reside in said town no longer"—which he did on the 4th of April, 1791, and received twelve shillings as his "fee for warning." It is further noteworthy that in 1805 Justin Parsons represented Goshen in the Massachusetts General Court. He had been elected hog-reeve at the first annual town meeting. When nearly fifty years of age, he commenced the study of theology, and for more than a score of years preached in Vermont as a Congregational minister. His longest settlement, 1813–31, was over the united churches of Pittsfield and Stockbridge—forest towns with a total population of 596 in the heart of the Green Mountains. His stalwart form, white hair, ruddy face, beaming and benevolent eye, and apostolic simplicity gave him the title of Father Parsons, and made him and his horse everywhere welcome guests. In the first decades of our century the salary of hardly one Vermont minister was over five hundred dollars, and Father Parsons could not have been paid more than half that sum. But he raised some colts and knew how to trade horses. In fact, his touch must have turned everything to gold, for he is said to have been a principal benefactor of Oberlin, near which he passed the last score of years in his nonagenarian career. In 1797 the house of Justin Parsons in Goshen was made a pesthouse for the confinement of persons inoculated for the smallpox. About three score victims were here imprisoned on a diet of bread and molasses, cut off from all meats and salt, which were thought fatal, till the artificial disease should run its course. In this seclusion they would have died of ennui "had they not pitched coppers on the floor of one room so much as to wear the boards nearly through, as may be seen to this day." The son of Father Parsons, from whom Mr. L. P. Morton derives his name, graduated at Middlebury College in 1814, and was the first American missionary who ever reached Jerusalem. This was in 1821. He died in Alexandria the year following.

—Among books of the 'Battle of Dorking' type, one, recently published at Paris, entitled 'Rome et Berlin,' by Charles Rope, a former naval officer, has caused much remark. It professes to describe the operations of the French fleet and army on the shores of the Mediterranean and of the Baltic during this recent spring. Contrary to most squibs of this kind, it does not seem intended to point out defects in French organization; on the contrary, France wins all along the line. The work displays an unusual knowledge of the armies and navies of all Europe. It also brings out very plainly the weak points of Italy in case of a defensive war. The seacoast of Italy is so extended, and the peninsula so long in proportion to its width, that, if a French fleet suddenly left Toulon, it would be difficult to tell at what point it would strike, or successfully to ward off the first blow. Indeed, all the lines of railway connecting the north with the south might be cut before sufficient troops could be massed near the point attacked. By a coincidence, which may not be as strange as it at first seems, the plan of campaign described here is much like that which was expected during the recent so-called Spezia scare. The fright was genuine enough, and so was its cause. The French Government, in the expectation that the Crown Prince would die before his father, and that a war would break out on the accession of Prince William, began to mobilize its navy at Toulon, for the purpose of striking a sudden blow before hostilities had begun elsewhere. The objective point was, however, not Spezia, which is very strongly fortified, but Savona or Vado, in order to paralyze the northern railway system, and form a junction with a French army advancing from the north. The information came to the English Government, which at once despatched to Genoa the Channel Squadron, that had not been in the Mediterranean since the days of Trafalgar.

—According to M. Rope, the French fleet attempted Spezia; but, finding it too strong to take, contented themselves with blockading it, after a naval battle in which several of the best Italian ironclads were sunk. They then bombarded Castellamare, and, after another fight, occupied the roadstead of Maddalena to the northeast of Sardinia, which is intended to be the general rendezvous of the Italian fleet in case of war. Civita Vecchia was next taken, and an attempt was made to capture Rome by the quick march of an army of fifty thousand men. The strong new forts on the Campagna presented unexpected obstacles, and allowed the Italian troops to concentrate. The French retired, "not so much because they were beaten" as because things were not going on well in the north. Meanwhile, Germany had been able to send three large ships of war to join the Italian fleet in the Straits of Messina, so that the blockade of Spezia was raised; but in a fight off Savona the allies were completely defeated, with the destruction of the remainder of the Italian fleet. What had become of the navies of Austria and England during all this time, is not said; their existence seems to be ignored. The campaign against Germany is not so well managed by the author. Denmark hesitates, and, finally, being threatened with a German occupation, joins the French. After the consideration of plans for taking Jutland and Schleswig as a base, the French capture Swinemünde, make a diversion in the Island of Rügen, and, after a good deal of hard fighting in a long battle, take Stettin and march on Berlin. The Russians now declare war both on Austria and Germany, and make an alliance with France. The German ships are all destroyed; a tremendous battle is fought at Ahrensfelde near Berlin between 230,000 Germans and 270,000 Russians, French, and Danes, in which the Germans are completely beaten and obliged to ask for an armistice. Peace is made happily for France, which recovers Alsace and Lorraine, exacts a rectification of the Italian frontier and a large war indemnity from both Germany and Italy. The maps and plans of the book are excellent.

—For half a century, *i. e.*, since Jacob Grimm published his well-known essay in 1840, no one poem in Anglo-Saxon, except, of course, 'Beowulf,' has attracted so much attention as the version of St. Andrew's adventures, usually attributed to Cynewulf. We are therefore justified in speaking at some length of a recent Leipzig dissertation, 1887, by a young Virginian, Charles William Kent, entitled "Teutonic Antiquities in Andreas and Elene." The dissertation evinces industry and ample familiarity with the routine of Anglo-Saxon poetry. It entitles the writer to more than a "pass" for the doctorate. But whether he is fully equipped for so complicated a problem is another question. It is no longer safe to couple the Andrew poem and the Elene poem together, the general drift of opinion being now that the author of the one cannot be the author of the other. On the other hand, 'Beowulf' and the Andrew poem are to be treated together, as a palpable case of borrowing. No one should undertake to treat of the Andrew poem without first mastering the genesis of the legend, as treated by Lipsius in his 'Apokryphe Apostelgeschichten' (i, 543-622). Next, we are not at liberty to treat what at first sight appears odd to us in the Andrew poem as a survival of Teutonic belief and customs. Many of these oddities appear in the Greek-Latin legend. Thus, page 63, Kent speaks of St. Andrew's admission to the pilot that he has no money, as indicating among the early English a mercenary spirit. But this same incident occurs in the 'Acta' (cf. Lipsius, p. 550). Again, page 8, Kent says: "The description of God as a pilot, vv. 248 ff., is entirely analagous to the many stories current, according to which Woden had performed the same duties." In the footnote he refers to Zupitza, *Zeit. f. d. Alter.* xxx (175-185). We fail to discover any such opinion in Zupitza's essay, nor is it likely that the Berlin professor ever entertained it.

Zupitza is too familiar with Lipsius to ignore the fact that the entire god-pilot conception is a distinctively Gnostic invention (cf. Lipsius, p. 598). What of resemblance there may be between the pilot of Andrew and the god Wodan is of mythological import only to such as are prepared to admit a fundamental kinship between the Edda and the Gnosis; and that is still a long way off. We hope that Mr. Kent will continue his Andrew studies, only giving them another direction. Let him do for his poem what Glöde has done for the 'Elene.' The task will not be easy, but it will be remunerative, and we shall gladly welcome it. Meanwhile the Teutonic antiquities can and indeed must wait.

—The Hungarian Academy of Sciences has just published a work of four hundred pages by the Archduke Joseph entitled, 'Romano Tchikakero Siklaribe,' or Grammar of the Gypsy Language, which he intends to follow with a Dictionary of one thousand folio pages. The Archduke is well known as one of the leading Romany scholars. He had studied the Eastern languages, and especially the dialects derived from the Sanskrit, when, in an excursion to Bohemia in 1850, he was struck (as he says in his preface) by "the great number of words the meaning of which I understood in listening to the wandering gypsies. I entered into conversations and convinced myself that they spoke a language similar to the vernacular dialects of India. From that time I profited by every occasion of chatting with the gypsies, and visited their camps in different countries, until I succeeded in talking their language. I engaged educated gypsies to draw up a vocabulary containing the differences between the dialects and the Indian originals of the words." His enterprise was favored by his serving from 1853 to 1856 in a regiment so recruited that his soldiers spoke three Hungarian as well as one Wallachian dialect When on leave he visited the gypsy colonies in Nassau and near Erfurt, and afterwards served in Hungarian garrisons, where he had many occasions of practising talking. The Archduke knew nothing about the literature of the subject until he had acquired a full knowledge of the language. According to him, the first man who indicated the true origin of the gypsies was a Hungarian, Stephen Válvi, Protestant clergyman at Almás, who, at the University of Leyden, had made the acquaintance of some Malabar students, had been struck by the resemblance of their language to that of the gypsies, and had made, for the sake of comparison, a vocabulary of about one thousand Malabar words, which, on returning to Hungary, he found easily understood by the gypsies.

CRITICAL HISTORY OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

The United States of North America. Part I. [Vol. VI. of the Narrative and Critical History of America, edited by Justin Winsor.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

In all its fulness, the Revolutionary period of our history, to which the present volume of this standard work is devoted, is coextensive with the quarter of a century following the Stamp Act agitation to the adoption of the Federal Constitution of 1789. Within these years we have something like an era in which a certain movement is carried out to completion—one system overthrown and another set up. The historian must observe that the moment the colonist took issue with Crown or Parliament as to his obligations as a subject, and continued to insist upon his own interpretation of the home Constitution—finally making his position good through war—the work in hand remained unfinished until he re-established himself in a new body politic with a Constitution to suit himself. It was, in effect, that transitional period in which the inchoate colonial idea of governmental relations developed into our national idea of *e pluribus unum*, with mutual rights conserved through mutual concessions. One is hardly satisfied with simply knowing why and how the thirteen colonies became independent of Great Britain; he looks forward to their new platform, curious to ascertain, perhaps, how far it was a realization of early and digested plans, or how far it was shaped by the struggle itself and the situation at the close. It is a dovetailed, continuous piece of history. In this light the volume at hand covers only one portion of the period reached, and the reader must await the appearance of the chapters on the adoption of the Constitution to appreciate the whole in its bearing upon the destiny of the country.

What we have here is the story of the struggle—the eight years' war from 1775 to 1783—with the necessary preliminary chapters on the causes leading to the outbreak, and on the change of issue from that of justifiable resistance to that of total separation and independence. As far as it goes, the volume in the main sustains the high character of the work as established by the volumes already published, and while open to certain criticisms itself, is especially strong on its "critical" as against its "narrative" side. Like its predecessors, it is admirable in its general impartiality, its fidelity to historical truth, the style of the several contributions, and in the extent of the researches undertaken by the editor.

In the opening chapter we have a philosophical treatment of the causes of the Revolution from the pen of Mr. Mellen Chamberlain. He carries us out of the ruts at once by suggesting a closer study of contemporaneous English history, in the assertion that the Revolution was "no unrelated event," but formed "a part of the history of the British race on both continents"; furthermore, that it was "a strife between two parties, the conservatives in both countries as one party, and the liberals in both countries as the other." Again, "as an event common to the history of both nations, it stands midway between the Great Rebellion and the Revolution of 1688 on the one hand, and the extension of suffrage in 1884 on the other, and belongs to a race which had adopted the principles of the Reformation and of the Petition of Right." In other words, our Revolution was an inevitable and logical movement, in which the disputes about taxation, charters, navigation acts, and what not, were the local aggravating issues. Mr. Chamberlain could have gone further and claimed a difference in the two sets of parties themselves, the American Tory being less a Bourbon than the English Tory, and the American Liberal being much more of a radical than his namesake at home. It took that crisis and the war to open up England's eyes to the fact that one hundred and fifty years of isolation, independent development, local self-government, and unhampered growth generally had made another man of the colonist. A new political community had arisen here, and England did not know it. King and Parliament fancied that they were dealing with a rebellious spirit which must be curbed, failing to realize that behind it existed quite another spirit, which expressed the genius of colonial life and ideas. The one fact that interests us most to-day is, that the political views of the great Liberal party of the colonists not only were defended successfully in war, but have since been accepted by the mother country as the best for her own guidance. Great Britain long stood on Lord Mansfield's doctrine that equal and free voting communities were not essential, even in a representative government—that virtual representation answered all the purposes of actual representation; but within the century she has abandoned that position, and now stands squarely on the colonial platform of 1776, namely, uniform and direct representation of the people in all legislative bodies. This we may regard as something of a "vindication" of our forefathers.

Necessarily the greater part of the present volume is devoted to the war. Rev. Dr. Ellis writes on "Independence." Mr. Winsor, the editor, contributes the chapter on Lexington and the events of 1775, under the title of "The Conflict Precipitated." Gen. Geo. W. Cullum takes up the campaigns of 1776 and 1777 in New York as "The Struggle for the Hudson." Mr. F. D. Stone treats of Howe's and Clinton's operations in Pennsylvania and New Jersey as "The Struggle for the Delaware." Prof. Edward Channing describes "The War in the Southern Department"; Rev. E. E. Hale, the "Naval History of the Revolution"; Mr. A. E. Davis, "The Indians and Border Warfare"; and Mr. W. F. Poole, "The West, from the Treaty of Peace with France, 1763, to the Treaty of Peace with England, 1783." This series of well-written chapters, which must constitute the main interest of the work for the general reader, is supplemented, as already indicated, by exhaustive critical notes contributed by the editor, which must constitute the main interest of the work for the student or future historian looking for a convenient compendium of authorities and opinions from which to retell the story. Assuredly the story will be told many times over, for no completeness or excellence of labor in one generation will debar the patriotic writer of the next from associating his name with this same record of heroism and nation-founding. To such Mr. Winsor's critical notes will be a boon. These notes are enriched with many references to MS. maps (some of which are reproduced in the volume) which have not been accessible or consulted heretofore, while, on the other hand, it is a matter of some surprise that so little use has been made of the valuable collections of Revolutionary letters and documents at different points which others have but partially drawn upon. In this direction there is much important work yet to be done.

Welcome as this volume will be to the student especially interested in the Revolution, some weak points may be detected in the arrangement of the narrative portion. Were the several chapters to be separated from the critical essays and notes and presented as a complete description of the war, they would be open to the criticism both of not covering the entire ground and of presenting a faulty perspective. The latter defect may be noticed in the position assigned to the battles of Trenton and Princeton in the early part of the struggle. The whole significance of these two American victories—and it cannot be overrated—lies, as every schoolboy knows, in the fact that they closed the otherwise disastrous campaign of 1776 with a happy and brilliant surprise, offsetting Long Island and the loss of Fort Washington, rëestablishing confidence at a most critical moment, and effectually foiling the enemy for the time being. These battles are inseparable from the operations around New York in that year, but no reference is made to them in that connection. When Mr. Stone takes them up as

a part of the movements in New Jersey and Pennsylvania, their effect is lost. Nor is the continuity and climax effectively sustained in the treatment of operations on the Hudson. No doubt Burgoyne's surrender was vital and decisive, as the event proved. But it is not to be supposed that either the vanity of the British generals or the pride of the Ministry would permit them to regard any disaster occurring in 1777 as disturbing their ultimate schemes. Braddock had been Burgoyned in the Pennsylvania woods a score of years before. Might not another Wolfe appear to avenge Saratoga? Hence the occupation of New York and every move thereafter along the line of the Hudson becomes important. It is now known that the operations of '79, culminating in Stony Point, looked to something decisive, and again in 1780 the dickering with Arnold was another effort in the same direction. The "Narrative" shows no relation of events here. As to the final grand campaign ending at Yorktown, the interesting question of responsibility for British failure, which presumably should have been settled, is cautiously left open for some future verdict. As far as this work goes, Clinton and Cornwallis were equally innocent and equally responsible. We cannot say that anything was added to the value of the critical notes in the editor's acceptance of certain charges of treason lately brought against Gen. S. H. Parsons of the Revolutionary army. Far from proved in themselves, it was for such a work as this to express a doubt regarding them, and a hope that the matter would be thoroughly sifted. The probabilities are that the charges can be successfully refuted. "Anglo-Hessian," frequently used in one of the chapters, is a misnomer as applied to the enemy's army. There was no alliance there.

Barring secondary strictures, this work is to be regarded with pride. It is not likely to be repeated for a generation or two, and then there will be reason for another in the new material which is destined to appear in the interim.

MORE NOVELS.

Len Gansett. By Opie P. Read. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

Isidra. By Willis Steell. Ticknor & Co.

A Blind Lead: A Story of a Mine. By Josephine W. Bates. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Agatha Page: A Parable. By Isaac Henderson. Ticknor & Co.

Home Again. By George MacDonald. D. Appleton & Co.

The Island; or, An Adventure of a Person of Quality. By Richard Whiteing. Longmans, Green & Co.

For God and Gold. By Julian Corbett. Macmillan & Co.

Texar's Revenge; or, North Against South. By Jules Verne. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.

The Nun's Curse. By Mrs. J. H. Riddell. D. Appleton & Co.

Five Hundred Dollars, and Other Stories of New England Life. By C. H. W. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

David Poindexter's Disappearance, and Other Tales. By Julian Hawthorne. D. Appleton & Co.

How Deacon Tubman and Parson Whitney Kept New Year's, and Other Stories. By W. H. H. Murray. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.

MOST novel readers will not have forgotten 'The Story of a Country Town,' which was written by a Kansas editor, nor the interest which was aroused by the plain, honest portrayal in its pages of a phase of Western life not uninteresting in itself. Mr. Read is another Western editor, this time from Arkansas, who has put his experiences and observations in the form of a novel. He has not made nearly so good a story as Mr. Howe's; he has shown neither the feeling nor the imagination which counted for so much in the work of his brother—as Western editors delight to call each other. But he has shown the same realization of the value of his materials—especially the temporary value which is given to them by novelty. The curious people with whom Len Gansett cast his lot at Abbott's Ford, only needed to be drawn with intelligent realism in order to afford amusement. The sympathy and insight which would be necessary to endow the history of their homely affairs with anything higher or better than mere amusement, Mr. Read has given no indications of possessing. The plot is even commonplace, or would be so if carried out by a class of people better known in fiction; but in developing it the author has shown the same careless readiness which marks his style, together with a contempt for minute probabilities and perfunctory explanations that makes the tale extremely readable. He has taken up with a very simple trick in character drawing, too, which is always amusing and successful to a degree quite incommensurate with the ease of its employment—that is, the practice of tacking a peculiarity, a queer habit or eccentricity, upon a character, and labelling him, as it were, for the convenience of the reader. Critics have condemned this device ever since the first comparisons were drawn between the plays of Shakspere and Ben Jonson. Even Mr. Besant, who has been so kind in advising and counselling young novelists, warns them to beware of the enticing facility and delusive success of this method of characterization. Mr. Read's hearty humor and jocose spirits help him out a great deal, and one is quite content to keep up the acquaintance of the shiftless Braley until the last page, even though one then sees him depart with an order in his pocket for his precious "middlin' of hog meat," the pursuit of which had occupied him pretty constantly from the date of his introduction.

Small, however, as is the apparent skill with which Mr. Read has carried on the action of his rather trite and somewhat sensational plot, it is useless to deny that most readers will be surprised when young Gansett strikes the match in the face of the robber whom he had captured, and discovers his benefactor, Col. Bently. Then they will wonder that they should have been deceived into being surprised. The dénoûment is so entirely in the ordinary method that one is only entrapped by the writer's apparent clumsiness and the lack of design which his first chapters seem to show. One divines Honeycut's connection with the stage robberies without any trouble from the first, and realizes with equal readiness that his evil deeds will finally be the means of putting his troublesome meddling at an end.

In striking contrast with the naturalness and the impressiveness which belong to Mr. Read's novel, because he wrote from accurate knowledge and experience, are the presumption and misdirected efforts after originality and powerful effects to be found in the pages of 'Isidra' and 'A Blind Lead'—the former a story of love, war, and adventure in Mexico, the latter the history of a high-strung heroine of a mining camp, who drops dead on learning that her lover's affection is lost. Both writers are so strongly deluded with the notion that they are doing something very fine and important, that it is almost impossible to finish their romantic tales with any patience whatever. Both Mr. Steell and Miss Bates could not do better, if they expect to continue writing novels, than to take a lesson in simplicity and true values from Mr. Read.

There is something of improvement noticeable in the work of Mr. Henderson, though 'Agatha Page,' as 'The Prelate' was, is written at such a length, with such a tedious minuteness of explanation and description, that reading it, one imagines, will be to many only an exercise in judicious skipping. With so few incidents of real importance in the development of the story—and an old, old story, too, at that—with so little art in subjecting the much that is irrelevant, with an unenlivened, uniform treatment, it is no wonder if the quiet, fastidious good taste with which it is written will now and then pall on the reader. The story is even less American than was Mr. Henderson's first novel; for the heroine of 'The Prelate' was an American by birth, while the mother of Agatha Page was an Italian.

'Home Again' is a rather slight piece of work to come from George MacDonald's pen, and seems hastily, even carelessly, written. It is the story of a young Scotchman who goes to London to make a name and fortune in literature. His repeated failures and final partial success are described with a briefness not unwelcome when one thinks of the numerous novelists who have given us Coleman's career in detail. His illusive love affair, his final surrender and return to his father's house, and the love of his father's ward; the people, friendly and otherwise, with whom he meets—are all drawn with the cleverness and facility which could hardly help but belong to such a practised hand. Yet as usual they are but pegs for Mr. MacDonald to hang his sermons on.

Mr. Whiteing, too, has written a sermon which he has thinly disguised as 'An Adventure of a Person of Quality.' It is rather a heavy sermon, and arraigns the entire system of modern civilization, political economy and all. It is Carlyle mixed with milk and water. In spite of the delightful picture of the island, with its little community living in brotherhood, simplicity, and love, and in spite of the romantic passages between the pessimistically philosophical lord and the beautiful Victoria, one prefers Carlyle undiluted with pettiness, however charming, and romance untinctured with Carlyle, however softened and sweetened to the taste.

Romance and adventure pure and simple are to be had in Julian Corbett's 'For God and Gold.' It is a much better story than 'The Fall of Asgard,' by the same author, for it is closer to humanity. Though Mr. Corbett has not yet got to writing of the present time, he has not gone so far back as the Norse legends, but only to the times of Sir Francis Drake, whose character and career offer such excellent opportunities to the writer of adventure based on a semblance, at least, of fact. The story recalls 'Westward Ho' to some extent, but hardly enough to invite comparison. But even if one were tempted to make the comparison, 'For God and Gold' has nothing to lose thereby. For it is a story with an interest and individuality of its own, written in a quaint and taking way, and dealing with brave, high-minded, and generous people. No one can help loving the hero captain, or admiring his devoted and courageous men. Nor can one follow the history of their exploits as told by the polished and scholarly Mr. Festing without being interested.

Very different is 'Texar's Revenge,' a story

of our civil war by Jules Verne. It has been reported of the author of our most charming novels that he writes them as other men would saw wood. But we do not often meet with a novel that is more evidently produced mechanically than is 'Texar's Revenge.' There are characters almost without number, contrasts, surprises, mysteries, incidents, and situations which ought to be thrilling, descriptions which are probably correct to the letter, but which are, after all, scarcely more than botanical catalogues. Everything seems to be perfectly in rule and worked out carefully and with due completeness, but the spirit of life is lacking. It is a work of the saw and hammer, not of the imagination.

Mr. Riddell has written a very dreary, depressing story, chiefly, we suppose, for the purpose of utilizing an old Irish legend. But it was quite unnecessary to provide Mr. Terence Conway with the curse of any nun, legendary or real, in order to account for his misfortunes and pitiful career. His own character was fully weak enough to carry all the responsibility of his failures without saddling them on an Irish superstition. The friends and acquaintances of Mr. Conway are a rather poor lot of people, as people go in novels, and it is doubtful whether the pleasure of watching that gentleman reap the fruits of his own actions, and then half-heartedly lay the blame to the nun's curse, repays one for the time spent in their company.

The time is not lost, however, which is spent in making the acquaintance of the characters in C. H. W.'s 'Stories of New England Life.' They may be plain people, without romance or legends of any sort, without any tendency towards introspection or fine discrimination in the matter of motives or spirituality ; but they have a firm hold on the essentially worthy things in life and character. It is a hold which they maintain by faith, and which serves them through every-day trials and keeps them up to a high level of truth and right. The stories are excellent as stories; they are fine in the simplicity and quietness of their tone. Their interest is unstrained and natural as can be, yet it is always sufficient. They are subdued without being dull; they are telling and sincere. Most of the stories have already been printed in the magazines, and one who reads magazine stories now and then will perhaps recognize some of them as sketches which gave him pleasure years ago.

The volume of tales by Julian Hawthorne does not deserve such high praise, yet they are fairly good stories. Whoever enjoys Mr. Hawthorne's penchant for the supernatural, really could not object to stories like "Ken's Mystery" and "My Friend Paton"; and if we do not care for what is untrue to nature as we know nature, there is "David Poindexter's Disappearance," which may be explicable according to nature's laws, but which is too unreal for the laws of art.

Of the four stories in Mr. Murray's volume, only the first is really good, and it is but a sketch. It is better than the others because it is less pretentious and really has a point. The reader is interested, that is to say, in whether the Deacon and the Parson are going to win the race. Slight as this interest is, it is more than the fragments following possess. If Mr. Murray expects to find readers who will finish his books, he should devote more pains to devising some sort of a beginning and end for his stories, and then put something besides words in the middle.

A FUNCTIONARY OF THE SECOND EMPIRE.

Memoirs of Count Horace de Viel-Castel. Translated and edited by Charles Bousfield. 2 vols., 8vo. London: Remington & Co. 1888.

Count Horace de Viel-Castel was a brother of Count Louis, whose death occurred in 1887. He belonged to a family of the old noblesse, was born in 1802 and died in 1864. He was the author of half-a-dozen novels of fashionable life, of three or four historical works, chiefly concerned with the first French Revolution, and of a volume of poems. He was on terms of close friendship for many years with Princess Mathilde Demidoff, the daughter of Jérôme Bonaparte, a patroness of letters and arts, and herself an exhibitor at the Salon of 1859 and later years. It was, presumably, through this friendship that he became an adherent of Napoleon III., while his brother permanently withdrew from public office immediately after the *Coup d'État*. Shortly after the accession of Louis Napoleon, Count Horace was appointed Conservator of the Museum of Sovereigns at the Louvre, his chief in office being the Comte de Nieuwerkerke, Director-General of National Museums, and the avowed lover of the Princesse Mathilde, who was separated from her husband in 1845.

The English translation and edition of the memoirs begins abruptly in 1851, and ends as abruptly in 1864, without giving a word of information about the personality or biography of the author. The editor simply mentions that "it has been deemed advisable to omit much," but does not indicate what the omissions were or for what reason they were made. Neither does he supply an index, which is almost indispensable in a book of this kind, where so many names of prominent people occur (and most of them occur repeatedly) on many various pages. The translation reads smoothly, although marred by colloquialisms and infelicities, as when we read of the "Order of the Holy Spirit" instead of the Holy Ghost, or "fifteen days" instead of a fortnight, etc.

The diary throws little if any new light on the political or social aspects of the period which it covers, but it supplies many new details which serve to confirm the commonly received opinion of the utter corruption of manners and morals and politics of the Second Empire. The picture here presented of the open and unblushing profligacy of court circles carries one back to the days of the Orleans regency as depicted in the licentious novels of Crébillon the younger, with the aggravation that the chief men of the Empire, besides being loose in their lives, seem to have been without any sense of honor or dignity. The terms in which they are here spoken of remind the reader of Kinglake's invectives, and go far to justify his vigorous censure. Indeed, M. de Viel-Castel leaves nothing to be desired in the way of plain speaking. According to him, Walewski owed his position to the fact that his wife was one of the Emperor's favorite Sultanas; Persigny was as much like a gentleman as chicory is like coffee—a mere vulgar intriguer, tortuous in his methods, abject in appearance, as pompous as a lackey, and as spiteful as a beadle ; Fould, Mocquard, Morny, and other favorite councillors of the Emperor are described in equally complimentary terms, as are also the members of the Bonaparte family, who are spoken of collectively as being, with very few exceptions, a blackguardly set. The flower of the family undoubtedly was Prince Napoleon, popularly known as Plon-Plon, and detested by the French people for his cowardice. The book is full of him and his meannesses. Meanness, indeed, and actual avarice was always the distinguishing trait of the Bonapartes. Thus, under date of August 20, 1852, occurs the following entry:

"On his return from visiting the French seaports, Prince Jérôme went to report to the President the ovations he had received, and handed him the statement of his expenses. This the President declined to pay, telling his uncle that he had already given him more than two million francs, with a pension of three hundred thousand francs a year besides, and that it was impossible for him to do more. An altercation ensued. Jérôme lost all control of himself, and at last said, 'You have nothing of the Emperor about you.' 'You are mistaken,' replied the President, with perfect composure, 'I have his family about me.'"

Money played a great rôle at that time and among those men. Of the Empress, M. de Viel-Castel says that "she only thinks of what diamonds, jewels, and money she can get out of the Emperor; when any present is made to the Emperor, or the dedication of some work is offered him, she advises him to decline them, alleging that he will have to make some acknowledgment in return." In another place, in speaking of the President's absolute want of funds at the time of the *Coup d'État*, the Princess Mathilde is quoted as saying that "when Fleury had to be sent to Africa to bring home Saint-Arnaud and the other officers whose devotion could be relied upon, no one had money enough to pay the expenses of his journey."

It would be erroneous to suppose that the author's purpose in making these and similar revelations is to attack or discredit the Empire. He was from the beginning a devoted admirer and adherent of Napoleon III., and his mental attitude as displayed in this diary, taken in connection with his character as it is there unfolded, may serve in some measure to explain how it was possible for a vulgar adventurer to maintain himself for so many years on the French throne. M. de Viel-Castel was a gentleman of narrow mind and strong prejudices, but imbued with a feeling of patriotism and a love of rectitude and good morals. He had a hearty contempt for the middle class, and for the Orleanists, who represented the ideal of the middle class. He calls the Orleanists an accursed race, who have caused every insurrection that has taken place during sixty years. He says that "the Comte de Paris is the representative of a pretended right to the throne which rests on no kind of principles whatever, since the revolution which gave Louis Philippe the crown was in itself a negation of legitimacy. The proclamation of royalty in 1830 was brought about by some three hundred and odd votes, but the test of universal suffrage was never appealed to. The Comte de Paris, therefore, who represents neither legitimacy on the one hand, nor popular opinion on the other, protests against the fusion of Orleanists and Legitimists." Along with this contempt of the Orleans party, our author cherishes an ardent hatred of the Red Republicans and of all sorts of radicals, whether in religion or in politics. Of the French diplomatists of the Republic of 1848, he says that one-third were fops, another third blockheads, and the remainder had only just enough passable qualities to make them useful. Another tirade is as follows: "After 1848 we sent a fiddler to Naples, a melodramatic writer to Lisbon, a professor of languages to Frankfort, and to Berlin the son of an astronomer, a barrister of questionable repute, who passed his time in running after actresses and playing dominoes. *Risum teneatis?*" Victor Hugo he calls a

wretched knave, a poltroon, with the pride of Satan, and asserts, on the doubtful authority of Morny, that he offered his services to Napoleon as Minister of Public Instruction. He sums up his views tersely when he says, "The 'reds' are ruffians, the 'whites,' to whichever side they belong, are idiots, and the rest are supreme nincompoops. With such materials make a great nation if you can."

Who can doubt that these opinions were shared by a large body of the French people who were tired and worn out with revolutions, agitation, and turmoil, and were ready to welcome any government that seemed to possess some element of stability and to hold out some hope of order and tranquillity? Imagine the anarchist riot of Chicago repeated at numerous times and places on a larger scale; imagine prominent politicians and editors truckling to the insurrection, and taking sides with it; imagine the party of anarchy actually invested with power, and who can doubt that a strong sentiment in favor of crushing such dangerous opinions would speedily develop itself regardless of any injury done to the doctrine of liberty? It was such a sentiment that enabled Louis Napoleon to seize and hold the reins of power. M. de Viel-Castel is curiously blind to the character of the Emperor, although he sees very clearly and deplores frequently the turpitude of the men who surround him. He does not see, however, that these men suit the Emperor because their character corresponds to his own, and because men of integrity would not serve his purpose. This is the more singular, as he frequently comes very near forming a correct estimate of the Emperor. In speaking of Prince Napoleon, he says that he despised his father as all people without rectitude despise each other; but it does not occur to him to apply this axiom to the Emperor, although he mentions that the latter had no esteem for anybody, but classed all people under two heads, *useful* and *useless*.

Another circumstance which helps to explain the tame acquiescence of the French in the *Coup d'État* is that it was not unexpected. Under date of February 2, 1851, M. de Viel-Castel says: "Fatality marks the advent of the Second Empire, and the wisest course, in the midst of a people without faith, energy, or rectitude, is to anticipate nothing." On October 9, in the same year, he writes:

"We are now approaching what people call the crisis of 1852, and never in my experience have conspiracies been so rife. . . . Neither conspiracies nor *coups d'état* have yet come to anything, for one and the same reason, namely, that when the moment arrives for belling the cat, people are too timid to act. . . . On the 21st of last September the *Coup d'État* was all ready. On the 23d it was uncertain, because at the critical moment the generals, and, notably, Carrelet, could not be relied upon. It was, therefore, postponed. We can only trust to unexpected contingencies."

This tallies with the remark made by Maxime du Camp, in his 'Reminiscences,' that a *coup d'état* was expected daily, and that the only question was whether the President would get ahead of the Assembly, or *vice versa*. It may therefore be assumed not only that the shock was not a very startling one, but that there was almost a sense of relief in the reflection that the dreaded event had at last happened, and was no longer among the things to be apprehended.

Although an adherent of the Empire, M. de Viel-Castel has much fault to find with public men and public measures. He exclaims pathetically, "Alas, why am I so often obliged to blame a Government I like?" He disapproved violently of the English alliance and of the Italian campaign. He was a violent Anglophobe, and never tired of inveighing against British duplicity and hypocrisy. Lord Palmerston was his pet aversion. Next to him came Victor Emmanuel and Count Cavour. He was convinced that the Papacy could not survive the loss of its temporal power. He had no love for journalists and lawyers. Concerning the latter he says:

"The Emperor in his former fulminations always criticised unsparingly governments composed of lawyers, and yet no administration was ever so full of them, so monopolized by gentlemen of the long robe, as his own. It is true that under Louis Philippe barristers occupied too many of the important offices, but the principal ministers were always Broglies, Molés, Guizots or Thierses. To-day we have descended lower still: Rouher is a barrister, Billault a barrister, Magne a barrister, Abbatucci a barrister, and so on. A barrister could not be found for the post of War Minister, but the Minister of Foreign Affairs [Walewski] is a Polish Jew, a bastard son of Napoleon I., and the Minister of State [Fould] a bankrupt Jew, who, through the agency of his son, manages to manipulate all important financial transactions."

He is equally candid in his remarks on the Empress and her mother. What he says about her greed of money has already been quoted. A graver blemish is referred to in the assertion that "she is very thick with Madame Walewski. The Empress and Madame Walewski are inseparable; they wear the same dresses and bonnets, have the same opinions, and concert together, the one in her position of legitimate, the other in that of illegitimate wife, to oppose the Emperor in his Roman policy."

In another place we read:

"In the life of the Emperor she fills the same part that Mme. du Barry did in Louis XV.'s. She befriends the ladies whom the Emperor *distinguishes* with his regard, favors their relations with her husband, and through their influence seeks to wield a greater power over him. Countess Walewski, the favorite Sultana, and Countess La Bédoyère, and Mlle. Pomeyrac, both of whom are known to be on the best possible terms with the Emperor, are received by her with the greatest cordiality."

Of the Emperor's intimate friend, Count d'Orsay, and of his wife, Lady Henrietta d'Orsay, M. de Viel-Castel has some equally edifying things to say. Of Rachel, the actress, he remarks: "Rachel fully understands the charms of good manners and choice conversation, but it is said that there are times when she easily dispenses with either."

He has no patience with the pretensions of authors and authoresses, and is unsparing in his censures on their lives and manners. He repeats some of the arrogant sayings of the elder Dumas, whose magnificent self-conceit was even greater than that of Charles Reade. At a dinner at Princess Mathilde's, the novelist said: "In four years' time I shall go for an extended voyage, and shall leave behind me, as a farewell to my country, two unfinished novels with this inscription upon them: 'Frenchmen! you who bear that splendid name are a nation of thirty-five millions; there are five thousand writers among you. Well, I defy any of you to finish my two novels.'" We are told that on this occasion Dumas monopolized the conversation from seven to eleven, and spoke of no one but himself.

Concerning George Sand there are some severe strictures. Béranger is called the biggest scoundrel in all Christendom; Musset was mad with pride and drink; Paul Delaroche is a tradesman. "Lamartine Belisarius may be seen every day at his office, where, if you go to subscribe your twenty francs for his periodical publications, you are received by the great man himself. He holds out his helmet to you and says, 'Date obolum Belisario.' You let your napoleon fall into the old Roman's headpiece. You get your receipt and he sees you to the door." Of Eugène Sue it is written, the day after his death, "He was a mediocre writer, without morality or conviction, and a disreputable individual in every sense."

Taken as a whole, these volumes present a gloomy picture of their time and country. The bitterest enemy of the French people could not draw a more damaging indictment of their character.

Forms of Animal Life: A Manual of Comparative Anatomy, with Descriptions of Selected Types. By the late George Rolleston, D. M., etc. Second edition, revised and enlarged, by W. Hatchett Jackson, M. A., etc. Pp. xxii, 937. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

THE first edition of this work, published in 1870, was one of the earliest, if not the very first, to embody the method, since become so general, of presenting approximately complete accounts of *types* or representative forms. The revision was begun in 1879, but Professor Rolleston, who—as stated in *Nature*—"rose every morning at six o'clock to get two uninterrupted hours for writing it," was soon afterward incapacitated, and his death in June, 1881, left to Mr. Jackson, already engaged as collaborator, what the latter regarded as a "sacred trust." The fulfilment of this trust has resulted in the product of a volume inconveniently large and undesirably costly; and while it is a monument to the learning and industry of the authors, there may be fairly entertained a doubt whether the task of preparing a second edition should have been undertaken at all.

As a guide to actual work in the laboratory the book is not entitled to mention; the few directions given, as on p. 17, are not sufficiently explicit, and the use of a red injection for the veins (p. 1) needlessly contravenes nature and precedent. The "General Introduction" discusses in a philosophical spirit some of the broader questions which are now forced upon zoölogists by the facts of Comparative Embryology, a science which—as is well remarked in the preface—has been formulated since the first edition was published. Of the body of the work a large fourth is occupied by descriptions of preparations, dissections or skeletons, of the rat, rabbit, pigeon, snake, frog, perch, ascidian, snail, mussel, cockroach, sphinx, crayfish, starfish, earthworm, leech, tapeworm, polyzoon, sea-anemone, sea-fir, fresh-water sponge, paramœcium, and amœba. Accurate and clear as these descriptions are, it is obvious that, excepting in so far as they are illustrated by the thirteen figures, they can be of direct use only to Oxford students. Then follow fourteen plates exhibiting portions of the anatomy of the rat, pigeon, frog, skate, slug, mussel, oyster, cockroach, several insects (including spiders), crayfish, starfish, earthworm, leech, tapeworm, hydra, etc. The cockroach and crayfish are well displayed, but most of the other plates are more or less unsatisfactory, either from the omission of important features or from crowding, as with the skate; the brain of this last, by the way, is very far from well adapted to serve as a type of that organ, while its multivalvular "conus," since it exists in ganoids likewise, deserved a better "showing." There is, of course, great room for difference of opinion as to the forms to be selected as representatives, but the lamprey might well have been added, and a simple ascidian should have been, even to the exclusion of some of the matter devoted to rodentia.

The larger part of the volume is strictly a manual of comparative anatomy, differing from nearly all similar works of like scope in the paucity of pictorial illustration. Nor is this defect compensated for by the evidence of a most commendable desire on the part of the surviving author to incorporate the latest possible results of research. In another respect, even more fundamental, this work is simply less objectionable than most; the italicized characterizations of certain groups, *e. g.*, the mammals, p. 359, exhibit the customary reckless intermingling of features which are constant and peculiar, with such as are constant but not peculiar, or peculiar but not constant. Out of a not unnatural deference to the views of Huxley, the Amphibia are still ranged as "Ichthyopsida," thus ignoring the less obvious but more essential characters of brain and heart, which would link them with the Reptiles rather than with "Fishes." The Tunicates are recognized as more nearly allied to the vertebrates than to the mollusks, and there is a fair account of the group and description of a preparation; but it is to be wished that some of the space and figures devoted to rodent anatomy might have been given to illustrations of urochordal structures.

As is almost universally the case in compendiums of even the highest class, the accounts of the vertebrate brain are inadequate and misleading, and there are practically no representations of the structure of a part which, aside from its lofty functions, is at least of some morphological value. The statement (p. 418) that "the cerebral hemispheres are solid in the Teleostei [bony fishes], nearly or quite solid in Elasmobranchii [sharks and rays], but contain large ventricles in Ganoidei [sturgeons and garpikes]," would merely confuse the ignorant, while it would compel the well-informed teacher to spend much time in qualification or correction, and might well arouse in the minds of students an unmerited distrust of the entire work.

Notwithstanding the well-known epigram to the effect that the author should prepare the index even if no other part of his book, this important service seems to have been intrusted to one who lacked both special knowledge of his subject and ordinary accuracy. For example, *optic chiasma* is entered under the adjective only, and reference is made to but one of the several places where it is more or less fully described; so far as might be judged from the index, a *nervous commissure* exists only in the snail, and one looks in vain for *decussation*, *pons*, and for the three well-known and important commissures, anterior, middle, and posterior, which exist among the vertebrates. The omission of *Odontornithes* from the index will, however, be approved by that increasing body of naturalists who doubted from the first whether the possession of teeth by certain fossil birds should justify their separation as a subclass, any more than the absence of those appendages of the mucosa should lead us to dissociate in the same degree the turtles from the other reptiles, the ant-eaters from the other mammals, or the sturgeons from the other ganoids.

For the most part the ambiguous terms of description *upper* and *lower* are replaced by *dorsal* and *ventral*, although there are occasional lapses, as where the cephalic or anterior part of the rabbit is spoken of as the "upper half." On p. 343, by inadvertence doubtless, *conarium* is made a synonym for *hypophysis*, and the middle name of a celebrated English anatomist is misspelled on p. viii; but typographical errors are very few, and, in view of the frequent necessity for qualifying clauses in order to secure accuracy, infelicities of expression are rare. Indeed, the following passages, from the preface and the introduction respectively, show that devotion to natural science does not necessarily hinder the development of purely literary power: "Every modern anatomist must also be a modern linguist." . . . "Nor has natural selection left untouched the record written on the pages of the life-history of any animal; it has falsified it in various ways at every stage—the ovum, its segmentation, the embryo. Special embryonic organs may attain a great prominence; normal embryonic phases may be slurred over, or perhaps extinguished. It is often hard to say what is ancestral, what acquired, to distinguish between structures which may be inherited or independently evolved."

The Life of Samuel Morley. By Edwin Hodder. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 1888.

THE gradual transfer of power during the last century from the landed aristocracy of England to the commercial classes is a subject that will repay the study of some future historian. It is not yet true that the aristocracy has given place to a plutocracy, but the tendency has been strongly in that direction. So long as members of Parliament are unpaid, they must, under the modern suffrage, either possess wealth or be supported by the possessors of wealth. Many conspicuous exceptions to this rule will suggest themselves, but no one will deny that the present composition of Parliament shows the growth of English trade and the decline of the landholding interest. The time is not very near at hand when noble birth will be an obstacle to political advancement, as was the case in Florence, and the world of fashion will, of course, always worship titles; but the intelligence of the country is not domi nated by snobbishness, and the demagogues are actually teaching Demos to execrate the name of a lord.

Samuel Morley was, owing to these changed conditions, as truly born into a great representative position as if he had been the only son of a peer. The house I. & R. Morley was already a great one when he first entered it, and its reputation was built upon the enduring foundation of honorable dealing. The character of their goods never deteriorated, and it is possible to obtain from them articles that are thread for thread identical with those produced fifty years ago. There is in their employ at present a silk framework knitter who made the Queen's stockings when she was crowned, and at the age of eighty-four reproduced them for her jubilee, and during that period an order from the Queen has always been on the books of the establishment. The factories of the house were, and still are, chiefly at Nottingham, but it long since became necessary to conduct the business in London, and John Morley, the father of the subject of this biography, removed there early in the century. He was a keen politician and a great friend of Joseph Hume, and worked hard for the return of Liberal members both for Nottingham and the city of London, but his chief prominence was as a leading Nonconformist. His house was celebrated for its hospitality, and was visited by all the prominent men of the day belonging to the Dissenting Church, and it was under such influences that Samuel Morley was educated.

It would be hard to say whether the development of his character was determined more by heredity or by his environment. The traits for which his family had been distinguished were prominent in him, but they were traits that seem to have been necessarily evolved by the stringent discipline of the Morleys' business. Efficient service was insisted on; but it was always rewarded. "A berth in Morley's meant self-respect, honor, and emolument, such as no other place in England gave to faithful service." For many years Mr. Morley personally paid their salaries to his young men, for the purpose of making their acquaintance, and he was always ready to assist them with his counsel. The business was so conducted as practically to make partners of all who were employed in it. Men were compelled to work hard and long when trade was brisk, but they were not discharged when it was slack. Connected with the stores were "household" arrangements—library and reading-room, dining-hall, and parlors. Religious influences were encouraged, but religious professions were not required, and though Mr. Morley was a strong advocate of temperance, and became an abstainer in order that his example might not offend others, he caused beer to be supplied to such of his employees as chose to use it. For cases of failure of health or accident a system of pensions was provided, and in recent years the amount annually disbursed in this way was never less than £2,000. It was Mr. Morley's desire to introduce a system of profit sharing, but he was unable to convince himself that it was practicable. It was easy to see that it would work while there were profits to share, but difficulties would arise in years of depression.

The great wealth which Mr. Morley acquired by means of his extraordinary business talents and his strict commercial integrity was expended with unbounded liberality. The admission to partnership of those of his assistants who had proved their fidelity and capacity, enabled him to leave the details of his business to their care, and eventually his time, from being applied to making money, was chiefly spent in giving it away. The number of his benefactions was prodigious, and it was necessarily the case that he was sometimes imposed upon, but he never gave recklessly. He cared little to identify his name with any vast institution, and preferred, where the occasion admitted, to make his donations conditional upon the equal generosity of others. He was especially interested in the diffusion of religious teaching among the humbler members of society, and contributed to the erection of vast numbers of chapels; but he was as ready to assist in the good works of other denominations as in those of his own, and, in spite of much opposition, succeeded in utilizing some of the London theatres for Sunday worship. It would be impossible even to enumerate the benevolent and religious societies with which he was connected, and in many of which he held office. His financial skill, as well as his purse, was at the disposal of all of them, and they were represented to the number of over one hundred at his funeral.

By virtue of his wealth, his abilities, his character, and his convictions, Mr. Morley was the head of the Nonconformists, but he was free from the bigotry, the prejudice, and the Philistinism that are sometimes associated with that name. As his father had said to him, so he said to his children: "In matters of religion and politics you are to decide for yourselves"—advice which seems to have resulted, in several instances, in their connecting themselves with the Established Church. He was active in the movement for allowing burials to take place in the parish churchyards without the interference of the representatives of the aristocratic church; but when that restoration of ancient rights had been secured, he held that subsequent measures should be carefully framed with refer-

ence to the preservation of vested interests, and, at the cost of much odium, he severed his connection with the Church Liberation Society. He believed that the Church ought to be released from its dependence upon the State, but he was convinced of the injustice of disendowment, and preferred that disestablishment should be brought about rather from within than from without. The disestablishment of the Irish Church, however, he heartily supported. In all such questions he was distinguished by the breadth of his views, and while he severely criticised many of the practices of the Established Church, he was always ready to recognize her merits. "Why don't you get rid of these abuses?" he would say; "you would find that many who now keep separate from you would unite with you if only you would reform abuses." That moderation and spirit of concession which have so happily influenced the progress of England was exemplified in him, and his position enabled him to make the most effective use of these qualities. The more bigoted of the Dissenters frequently fell out with him, but his good sense generally triumphed. His judgment is very well illustrated by his conduct towards Mr. Holyoake, as contrasted with his feeling towards Mr. Bradlaugh. Both were disbelievers in Christianity, belief in which was of the very constitution of Mr. Morley's nature; but as he knew that Mr. Holyoake was of irreproachable life, and had spent his strength in disinterested labor for the poor, he felt that it was his duty to contribute to the fund that was raised for his support. Mr. Bradlaugh's atheism, being aggravated (justly or unjustly) by a somewhat unsavory reputation, did not arouse the spirit of toleration in Mr. Morley's breast.

In political life Mr. Morley was of course a Liberal, and in Parliament closely followed Mr. Gladstone, who appreciated his support and publicly testified to the value of his services. It is interesting to note, as showing his freedom from the supposed corrupting influence of "capitalism," that in a great many instances he used his influence and his money to enable representative workingmen to offer themselves as candidates for Parliament. He liberally assisted the union of agricultural laborers, and devoted much pains to the establishment, not only of better relations between them and the farmers, but of improved conditions of rural life. As proprietor of the *Daily News* he was in a position to exert a powerful influence upon public opinion, but he seems to have seldom used the paper as the vehicle of his own views. While in Parliament he was especially prominent in connection with educational measures, and his opinion was always of weight on matters relating either to the material or moral interests of the nation. No measures, however, were especially identified with his name.

Mr. Hodder complains that his task has been a difficult one. No doubt this is true, but much of the difficulty was due to the fact that he completed it within nine months. As a result we have a colorless compilation of very moderate literary merit, and in places needlessly diffuse. He touches upon too many things in his attempt to do justice to the multifarious activity of Mr. Morley, and his portrait is blurred and confused. Longer study would have enabled him to treat his subject in a broader manner, and Mr. Morley's life was in so many respects typical of what is best and strongest in the great English middle class that the labor would have been well bestowed.

The Politics of Aristotle. With an Introduction, two prefatory essays, and notes critical and explanatory by W. L. Newman. 2 vols. I. Introduction. II. Prefatory Essays. Books i. and ii. Text and notes. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

Aristotle's work on 'Politics,' it was recently remarked by an eminent authority, is still the best text-book of the principles of political science. While, in some matters, Aristotle was feeling his way like a pioneer, in general he is surprisingly modern. The political life of ancient Greece was more active than that of any other people of the world's history. The Greeks were born politicians. Each petty principality had its distinctive form of government and its own code of laws. The political constitution of Athens differed widely from that of Sparta, and both from that of Thebes. Athens herself modified her government in important particulars during the historical period, not to speak of the two forms of oligarchy which ruled that city for a few months. The earliest extant literary work in Attic prose is a treatise on the Athenian State, which has come down to us among the minor works of Xenophon, side by side with a tract on the Spartan Constitution. Plato's most elaborate work presents a scheme for an ideal State, and in his old age, seeing that his first plan was suited only to beings purer and better than ordinary mortals, he presented in the 'Laws' a modified project of government. The comedies of Aristophanes show that such visions of perfect States were common. Xenophon, in his 'Cyropædia,' describes an ideal State, with the excellences, but not the defects, of the Spartan Government. Every conceivable scheme had been proposed, and most had been tried. We have been brought up to consider Rome as the legal country of antiquity; certainly the Greeks were the political nation of the world.

Aristotle had before him an abundance of material—far richer material than he had for his treatises in the department of natural science, where his far-sighted and fruitful observations and inferences awoke the wondering admiration of Darwin. He had made a collection of two hundred and fifty constitutions, polities, of which only fragments are extant. His criticisms on existing governments and theories of government are very keen. His remarks on the relation of the three departments of government, on hereditary monarchies, causes of revolution, influence of food on habits, bearing of the occupations of the people upon the State, origin of money, laws unsupported by public sentiment, life appointment of judges—all are as modern as the propositions of Euclid. And while we do not find in this treatise the literary style which we might expect from Cicero's expression, "Aristotle's golden river of speech," yet Aristotle uses here few of the technical expressions which make some of his metaphysical works so crabbed, and scholars have found distinct traces of literary care. The contents and form of Aristotle's 'Politics,' then, would render the work attractive to American students who have gained some familiarity with Greek. The accessible commentaries on the 'Politics,' however, have been rather severely philological, and Aristotle has been too much neglected generally in America.

Three years ago Jowett published a translation of the 'Politics,' and a volume of notes (see the *Nation*, March 4, 1886). The essays which were to accompany the translation have not appeared. Meanwhile a Fellow of Balliol College, of which Jowett is master, has published the two volumes before us. This work is a true monument of German erudition. The editor is familiar with German methods of research and the results of German scholarship in this department. The book, too, has characteristic German excellences and defects. Of the nearly eleven hundred pages, the text covers but fifty-six. The first volume of 600 pages is occupied by the Introduction—a large book in itself, but without articulation, absolutely without any division into chapters, and, of course, without index. The closely printed table of contents and the running marginal notes do not afford any substantial relief. On the margin of page 78 stands "The second"; the reader turns back nine pages before he finds "The first," and nothing in the text affords immediate help. The reader, again, is often at a loss to know whether "this subject" refers only to the minor question discussed on the last two pages, or to the larger topic which has occupied a hundred pages. A book more perplexing in its mechanical arrangement on a classical subject could hardly be contrived. By the lack of division into chapters, the editor warns off all readers who are not prepared to study his whole work in course; by the heaviness of his early pages he warns off all who do not care to study diligently. Some pages bristle with long untranslated Greek quotations. Occasionally the editor translates all but the technical words; thus he arrives at the definition of the State: "[the πόλις] is a κοινωνία issuing in a whole and formed for the end of perfect and self-complete life"—where nothing is gained by the use of the Greek words for *state* and *community*. But when he finally reaches the discussion of the political works of Aristotle and Plato, his style is vigorous and his pages are almost popular in their nature. The criticism of Plato's 'Republic' is intelligent, and the statement of Aristotle's views is admirable.

The second volume has 56 pages of text (about one-fourth of the whole work), with 66 pages of introductory essays, 40 pages of critical and 320 pages of exegetical notes. The commentary is about five times as full as that which accompanies Jowett's translation. It is diffuse but learned, presenting the results of laborious research. It is prevailingly philological and antique, rather than political and modern; but it introduces illustrations from modern times, from resident aliens in France and America, customs of the Shetlanders, Montenegrins, etc., and quotes from Mill, Comte, and Burke. As it stands, the work is an edition for scholars, and is a rich treasury for them. It might easily have been made more useful to the general reader, who will still find much to interest him if he looks for it patiently.

Agostino Bertani, e i suoi tempi. Per Jessie White Mario. Florence: G. Barbèra. 1888. 4to, pp. 650.

Mrs. Jessie White Mario, widow of the famous Italian patriot Alberto Mario, is one of those noble Englishwomen who, out of pure love for Italy, have given their life work for her cause. A worshipper of Mazzini, and married to one of his most steadfast and unconditional followers, she was initiated from the first into all the inner workings of the so-called *partito d'azione*, headed by Mazzini, and sustained by such men as Garibaldi, Bixio, Bertani, Mario, Crispi, Cairoli, Medici, and, in fact, most of the great leaders who became afterwards prominent in the history of the Italian regeneration, though not strictly following Mazzini's republican ideas. Mrs. Mario is, therefore, not only a contemporary, but an eye-witness, and in a great measure a

partaker in the struggle, having been chief nurse of the ambulance corps throughout every campaign in which Garibaldi took part, and acquiring the deserved appellation of the Florence Nightingale of Italy.

Since the fulfilment of Italian unity and independence, she has zealously labored to illustrate with her pen that momentous period of Italian history, and her works will remain a source of authentic data to the future historian of Italy. We had occasion to notice her life of Mazzini—a very exhaustive work—and now we have before us the life and times of Agostino Bertani from original documents left in his will to Mrs. Mario. Like Mazzini's life, this also is most thorough, fully authenticated, and illustrative of the events which preceded and kept pace with the Italian revolution, and the part taken in it by the "party of action," of which Dr. Bertani was a prominent leader.

Agostino Bertani was born in 1812 of a gentle family, his father being an eminent lawyer, and his mother a member of the noble family of the Parravicini, and both deep in the liberal conspiracies of 1820–21 in Lombardy against Austria, so well remembered through the imprisonment and exile of Pellico, Maroncelli, Foresti, Gonfalonieri, and others. He was thus educated from his earliest youth to the ideas of Italian liberty. He graduated as physician and surgeon at the University of Pavia, and was by merit appointed assistant to Prof. Porta in the surgical clinic of the hospital. There he took a high rank as operator and instructor, and, having completed satisfactorily his two years' service, he received from the faculty the prize of a Continental tour of instruction. It is worthy of note that the certificate to this effect was signed by Prof. Cairoli, Curator of the University, and father of five heroes of Italian liberty, four of whom died in several fields of battle, while the surviving one was Prime Minister of King Humbert, and wounded by the dagger of an assassin aimed at the King.

On his return from his travels in 1841, Dr. Bertani was appointed assistant surgeon of the hospital of Milan. But within four years his practice became so large that he had to resign in order to give all his time to it, and to editing the *Medical Gazette*, of which he was the founder. He was at the same time one of the group of conspirators for the liberty of Italy; and from the Revolution of 1848 to the day of his death, he dedicated all his energies to the cause, without ceasing to be an eminent surgeon. He was on the barricades during the famous five days in March, 1848, when the Milanese drove the Austrian troops out of the city, and was a member of the Committee that obliged the Austrian Governor O'Donnel to sign liberal concessions. Among the members of this revolutionary Committee we read the names of Correnti, now Minister of the Royal House; Cairoli, above mentioned; Cernuschi, now the millionaire financier of Paris; and others who also became famous. Dr. Bertani worked with the ardor of a patriot and a philanthropist, going from the barricades to the hospital to care for the wounded, and from it back again to the barricades. He was appointed by the Provisional Government surgeon in chief of the Liberal Army, and from that date he became, so to speak, the recognized chief surgeon in all the following revolutionary wars of liberty. On the defeat of Charles Albert, and repossession of Lombardy by the Austrians, he followed Garibaldi to Rome, where he established his ambulance at the front among the shot and shells of the French.

It is striking to read now—after nearly thirty years, and the changes that have taken place in Italy—the order of the French General Oudinot, after the surrender of Rome, that every *foreigner* should leave the city within three days. The "foreigners" referred to were all *Italians* who had not been born in the Papal dominions. Thus driven from Rome, Dr. Bertani established himself in Genoa, where in a short time he obtained a most lucrative practice, numbering among his patients, besides the Italians, such eminent English visitors as Sir James Hudson, Ambassador at Turin; Bulwer Lytton, Lady Minto, Lady Russell, and many others, yet being at the same time the medium of communication for all revolutionary movements.

One of the most intimate of his Mazzinian and radical friends was old Gustavo Modena, the actor. The present generation knows very little about him, but in his days he was the greatest actor in Italy, and the teacher of that famous school of dramatic art which formed such artists as Ristori, Salvini, Rossi, Majeroni, and other celebrities. His letters to Dr. Bertani, full of wit and radicalism, are one of the pleasantest features of Mrs. Mario's book.

Memorable among the historical dates in this biography is the 30th of April, 1860, when Dr. Bertani, being confined to his bed by illness, Garibaldi, Crispi, Bixio, Medici, Acerbi, and others met in his sick-room, and, after reading the letters from the Sicilian patriots asking assistance, decided on the famous expedition of the "One Thousand," which changed the fate of Italy. On May 5 Garibaldi sailed from Quarto for Sicily, leaving Bertani as his trusted agent for collecting funds and recruits; and from day to day he sent letters giving warnings and directions, first to recover 200 guns that were missed, and finally authorizing him to contract any debt in his name as dictator of Sicily. In fact, in less than two months, from a conspirator Dr. Bertani became the banker and representative of Garibaldi.

Mrs. Mario publishes a large number of Garibaldi's facsimiles throughout this period, which add interest to that almost legendary heroic enterprise, inviting the reader to a familiar view behind the scenes of those famous men who created the unity and independence of Italy. Of these Dr. Bertani was one of the foremost, following Garibaldi to Sicily and Naples, Aspromonte and Mentana, and then, as member of Parliament, working for Italy to the day of his death in April, 1886. Carducci, the eminent Italian poet, paid him the following tribute, saying: "He might have been a great physician and a wealthy one, but wished instead to be a great citizen and a physician of those who did not pay"—which was literally true, for he used to cure the poor for charity, his friends for love, and only the rich for a fee; but these were not the majority of his patients, and he died a poor man.

Mrs. Mario's book is printed and bound in exquisite taste, with a fine photogravure of Dr. Bertani for the frontispiece. Evidently a labor of love, it is one for which the Italians should be grateful to her.

Notes for a History of Lead, and an Inquiry into the Development of the Manufacture of White Lead and Lead Oxides. Compiled by William H. Pulsifer. D. Van Nostrand. 1888.

THE handsome octavo of nearly four hundred pages which bears this modest title, is an exhaustive history of the metal lead in its connection with the human race. The various ways in which lead has been procured, the processes of manufacture, and the uses to which it has been applied in all ages and lands, are considered not only with a good comprehension of the chemical and mechanical principles involved, but also with much erudition. The author of the book, for many years a manufacturer of white lead in St. Louis, appears to have conceived an affection for the dull and heavy substance with which he has been brought into close contact, and has devoted much time to an investigation of the story which is here set forth. That an active business man, washing off the factory dirt, should give his evenings to research, and, crossing the ocean in his vacations, should delve patiently in the library of the British Museum and those of the Continent in a conscientious effort to be thorough, is in a high degree creditable. Mr. Pulsifer appears to have gleaned what the literature of antiquity affords with relation to his subject; various curious facts are derived from crabbed mediæval manuscripts, the deciphering of which must have cost no small degree of patience; and as regards modern writers upon the topic, signs abound of a wide and careful reading in various languages.

As a maker of white lead the author naturally gives much space to the consideration of that form of the metal; but when it is learned that one-third of the lead at present produced goes into that shape—a greater amount, probably, than is put to any other one use—the space will not seem disproportionate. To the man of affairs, the full account of the various processes of the manufacture of white lead and the economic chapters relating to the development of the commerce in it, in America and Europe, will have much practical value. There are, however, points that will interest the scholar; as, for instance, when Mr. Pulsifer establishes the identity of the *cerussa* of the Romans with our modern white lead. The general reader will find most to interest him in the full account of the purposes which lead has been made to serve, some of which are very curious.

The ancients, like the moderns, used lead to fasten iron into stone, to give a glaze to pottery, and as a help in the manufacture of glass. Very singular were the "imprecation tablets, surreptitiously deposited in tombs, and sometimes even in the coffin of the deceased, that a curse might follow him to the other world," which seem "to have been more frequently deposited by women than by men." Vitruvius describes elaborately a vast aqueduct, the lead in which would cost to-day two millions. The leaden bullets of the ancient slingers often bore an inscription in relief, such as "Appear," "Show yourself," "Desist," "Take this," "Strike Rome." "The Greeks were especially fond of bullets with such mottoes, and they have been found upon Marathon and many other famous fields." While considering white lead as a cosmetic, Mr. Pulsifer quotes from Xenophon a pleasant dialogue between a young husband and wife:

"Said Ischomachus: 'Would I treat you with most loving consideration if I smeared my body with minium, and painted under my eyes in order to deceive you; or, if I so cared for my body that it should be healthy and strong, and thereby be in truth and by nature painted? Would you prefer, when you pressed your lips to my cheek, to touch my own natural and healthy skin, or a plaster of ceruse and minium?'

"'Ah,' she cried, 'it would be much more pleasant to touch your skin, and to see you not with powder on your cheeks.'

"'Believe me,' said Ischomachus, 'I like not ceruse nor minium on your dear face.'"

We have read Mr. Pulsifer's book with much interest. By producing a work so well written

and scholarly he has dignified his calling. His fellow-craftsmen will feel under an especial obligation to him, but his chapters have interest also for the world at large.

Boating. By W. B. Woodgate. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

THIS is one of the Badminton library of books devoted to various sports and pastimes, and it is fully equal to the volumes which have preceded it both in interest and completeness. A learned introduction by the Rev. E. Warre of Eton deals with Greek and Roman rowing, with biremes, and triremes, and quinqueremes; and then Mr. Woodgate takes up the story, and, beginning with the first race for "Doggett's coat and badge" in 1715, tells of early races at Eton and Westminster, and so comes down to the first race between Oxford and Cambridge at Henley in 1829, and the beginning of the races for the "Wingfield sculls," the equivalent of the amateur sculling championship in the following year. Elaborate tables at the end of the book give the results, times, and other interesting particulars of all the important races in England from 1830 to the present time, and nothing has been left undone to present an adequate history of the growth of scientific rowing. Incidentally, many interesting contests are referred to, as, for instance, the race in 1843 between Oxford and Cambridge crews at Henley, which is known as the "Seven-oar episode." Just before the final heat the Oxford stroke fainted. Cambridge objected to a substitute, and the Oxford men determined to row with seven oars, and, as the wind was abeam and favored the side which was manned by three oars, they eventually won by a length!

Amateurs of the present day may have forgotten that the sliding seats which have added so much to the pace of modern rowing are one of the many results of American ingenuity, and that their introduction into England was due to the visit of two Tyne crews to this country in 1871. The crew captained by Chambers was distinctly faster than that captained by Taylor, but the Taylor crew rowed against the Biglin-Coulter, an American crew using the sliding seats, and Taylor satisfied himself that the slide was an improvement. As soon as the Tyne crews returned to England, Taylor arranged a match, and had his boat secretly fitted with slides, and the ease with which his crew defeated their former antagonists led to the universal adoption of slides at the Henley regatta of 1882.

The chapters on scientific oarsmanship and training are admirable discourses on the text, "If a thing is worth doing at all, it is worth doing well." The rules laid down are sound, though possibly too numerous to be readily borne in mind. Out of the seventeen *details* noted at p. 57 most oarsmen will consider the following as worth more than all the others put together: (1) "Keep the back rigid and swing from the hips"; (2) "Maintain the shoulders braced when the oar enters the water"; (3) "Use the legs and feet correctly and at the exact moment required." Mr. Woodgate is undoubtedly right in recommending a modification of the old training diet in the direction of more fluid and more vegetable food, and his advice on this head applies with even greater force in our climate than in England.

Mr. Woodgate is quite unable to account for the curious fact that, since the appearance of Hanlan, English professional oarsmen have been lamentably inferior to their Canadian, American, and Australian competitors. He considers Beach, the present Australian champion, faster than Hanlan was at his best, and holds him up as an example of the old saying that "A good big one is better than a good little one"—a truth which is further exemplified by the statistics of the University races, which show that in two cases out of every three the heavier crews won.

In the course of his story, Mr. Woodgate has occasion to mention many of the leading oarsmen of past years, while, with exemplary modesty, he never speaks of his own doings; but his conclusions carry additional weight from the fact that he was one of the best oars in England during the sixties, and was often seen at Oxford sculling directly ahead of the 'Varsity eight—a position which would have been fraught with danger to a less speedy performer.

The book contains a number of good illustrations and useful maps of the different English race-courses.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Bachelor's Wedding Trip. Philadelphia: Penn Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Adee, D. G. No. 19 State Street: A Novel. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
A Pure-Souled Liar. Chicago: Chas. H. Kerr & Co.
Black, A. The Story of Ohio. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Browning, Robert. Poetical Works. Vol. III. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Brown, L. Q. C. Kenneth Cameron. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $1.25.
Carter, R. A Summer Cruise on the Coast of New England. New ed. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $1.50.
Curtis, W. E. The Capitalists of Spanish America. Harper & Bros.
Davis, Varina A. An Irish Knight of the 19th Century. John W. Lovell Co. 25 cents.
Doubleday, Gen. A. Gettysburg Made Plain. The Century Co. 25 cents.
Ewing, Mrs. J. H. Snap-Dragons, and Old Father Christmas. E. & J. B. Young & Co. 30 cents.
Fellows, G. S. "Loisette" Exposed; together with Loisette's Complete System of Physiological Memory. New York: G. S. Fellows & Co. 25 cents.
Giffin, W. M. Civics for Young Americans; or, First Lessons in Government. A. Lovell & Co.
Gréville, H. Perdue. Wm. R. Jenkins. 60 cents.
Hawthorne, J. A Dream and a Forgetting. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Heywood, P. D. An Ocean Tramp. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
James, H. The Reverberator. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Lane-Poole, S. The Story of Turkey. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Lang, A. Euterpe: Being the Second Book of the Famous History of Herodotus (ed. 1584). London: David Nutt.
Le Cato, N. J. W. Tom Burton; or, The Days of '61. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Malet, L. A Counsel of Perfection. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Mariager, P. Pictures of Hellas. W. S. Gottsberger.
Napoleon Smith: A Novel. The Judge Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Parker, Rev. J. The People's Bible. Vol. 8. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.50.
Payne, J. The Mystery of Mirbridge: A Novel. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Rice, J. H. Mexico, Our Neighbor. John W. Lovell Co. 25 cents.
Ross, C. The Gallery of a Random Collector. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Schneider, P. Aus dem Leben Kaiser Wilhelms. Berlin: Otto Jenke; New York: Westermann.

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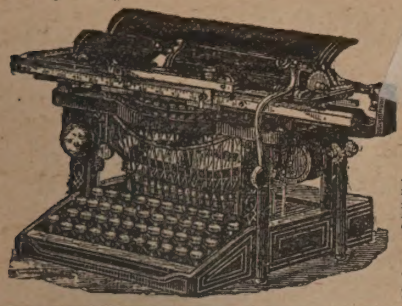

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 12, 1888.

The Week.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND'S admirable letter to the Fourth of July meeting in Tammany Hall will satisfy everybody that he is going to force the fighting on the tariff-reform issue. He shows no more disposition to fear the consequences now than he did when he sent his message to Congress last December. He sounds the keynote of the campaign in a few sentences, which sum up the whole question with the terseness and force of aphorisms:

"Our Government belongs to the people. They have decreed its purposes; and it is their clear right to demand that its cost shall be limited by frugality, and that its burden of expense shall be carefully limited by its actual needs. In the midst of our impetuous enterprise and blind confidence in our destiny, it is time to pause and study our condition. It is no sooner appreciated than the conviction must follow, that the tribute exacted from the people should be diminished. Those who oppose reform attempt to disturb our workingmen by the cry that their wages and their employment are threatened. They advocate a system which benefits certain classes of our citizens at the expense of every householder in the land—a system which breeds discontent, because it permits the duplication of wealth without corresponding additional recompense to labor, which prevents the opportunity to work by stifling production and limiting the area of our markets, and which enhances the cost of living beyond the laborer's hard-earned wages."

Rarely has the President's gift for expressing, in the homely language of common sense, the fundamental truths of large public questions stood him in better stead. The educating influence which his leadership has already exerted was forcibly shown by the enthusiastic reception which the Tammany audience gave not only to his letter, but to the strong speech which Mr. Mills made upon the real objects and effects of his Tariff Bill. A year ago a mere mention of a speech on the tariff would have emptied Tammany Hall.

Mr. Mills's speech was a model of its kind, and we fully agree with an estimate which a Tammany leader made of its influence, that it was worth at least 10,000 votes for the Democratic ticket. It will be worth more than that if it is circulated as freely as it ought to be. Mr. Mills confined himself to a frank and simple explanation of what his bill really proposes to do. There is no point upon which light is more valuable at this time, for not one man in a hundred has the remotest idea of what the bill actually is. The Republicans all shout that it is a free-trade measure, but scarcely one of them has ever read it or an accurate outline of it. Mr. Mills showed first that it would cut down the surplus $1,000,000 by taking the duty off lumber, for this reason: "The duty of $2 a thousand feet has been worth $35,000,000 to some of the 'lumber kings' of Michigan and other States, but we believed it was better that they should not make so much money, and that the struggling farmers on the prairies, who now live in sod houses, should be enabled to get lumber so cheap that they could build nice, comfortable farmhouses." Then the bill would take the duty off salt, because nature supplies it, men and beasts are in constant need of it, and the tax is merely kept on to "foster a monopoly as selfish and grasping as exists in the world." Next, it would take the duty off tin plates, which now amounts to $5,700,000 annually, though there is not a tin-plate manufactory in America. The abolition of this duty would not throw a single laborer out of employment.

In regard to the free-wool proposal of his bill, Mr. Mills spoke with especial force, and his words are a striking contrast to the "baa-aa" argument which Congressman Horr put forth at the recent Republican ratification meeting. There is not, he said, nearly enough wool grown in this country to clothe our people. We grow 265,000,000 pounds a year, and it requires 600,000,000 pounds to make clothing for our people. High duties keep out nearly all wools except the coarse carpet wools, and the result is the use of shoddy in the manufacture of the woollen clothing which workingmen wear. Over $44,000,000 worth of woollen goods are imported annually, at an average duty of 58 per cent. If wool were admitted free of duty, these woollen goods could be manufactured so cheaply in this country that the imports would stop, and we should soon be supplying foreign markets as well as our own, while the increase in our manufacturing product would increase enormously the demand for labor, and consequently enhance the rate of wages. Subsequently Mr. Mills showed, what has been shown over and over again, that the average duty on imports is now 47.10 per cent., and his bill proposes to reduce it to 40 per cent., a reduction of only 7.10 per cent. This is what the Republicans call free trade, and rather than submit to an average duty of 40 per cent., they declare that they will give the country free whiskey.

The President has given Congress some rudimentary but necessary instruction upon the question of pension legislation. Both houses of Congress have made repeated efforts to induce him to treat the subject, as they persist in doing, from the demagogic point of view, but he persistently refuses to do so, preferring to treat the American soldier as a man of character and self-respect rather than as a beggar. In a message sent to the Senate on Thursday he answers the recent "arraignment" made by that body upon his pension policy, by saying:

"None of us should be in the least wanting in regard for the veteran soldier, and I will yield to no man in a desire to see those who defended the Government when it needed defenders, liberally treated. Unfriendliness to our veterans is a charge easily and sometimes dishonestly made. I insist that the true soldier is a good citizen, and that he will be satisfied with generous, fair, and equal consideration for those who are worthily entitled to help. I have considered the pension list of the Republic a roll of honor, bearing names inscribed by national gratitude and not by improvident and indiscriminate alms-giving. I have conceived the prevention of the complete discredit which must ensue from the unreasonable, unfair, and reckless granting of pensions by special acts, to be the best service I can render our veterans."

He says that there are before him now more than 100 special pension bills which can hardly be examined within the time allowed for that purpose, and suggests that "It would be well if our general pensions laws should be revised with a view of meeting every meritorious case that can arise. Our experience and knowledge of any existing deficiencies ought to make the enactment of a complete pension code possible." This is a rational and statesmanlike solution of the difficulty, but there is little likelihood of Congress adopting it so long as there remains a "soldier vote" to be angled for.

Secretary Fairchild has been having, with a correspondent of the Springfield *Republican*, another of those talks on the "sugar fraud" affair which fill his friends—among whom we count ourselves—with sincere regret. This time he is replying to Mr. George William Curtis in *Harper's Weekly*, and asserts that he knows more about the matter than Mr. Curtis, because Mr. Curtis has not seen "the evidence collected by the agents of the Department." Now the agents of the Department who have got up this sugar-fraud story are simply one Byrne, a newspaper reporter at one time connected with the Boston *Herald*, and offering not a single guarantee, that we have been able to hear of, as to trustworthiness or knowledge either of frauds, sugar, custom-houses, valuations, or polariscopes. It is on the report of this man, whose selection for such a work by the government of a great commercial State may safely be called grotesque, that all this fraud story rests in the last resort. This was bad enough, but was aggravated when Assistant-Secretary Maynard undertook to make "politics" out of the report, and it is still further aggravated by Mr. Fairchild's passionate determination to stand by Mr. Maynard and see him through his troubles. Of course, if frauds at the Custom-house in the semi-scientific valuation of an article yielding such large revenues as sugar, were suspected, a civilized Government ought to have had them at once investigated; but the investigation ought to have been conducted by a commission, containing a scientific man of repute, a business man of repute, and perhaps a lawyer or politician of repute, and the evidence ought to have been taken publicly. If Secretary Fairchild really wishes to explain, he must begin by saying why he selected poor Byrne to overhaul the great

custom-houses of the country, and what Byrne was supposed to know either about sugar or evidence, and what his experience of life has been in any field. These are on their face somewhat ridiculous questions to ask, but they have to be asked and ought to be answered.

What is the matter with all the Republican leaders, orators, and editors? Not one of them seems able to speak of Harrison without in some way throwing cold water on his candidacy. "Steve" Elkins speaks of him as being a candidate of whom Warner Miller was able to say "almost with enthusiasm" that he "would come nearer to carrying New York" than any other candidate. The *Tribune* has made no concealment of its belief that Blaine would have been a stronger candidate. The Philadelphia *Press* has declared that the course pursued at Chicago, ending in Harrison's nomination, "is not the way to get a united party with trusted leadership." And now Mr. Estee, the Chairman of the Convention, in formally announcing to Gen. Harrison the fact of his nomination, says: "It is true, distinguished gentlemen, well known to the people, who were experienced in public affairs, illustrious in character, and worthy of the people's confidence and support, were before the Convention as candidates, *and yet you were chosen.*" That is not even "almost enthusiastic."

The first really enthusiastic support of Harrison that we have seen, outside of Indiana journalism, comes to hand in Mr. Wharton Barker's *American* of Philadelphia. Mr. Barker declares that Gen. Harrison has been his favorite candidate for five years, and implies more or less directly that for that reason he feels sure of his election next November. He pronounces the platform "straightforward, sound, and strong," and remarks: "Let us by all means have an open and direct contest on the question whether the duties on foreign goods shall be high enough to protect American industry." That statement of the issue gives rise to a suspicion that Mr. Barker has not read carefully the platform which he commends, for in that the question of the campaign is stated in a very different way, and to this effect: "Rather than reduce, revise, or alter in any way, save to make higher, the present high-tariff duties, we are in favor of giving the country free whiskey." The campaign is scarcely a fortnight old yet, but the issue is already squarely drawn as to whether cheaper food, clothing, and other necessaries of life, or free whiskey will be more beneficial to the American people. Mr. Barker will have to walk faster if he is going to keep up with the procession.

After a week of that prayerful consideration which he always gives to every question that has what Mr. Blaine calls "a moral side," Mr. Henry C. Bowen, the editor of our esteemed religious contemporary the *Independent*, announces his cordial approval and hearty support of the free-whiskey policy to which the Chicago Convention committed the Republican party. Mr. Bowen sets an excellent example to more squeamish secular editors by disregarding the absurd pretence that it makes any difference whether or not it is "a remote contingency" in which the party would resort to this policy, rightly holding that it is a question of principle. Nor does he sympathize with those secular editors who seek a salve for their less robust consciences by advancing the theory that the removal of the tax on whiskey would not increase intemperance. He entirely agrees with Mr. Blaine that it would of necessity foster drunkenness; his exact words are: "We believe the tax to be a check on the traffic." But so much more disastrous than any increase of drunkenness, however great, does he consider any reduction in the taxes upon the necessaries of life, however small, that he would remove the tax upon whiskey entirely rather than touch the tax upon wool, for instance, or upon lumber, or upon tin plates. "Rather than the surrender of any part of our protective system," the *Independent* would flood the country with cheap whiskey; and upon this platform Mr. Henry C. Bowen confidently appeals to the religious convictions of the American people.

The signs of severe mental, and even physical, suffering among the Blaineites over the charge that their candidate intrigued for the nomination at Chicago, continue to be numerous and grave. They are apparently ready to produce affidavits from various innocent men that during the whole period of the Convention's sittings he and his host, Mr. Carnegie, were absorbed in their coaching trip and in the beauties of English and Scotch scenery, and, if they had a telegraphic cipher, only used it to warn "the Boys" that Mr. Blaine positively must not be nominated. We now advise them to let the matter drop. They cannot convince a single human being who knows them or their ways of the truth of anything they say, particularly when what they say runs counter to notorious facts. Moreover, Mr. Blaine was not nominated. He is now simply a private citizen coaching with Mr. Carnegie. As such he interests very few people. Why not let him be? Why weep and curse and call names over him? Why cannot the disciples pull themselves together and be men? Life doubtless will now be hard for them, but not harder than for tens of thousands of uncomplaining widows.

Mr. Hamilton Fish, jr., is a very singular person. He told the Fassett Committee in his testimony on Monday what all his brother members of the Aqueduct Commission must have known to be incorrect, that the bad quality of the inspectors on the aqueduct was due "in great part to the character and unfitness of the inspectors sent us by the Civil-Service Commission, of which the editor of the *Evening Post* is Chairman." The editor of the *Evening Post* is not Chairman of the Civil-Service Commission. The examinations for inspectors are conducted by examiners selected by the Aqueduct Commission, under rules framed by the Aqueduct Commission, which the Civil-Service Commission adopted *pro forma*. The Chief Engineer rates the papers. If Mr. Fish did not know this fact, what a man he is to be drawing $5,000 salary from the State. If he does know it, what a man he is to go on the witness stand and swear to a misrepresentation.

Mr. Fish's testimony left no doubt whatever as to who the originators were of the scheme to turn over the building of the new aqueduct to a gang of plunderers headed by Squire and Flynn. Mr. Fish swore that the Republican Speaker of the Assembly first revealed the plot to him, and said in so many words that its success was desirable in order to strengthen the Republican party in Westchester County and keep up the Republican wing of the Legislature in the fall elections. Mr. Fish went ahead with that end in view. He laughs at the idea of taking into account the interests of this city. He drew a bill reorganizing the Aqueduct Commission by adding three new members. He had a Republican Senator introduce it. He had personal interviews with John O'Brien, Chairman of the Democratic State Committee, and the principal aqueduct contractor, and with Judge Muller, the Governor's confidential friend in all the aqueduct "deal" business, and obtained from them pledges of Democratic support for the bill. As they had large Republican majorities in both branches of the Legislature, all the "Democratic support" they needed was the Governor's. Mr. Fish lobbied for the bill for several weeks, with the understanding that when it should be passed he should be one of the new Commissioners at a salary of $5,000 a year.

The bill passed the Senate as it had been drawn, adding three new Commissioners, at a salary of $5,000 a year each, but leaving in the Mayor and Comptroller as *ex-officio* members to look after the interests of New York city taxpayers. When it reached the Assembly, a Republican member moved an amendment striking the Mayor and Comptroller from the Commission. This left the city without a single official representative upon the Commission, and put Squire, the characterless Commissioner of Public Works, in control of the work of building the aqueduct by securing four of the seven members of the Commission who could be depended upon to follow his lead in all questions. The bill, thus amended, although denounced on the floor of the Assembly as an infamous piece of legislation, was passed by the unanimous Republican vote of that body. It was taken on the same day to the Senate, and although roundly denounced there by a Democratic Senator, was passed there by the unanimous vote of the Republican majority. The Gov-

ernor, in the face of all appeals and protests, appointed the men agreed upon.

We recall nothing in the curious political history of this city which is quite equal to this. We have had plenty of revelations of dishonest methods by men who, like Tweed and Sharp and our Boodle Aldermen, appeared to have no moral perceptive faculties. They made money out of politics as a trade, and they could see no reason why there should be such a fuss about their doings when they were exposed; but this is the first instance in which a gentleman, brought up under the most favorable conditions for giving him high moral and public-spirited ideas of official duty, has come before the public, and avowed, without a trace of shame, that he engaged deliberately in a plot with a lot of unscrupulous politicians of the opposite party to plunder the city of New York in the interest of "politics," and to secure for himself a salary of $5,000 a year. He refuses to say that he sees even any impropriety in entering into a "combine" with a contractor to pass a bill which that contractor favored. After this it will not do to charge that the frauds and corruption in our city politics are due to the influence of the "ignorant foreign vote." Here is a native American gentleman entering into a plot with other Americans, including a Republican Speaker of the Assembly and a Democratic Governor of the State, to cheat and rob the taxpayers of New York, and they are able to bring to the support of that plot the entire Republican majority of both branches of the Legislature and win the approval of the leading Republican organ of the city when their work was crowned with success. This whole disgraceful job was of American origin, and the men who conceived it and carried it forward to success pride themselves upon their "Americanism" as being the only genuine brand. The tremendously American *Tribune* was their sole ally and defender in the respectable press of this city, and the sole newspaper here which covered with personal abuse and vilification the gentleman who exposed the character of the head of the plunder conspiracy, and thus defeated it when its success seemed certain.

Mr. John Jarrett, whilom President of the Amalgamated Association of Iron-Workers, at present attorney for protection, gave some testimony before the Senate Committee on the relations of labor and capital, which it is worth while recalling. Said he: "The wages paid the iron and steel-workers (I refer to those who are connected with our organization) are on the whole tolerably fair. I claim that this condition is simply the result of organization among the workmen. . . . As a rule, in such mills as are not controlled by our organization, lower wages are paid. Of course, there are all sorts of arguments used by the owners of these mills. . . . They claim that the controlling influence whereby wages are governed in this country is the tariff, and they say they pay all the tariff guarantees them." He went on to say that this claim was all humbug, and that it was the Association alone that forced employers to pay good wages. At the same time he put in a valiant plea for protection, though he was considerably distressed by the close questions of Senator Call, who finally brought him up squarely as follows: "I understand you that, but for the trades-unions, the benefit of the tariff would be absorbed wholly by the manufacturers?" The President of the Amalgamated got the better of the advocate of protection in Mr. Jarrett, and he replied, "It would be largely so." We commend these statements to those iron-workers in the West who are now trying to find out what is the true market price of their labor unaffected by the tariff, and whom the manufacturers, or a few of them, are trying to fool with the old "claim" that wages must go down on account of tariff agitation.

An interesting outcome of the tariff war between Italy and France is the appeal for Governmental assistance now made by the wine-producers of southern Italy, who find themselves with over two hundred million litres of last year's wine on hand, its market having been cut off by the "war." They now contemplate the utilization of this stock by distilling it, and they petition the Government to refund excise taxes already paid on the wine, to reduce the distillation tax on their behalf to one-half its usual rate, to confer a considerable bounty on the exportation of spirits, and to give them reduced rates of transportation on the Government railways. It is not very likely that these demands will be granted, for not only would they entail a very considerable expense themselves, but the fear is entertained that the granting of them would be the signal for a flood of claims for help from other industries in distress.

The alleged Parnell letters still agitate British society and politics. The Liberals are indulging in fierce denunciation of the Attorney-General, who appeared as counsel for the *Times* in the libel suit brought by O'Donnell, for reading these letters in his opening speech, and then failing to prove their authenticity, to which he answers that the Court cut him short, and would not let him present his evidence because the plaintiff's case was so poor. Parnell, who was subpœnaed but not called, has denounced them as forgeries in his place in the House of Commons, but the *Times* says his "naked denials" do not suffice, and says this, while loudly proclaiming that under no circumstances would it tell him how the letters came into its hands, or what reason it has for believing them authentic, except that it considers Parnell capable of writing them. Michael Davitt has intervened in the discussion to make an excellent suggestion, namely, that if the Attorney-General really believes the letters to be genuine, and really believes that the letters show complicity in assassination, it is his bounden duty to prosecute Parnell criminally as an accessory before the fact. As long as this is not done, indeed, the whole affair must wear the air of campaign thunder.

As a question of social ethics the affair is an odd one to occupy a society which plumes itself so much as English society does on its nicety in matters of honor and fair play. Until now it has been held everywhere, if A produces a letter alleged to be written by B, and damaging to him, and B denies that he wrote it, A is then bound to produce his reasons for believing that B did write it, and chief among these reasons would be an account of the manner in which it came into his (A's) possession. The curious part of the Parnell case is, that A here refuses to acknowledge that B's demand imposes on him (A) any burden of further proof whatever. If the case went to trial in a court of law, the *Times* would produce the letters, and Parnell would repudiate them. The *Times* would then produce experts to testify that they were in his handwriting. He would doubtless produce just as many to testify that they were not in his handwriting. The *Times* would then be asked for corroboration in the shape of a history of the letters. This, however, it declares it will under no circumstances give. If there were no "politics" in the matter, of course such a declaration would produce general derision.

A year ago, when some allusion was made to these charges of the *Times* in the House of Commons, the Irish party challenged a full investigation at the hands of a Parliamentary committee, which they were willing to have composed exclusively of political opponents. The Ministry rejected the proposal, and the *Times* strenuously opposed it, insisting that a court of law was the only place for such a proceeding. To this the Parnellites made answer that they were not willing to go before a jury of London tradesmen animated by the usual prejudices of their class, and that they did not wish the investigation to be hampered or restricted by the rules of "legal evidence." For the passion for "legal evidence" in all investigations of a political character, where it is desirable for any reason that the field of inquiry should be narrowed, and all the probabilities on which men form their judgments in the ordinary affairs of life be shut out from view, is just as strong in England as it is here. But the effect on the public mind of the refusal of the Parliamentary inquiry was very great, and discredited the *Times* considerably, if not fatally. It is not likely that the O'Donnell trial will help it. In fact, it is hard to resist the belief that the youth who conducts that journal and his exceedingly simple-minded proprietor have been made the victims of a monstrous imposture by a knot of Irish speculators, who have sold them for a good round sum a sackful of blood-curdling but skilfully prepared documentary revelations. If the secret history of this bargain ever comes out, it will probably be as entertaining as anything in the history of credulity and deceit.

THE PROPOSED SUGAR BOUNTY.

THE debate upon Mr. Cannon's proposition to repeal the tariff on sugar and establish a system of bounties in its stead, demonstrates the incapacity of the Republican party to deal with the surplus. The controversy was practically confined to the Republicans, and the participants were almost equally and altogether irreconcilably divided. Mr. Cannon received the applause of the one faction when he declared that if he must choose between untaxed sugar and untaxed spirits, he would vote for untaxed sugar. Mr. Kelley called forth the applause of the other when he quoted the protection plank in the Chicago platform, and eulogized its demand for the repeal of the internal-revenue system, by declaring that he was ready to say, "Lord, now lettest thou thy servant depart in peace, for mine eyes have seen the glory of the Republican party." Neither faction confined itself to the advocacy of its own line of action; each condemned that proposed by the other.

Mr. Cannon and his supporters showed that while the unprotected industries of the South had been bounding forward, the production of sugar in Louisiana had fallen from 218,000 hogsheads in 1880 to 145,000 in 1886. In other words, the policy of protection had failed. Mr. Kelley and his supporters dealt blows to the bounty proposition. Mr. Kelley declared that it was contrary to all precedent and contrary to the genius of American institutions. Mr. Holmes of Iowa denounced it as bad ethics and bad financial legislation. Mr. Anderson of Kansas declared that the proposition was one to give to the Republican party the shibboleth of bounty instead of the shibboleth of protection. Never was so much economic truth heard from the lips of protectionist Congressmen. On the one side it was admitted that the protective tariff is a bounty system, and on the other a bounty system was denounced as iniquitous and contrary to the principles of democratic government.

Many good Republicans have expressed surprise that the party leaders in the national Convention did not endorse the policy represented in this debate by Mr. Cannon, instead of that represented by Mr. Kelley. To the mass of Republicans free sugar, with or without bounties, has for a long time seemed the wisest and the most acceptable method of getting rid of the surplus. Even the New York *Tribune*, in its issue of September 22, 1886, declared itself as follows:

> "*The Tribune does not believe that taxes on tobacco and liquor ought to be reduced or removed while the tax on sugar and other necessities of life is retained without change.* . . . So long as the conspiracy which seized the government of Louisiana by crime, and which defrauds a majority of the people at every election, continues to send Democratic representatives to Congress, the *Tribune* does not consider that they have any right to plead protection as a pretext for a duty which is contrary to Democratic principles, and which, from a revenue point of view, should be reduced rather than any tax on luxuries or vice."

This bloody-shirt declaration in favor of protection only to Republicans, would not, indeed, have formed a very valuable campaign document in a closely contested election. Nevertheless, the fact that no Republicans are benefited by the sugar [illegible] certainly seemed to join with everything [illegible] in pointing towards the sugar tax as the fi[rst] one to be reduced. Yet when the Chicago Convention met, free sugar was not mentioned, and free whiskey was demanded rather than reduce in any way the protective tariff which the war had established.

Such seeming perversity on the part of the Committee on Resolutions certainly calls for an explanation. It is hardly enough to say that the corporations which dictated the platform had been living in a fool's paradise, and lost all sense as to the feeling of the masses. Maj. McKinley certainly knew in some degree the sentiments of his constituents, and he would not have drafted that platform had he seen any other way in which the interests of protection might be maintained permanently. Mr. Kelley's speech on Saturday is the clearest indication yet given as to the line of argument which governed the Committee. They saw that a declaration in favor of sugar bounties would be an open confession that the protective tariff is a tax upon the consumer. They also saw that in the face of public opinion the Republican party dare not exchange the shibboleth of protection for the shibboleth of "bounty"; and, lastly and chiefly, they knew that a bounty to the sugar interest was, for good reason, contrary to all American precedent. The only bounty ever granted to any industry was that to the fisheries in the early days, and this was avowedly an administrative measure for the maintenance of a school for a volunteer navy. The giving of a bounty of $6,000,000 a year directly to a particular interest, without any warrant either in the written Constitution or in precedent, was a measure which the Committee on Resolutions at the National Republican Convention was naturally reluctant to demand.

We are not in the habit of arguing against the constitutionality of a protective tariff. The dictum of John Marshall, that where a general power is given to the national Government the means by which it shall be exercised must be left to the discretion of Congress, has always seemed to us final upon this point. Yet the disbelief in the constitutionality of such taxes is not confined to unreconstructed Democrats. Judge Cooley, in his 'Principles of Constitutional Law,' states the matter as follows:

> "Constitutionally, a tax can have no other basis than the raising of revenue for public purposes; and whatever governmental action has not this basis is tyrannical and unlawful. A tax on imports, therefore, the purpose of which is not to raise a revenue, but to discourage and indirectly prohibit some particular import for the sake of some home manufacturer, may well be questioned as being merely colorable, and therefore not warranted by constitutional principle."

If this be the constitutional status of a protective tariff which Congress imposes in carrying into effect a power certainly granted it, what possible justification is there for granting a bounty without even the pretence that it is to regulate commerce or carry out any one of the powers delegated to the national Government? The national Government, as every one knows, is one with no powers except those expressly granted it. The State [illegible]ment is one with all powers except those [illegible]xpressly prohibited. Yet in the year [illegible] State law authorizing bounties was [illegible] unconstitutional by the Supreme [illegible]he United States, only one judge [illegible] Justice Miller gave the decision [illegible] as follows (Loan Association vs. To[illegible]all., 653, 664):

> "[illegible] that a benefit results to the local [illegible]wn by establishing manufactures, [illegible]may be said of any other business wh[illegible]mploys labor and capital. The merchant, the mechanic, the innkeeper, the banker, the builder, the steamboat owner, are equally the promoters of the public good, and equally deserving the aid of the citizens by forced contributions. No line can be drawn in favor of the manufacturer which would not open the coffers of the public treasury to two-thirds of the business men of the city or town."

Even a Pennsylvania court (Sharswood, J., in 62 Pa. St., 491–495) has taken the same position:

> "To lay with one hand the power of the government on the property of the citizens, and with the other to bestow it on favored individuals to aid private enterprises and build up private fortunes, is none the less a robbery because it is done under the forms of law and taxation."

To not only exempt one industry from taxation, but to make it the recipient of taxes, is to give to it the feudal privilege of legal robbery. When, through our local governments, the favored industry subjects property-owners to contribution, the courts have uniformly denounced the crime as "robbery." If our national Government should subject the laborers of the country to contribution in order to grant a bounty to the sugar-planters of Louisiana, the same crime would be involved. The Republican party is incapable of reducing the surplus. The policy advocated by one faction violates the moral instincts of the nation; the policy advocated by the other violates the principles of its constitutional law.

CHEAP CLOTHES.

A FORTNIGHT ago we quoted the following from a speech of Gen. Harrison last March:

> "I am one of those uninstructed political economists that have an impression that some things may be too cheap, that I cannot find myself in full sympathy with this demand for cheaper coats, which seems to me necessarily to involve a cheaper man and woman under the coat. I believe it is true to-day that we have many things in this country that are too cheap, because whenever it is proved that the man or woman who produces any article cannot get a decent living out of it, then it is too cheap."

We said then that this was distinctly the talk, not of a hard man, but of a man who was literally, as he himself admitted, "uninstructed"—that is, had not reflected on his topic. When he touched on the moral aspect of cheap clothing, he was evidently much in the state of mind of Gen. Hancock when the latter took up the tariff in the campaign of 1880. He had doubtless heard that the tailors and seamstresses who make cheap clothing are often poorly paid, and he knew that if he were conscious of wearing a coat which had been made by poorly-paid labor, he, being a well-to-do man, who goes to an expensive tailor, would feel uncomfortable; so he wandered on over the subject in a hazy way until he reached the conclusion that all cheap clothing was a bad thing, and that a man or woman who wore a

cheap coat would "necessarily" become "a cheap man or woman."

Whether this doctrine will play any part in the Republican canvass, of course we cannot say. But whether it does or no, it must be distinctly borne in mind that it is a new doctrine, and that it needs much elucidation. The older view of those who trace a connection between a man's clothing and his moral condition, has always been that a man is improved and his self-respect maintained by wearing good clothes, and that what makes a man feel "cheap" is not the cheapness of his clothing, but its poor condition. All observers of human nature hitherto have testified, and all laborers among the poor have corroborated their testimony, that you cannot do much for the moral elevation of a man as long as he is not decently clad, and that the minute you give him decent clothing, his rise becomes easier, no matter what the clothes may have cost. Nothing, in fact, as all the world except Gen. Harrison knows, degrades so rapidly as ragged and filthy garments. If you want to find cheap men or women, you must look for them inside patched and threadbare coats, trousers, and gowns. The most hopeless feature in the tramp's condition is his indifference to the condition of his clothing. As soon as you get him to wear a good coat you have started him on his upward journey, and he would laugh, and all philanthropists, and moralists, and statesmen, and economists that we have ever heard of would laugh heartily with him, if at this point Gen. Harrison were to appear on the scene, and cry, "Hold on; how much has this coat cost? If it be a cheap coat, it will do the man no good. Let me see the bill, in order that I may feel sure that wearing it will really exert the improving influence on him which we all so much desire."

In truth, there is probably no sign of a people's condition on which modern economists and statesmen rely so much in forming judgments about their government and industry, as the condition of their clothing. A badly-dressed people is taken to be, by the general verdict of mankind, an ill-governed people, or a people cursed with a poor soil or a bad climate. All statesmen in modern times profess, at least, to desire to make clothing easy to get for the mass of the population, and the only way to make clothing easy to get—now that the age of plunder has passed by—is to make it cheap. We venture to assert that the records of the last thousand years may be searched in vain for the notion that it improved men and women to make their clothing more difficult to procure. It is with Gen. Harrison an absolutely original idea. It derives, indeed, a touch of humor from the fact that it is contradicted by the personal experience of nearly every man and woman in the country.

There is nobody in the United States, outside of a small circle of great railroad, oil, coal, sugar, and lumber "kings," who is indifferent to the cost of his coat. To ninety-nine out of every hundred Americans it is a matter of serious concern, especially in the case of a large family. A man wearing a dear coat—that is, a coat which he has had difficulty in paying for—always feels cheap, because the more his coat costs him the less of other necessaries or pleasures of life is he able to procure. Nothing makes a man feel cheaper than an oppressive clothes bill. It means poorer lodgings, simpler food, fewer books, less travel, less amusements of every kind. It may not strike Gen. Harrison in this way, but to the mass of mankind any other view will seem almost comical. To "the toiling millions" perhaps the greatest blessing Providence could bestow would be a climate which made clothing unnecessary except for decency, or a product of some kind which could be used as clothing without any process of manufacture, so that it would cost little or nothing.

What was probably running in the Republican candidate's mind when he made the remark we have quoted, was the sad lot of the poorly-paid tailors and seamstresses who make up the cheaper kinds of clothing. We find that these tailors and tailoresses numbered in 1880 133,756. If we concede that they now number 200,000, it must be borne in mind, even if the tariff bettered their condition, which it does not, that it would be difficult to justify deliberately increasing the necessary expenses of 60,000,000 for the sake of a class so small. As a matter of fact, however, the wages of this class do not depend on the cost of the clothing. The cheap clothiers do not pay their tailors according to the prices they get for their garments. They pay them according to the number of tailors and tailoresses competing for the work to be done. What keeps these tailors and tailoresses poor is that there are ten of them competing for every bit of work that offers. Moreover, any argument for dear clothing for their benefit leaves out of sight the fact that they too need clothing. Possibly in Indiana the clothiers let their tailors have their own clothes for nothing; but in all other parts of the world the tailor has to pay for his clothes like any other man. If he makes them himself, he has to buy cloth and spend labor on it which would otherwise bring him in money. They cost him about the market price when they are made up. A dear coat depresses and cheapens him just as it does everybody else. A ragged or threadbare coat destroys his self-respect and keeps him away from church, or the park, and from picnics and parades, just as it does everybody else. His children suffer in mind and body from being out at elbows in winter just as the children of lawyers would; and the notion that great difficulty in getting a coat would lead to his moral or spiritual elevation would amuse him in a grim, melancholy way.

FIFTY YEARS OF AMERICAN ASTRONOMY.

At Williamstown, on the evening of June 25, a select audience gathered to hear the address of Professor Truman Henry Safford, commemorative of the erection in 1838 of the first college observatory in the United States. It was fitting that Mr. David Dudley Field of New York should preside on this occasion, being himself the founder in 1869 of the Field Memorial Professorship of Astronomy, and the builder five years later of the Field Memorial Observatory of Williams College, where Professor Safford is the able director, and has made important contributions to exact astronomy. The Trustees of the College will publish entire, in permanent form, the rather difficult, not to say delicate, piece of historic research which Professor Safford has so capably concluded. Meantime, we attempt a brief abstract of it here.

Beginning with the publication of the 'Principia' about 200 years ago by Newton, who himself had a small observatory at Cambridge, but whose mighty genius was too fully occupied with great mathematical problems to permit his nightly watch of the heavens, the founding of the Greenwich Observatory first claimed attention. Navigation was then extremely dangerous; the only guides across the ocean were afforded by a knowledge of the motions of the heavenly bodies, and this could follow only the patient labors of astronomers. Charles II., with all his vices, possessed human sympathy enough to found an observatory, to preserve his sailors from shipwreck.

Flamsteed, its director, the first Astronomer Royal, was succeeded by Halley, whose famous work on the orbit of the great comet of 1682, done to test and exemplify his master Newton's theory, had a direct bearing on the founding of American observatories, for the comet's second reappearance in 1835 furnished fresh proof of the law of universal gravitation. But Bradley, the next Astronomer Royal, made the Greenwich Observatory what it now is, the most prominent one, all told, in the world. So splendid was his work that Auwers, a most eminent living German astronomer, has spent years in recalculating and republishing the results. Then came Bliss, followed again by Maskelyne—who, not recognizing the possibility of "personal equation," discharged an assistant for noting time differently from himself—whose great service was the establishment of the 'Nautical Almanac.'

America had not yet declared her scientific independence. Thus these few things were of necessity premised about English astronomy, as our own was naturally based upon it. Our methods of scientific teaching were, in fact, thoroughly colonial; English text-books were reprinted for use in some of our colleges till within the second half of the present century. Practical necessities soon, however, required the employment of astronomical observers to settle boundary disputes, a confusion of landmarks having grown out of Old World habits. For example, inspection of a map of Massachusetts shows the extremely rough subdivision into counties and townships: Clarksburg is six miles long from east to west by two in breadth; Hancock fifteen long from north to south; Cheshire has twenty-two corners. Nor are State boundaries by any means plain and simple. There were disputes everywhere between the colonies. In 1767 the proprietors of Maryland and Pennsylvania sent to England for two astronomers to determine their common parallel. In response to this call came a former assistant to Bradley, Mason by name, and Dixon with him as assistant, the first trained observers ever employed in the United States, and whose work was the first piece of accurate measurement in this country. Practical astronomy of the kind brought here by Mason and Dixon is admirable training for young observers; we have since

had much, and it has afforded inestimable benefit in our scientific development. It may be easy to deal with mathematical formulas by a warm fire in a pleasant room, or even to watch the stars from a well-appointed observatory; but it is not so simple to cut one's way through the forest, spending the nights in observation and the days in moving on through the woods, carrying on horse or mule-back the most delicate instruments, when one must watch every step of the beast to see that the chronometers get no jar, and conducting withal the most refined calculations under conditions of great difficulty.

About this time, Rittenhouse, an American astronomer of Dutch descent, was making a reputation, and had built in 1769 a little observatory at Norriton, near Philadelphia, where he observed the transit of Venus of that year. Through Rittenhouse and his help to others in their observations, this important phenomenon added much to the astronomical impulse given by the labors of Mason and Dixon.

After the Revolution, the first great astronomer of America was Nathaniel Bowditch, born of a family of shipmasters in 1773, brought up and resident in America, author of the 'Practical Navigator,' which brought him a modest fortune, and finally the translator, editor, and publisher at his own expense of Laplace's great 'Traité de Mécanique Céleste.' Bowditch, dead in 1838, had a young friend, Benjamin Peirce, of profounder ability in mathematics than himself. Robert Treat Paine, an enthusiast and careful observer, went over sea and land to watch solar eclipses, and determined many longitudes and latitudes, especially in Massachusetts, which, along with Borden's triangulation of the State, gave a measure of the earth by no means seriously inaccurate.

Meanwhile, a general survey of the coasts was beginning under Hassler, a Swiss astronomer and geodesist, who trained an able set of assistants; also, the West Point School had educated many promising pupils, Graham among others. Yale College had procured a good telescope of five inches aperture as early as 1832. The year following occurred the great November shower of meteors. This, with the telescope, the teaching power of Prof. Olmsted, and later the return of Halley's comet, stirred much astronomical enthusiasm at Yale. But the telescope was prevented from doing much that it might have done by the absence of a suitable observatory; it was set up in the covered tower of a college building, and rolled upon casters over an unsteady floor, and young Mason alone made accurate observations with it. He, with Stanley, died early, while Loomis and Lyman are now aged professors at Yale; but Chauvenet, on the whole the most eminent, on leaving the College went into the service of the United States, and later removed to St. Louis, where he became the Chancellor of the Washington University. His 'Spherical and Practical Astronomy' is probably the best book of its class extant; it is quoted abroad as well as at home, and is an inexhaustible store of the best mathematics of the subject.

Thus, a half century ago, American practical astronomy was beginning to show itself. About Boston were a few skilled amateur observers, among them William Cranch Bond, with a little private observatory in Dorchester. In the Government service were skilled observers, but there was no permanent observatory at Washington or elsewhere in the country. The sailing of the Wilkes Exploring Expedition for a voyage around the world, on which it was intended to determine the longitudes of many places by observations of the moon, created the necessity of like observations at known points on land. Gillis, a young lieutenant in the navy, was instructed to carry on such work which he did from 1838 to 1842, his instrument being set up under a temporary shed on Capitol Hill at Washington. Bond did like work at Dorchester, Mass., but these astronomical beginnings, which led later to the establishment of observatories, were themselves subsequent to the building of the Williams College Observatory by Albert Hopkins.

In 1834 Hopkins visited Europe to procure philosophical apparatus, and to learn of foreign methods of investigation and teaching. At that time the impulse to scientific study which was contemporaneous with the French Revolution, and which had continued through the Napoleonic wars, had spread over nearly all Europe; even England had almost submitted to the Continental ways of studying mathematics. In Germany and the Baltic provinces of Russia there were astronomers—Bessel, Struve, Gauss, Argelander, Encke—who taught practical astronomy as a university discipline. In England, however, and perhaps France, it was not so; at Cambridge, mathematical instruction had, little by little, taken the form of training men to pass examinations in the mathematics, and the senior wranglership was the goal of the ablest men of the University. Our American courses were in part copied from the English courses of the last century—little by little modified to meet our circumstances; but their adaptation was not perfect, partly because no definite idea was dominant. An admirable helper to his more widely known brother, Mark Hopkins, who became the President of Williams College in 1836, Albert Hopkins furnished the new impulse which soon led to the building of the observatory. This he did chiefly at his own expense, even quarrying the needed stone with his own hands. A quaint little structure, it was well planned and built, and the Hopkins Observatory is still useful for the students in a variety of ways. Chiefly built in 1837, it was formally dedicated the 12th of June, 1838.

This first establishment of a permanent observatory is a striking landmark in the history of American astronomy. Hitherto all efforts to establish one had failed: people were too materially inclined to encourage so ideal a science. Even the practical uses were sometimes overlooked. A surveyor petitioned Congress for release from the requirement to run lines due north and south: he lost too much time in watching for the polar star in foggy evenings, and thought lines run in any direction would do as well, provided they were tolerably straight. Congress had sternly set its face against the establishment of a national observatory; the Coast Survey, indeed, receiving its appropriation on the express condition that no expenditure should be made for any such purpose. But Gilliss proved an effective astronomical missionary upon Capitol Hill, and at the conclusion of his observations there, Congress authorized the building of a "depot of charts and instruments"—the present Naval Observatory at Washington under a disguised name.

The next large observatory was founded at Cambridge, Mass. Peirce was greatly interested in the magnificent comet of 1843, and through his exertions, and those of the younger Bowditch, money was raised for a large telescope. This was completed in 1847, while the observatory itself was built the year before. Peirce soon after laid the scientific foundations of the 'American Ephemeris and Nautical Almanac,' while Davis secured its practical realization, and the first volume was issued for the year 1855. Meanwhile, the Coast Survey had steadily on, after Hassler's death, under [illegible], a grandson of Franklin, from whom he [illegible]ed both scientific ability and executive [illegible]lomatic capacity to a high degree.

[illegible]e completion of the quarter century [illegible]ng with the outbreak of the civil [illegible]rican practical astronomy had made [illegible]ress. There was what might be [illegible]ool of astronomers, and numerous [illegible], both public and private, though [illegible]r too little money for their maintenance in regular activity. There was also an astronomical journal of much merit, published by the zeal and munificence of its editor, Dr. Gould. Some of the early achievements of our astronomers have been of permanent use to the science, among them the chronograph, and the telegraphic method of determining longitudes. But while progress was most marked in branches of practical import, those who gladly took hold of more speculative problems were not lacking.

Professor Safford next dwelt at some length upon the life and work of the great optician, Alvan Clark, recounted in our columns on his death, about a twelvemonth since.

The last twenty-five years have brought much material advancement to American astronomy. It is hardly possible to go deeply into it; in many respects it repeats the earlier history. Observatories have been founded in new places, sometimes with the means for their maintenance, sometimes without. A few of the older ones have received large accessions of invested funds, notably the Harvard College Observatory, with an endowment exceeding half a million dollars. The ability and success of our younger astronomers in handling deep and difficult problems has been proved entirely adequate; the men have rarely been lacking, but only lately have they found education and encouragement. The public mind has changed its attitude towards astronomy: there is much pride in the achievements of astronomers. European scientists now come occasionally to see what is doing here, and the profession of an astronomer is a recognized career.

In estimating the relation of astronomy in the work of the college of the future, Professor Safford's paper was full of important suggestion. He with other eminent teachers believes in the disciplinary value of astronomy as an independent study. The best mathematical training deals with tangible objects—the abstraction should have a sensible basis. He would have the observation of the common phenomena of nature accompany the study of arithmetic and geometry in the common schools. The pupils should learn to watch the barometer and thermometer, sunset and sunrise, the phases of the moon, the motions of the clouds; should know the Pole star, Ursa Major, Orion, the Pleiades, Leo, the Scorpion; should learn to distinguish between the stars and the planets, to watch for the aurora borealis, to note the colors of the rainbow. The high school, or college preparatory school, should always have its telescope, and some simple means of accurately keeping time; a few notions of scientific astronomy should not fail to be inculcated. The college professor should have a variety of instruments, so that students may watch the heavens for themselves. To introduce this work may take a generation; but the colleges have begun to do their part in teaching the teachers, and courses in practical astronomy are now given in various institutions.

In a strong college, independent work to advance the science should be going on. Great telescopes are not a necessity; they often render the astronomer helpless. To provide for

the prosecution of original research, the instructor must have a certain amount of time free from other occupation, and such instruments supplied as will be most serviceable in the specific lines of investigation attempted.

Prof. Safford himself affords no mean instance of the way in which such work should be carried on; and a score of our colleges would be highly benefited had they alumni to follow the generous example of Mr. D. D. Field at Williams, and provide instrumental equipment where there is fair indication that it will not lie idle.

THE GETTYSBURG CELEBRATION.

GETTYSBURG, July 4.

THE reunion of veterans at Gettysburg in the interest of peace and reconciliation between the blues and grays has not been the success in point of numbers which it was expected to be. The promoters appear to have relied all along on an appropriation of $25,000, or thereabouts, from Congress, to provide subsistence and lodging for those who came on. This expectation was disappointed, and only a very small sum was voted at the last moment, which was expended in tents. The consequence of this was that the work of preparation was postponed from day to day until it was too late to give the necessary notice to men scattered so widely over the continent as the veterans of the two armies are, or to make any suitable arrangements for their reception. Of course there are not many veterans so situated with regard to this world's goods as to make it easy for them to take a long journey at this season, and live even for three days at the costly abodes into which the Gettysburg hotels managed to turn themselves for three days. If even one-half the number which was looked for had actually come, they would have had to live out in the fields and beg their bread in the streets. As a matter of fact, I think 2,000 or 3,000 Union veterans, and 200 or 300 Confederates made their appearance. Many more of the latter would undoubtedly have come if they had had notice or any reasonable expectation of finding board and lodging during their stay.

Moreover, there is no indiscretion in saying that a good many Northern officers were kept away by the belief that the celebration this year was an unnecessary duplication of the reunion of last summer, at which the blues of the Army of the Potomac did all that need be done, or can be done, to assure the grays of cordial appreciation and good will; and that it was got up largely to support Gen. Sickles in his controversy with the friends of Gen. Meade, touching his (Sickles's) conduct on the left wing, on the second day of the battle. As a matter of fact, Gen. Sickles was the most prominent figure on the Union side in the proceedings on last Sunday and Monday, and after him came Gen. Butterfield, who was Meade's chief of staff, and contends that he gave Meade advice on the third day, which he did not take, but which, had he taken it, would have ended the war. Of course, if Meade made a huge mistake in not listening to Butterfield, it strengthens the theory that Sickles was right in disregarding Meade's orders in the selection of his second position in the battle.

Anyhow, the proceedings this week centred in these two gentlemen, but only brought very few other distinguished Unionist officers on the ground. Governor Beaver of Pennsylvania was there, so was Gen. Barlow, and Gens. Hunt and Robinson, and Slocum and Doubleday and Crawford; but if there were any others known to fame, they escaped my observation. On the Confederate side the only two men of mark present were Longstreet and Gordon, but they were probably the two of all the Southern survivors of the great contest whom Northerners are most eager to see. On Longstreet years are beginning to tell; his hair and beard are almost white, but the lines of vigor in his face are still nearly as visible as they can ever have been, in spite of the air of great serenity which has settled in his eyes, and the stiffness which has begun to mark his gait. Gordon, on the other hand, who, with his lithe figure and alert movements, his eagle face, and flashing eye, does not look over fifty, is still, as he has always been in both appearance and manner, the type of the dashing Southern soldier. His speech was both eloquent and earnest and gracefully delivered, and was listened to with visible pride and pleasure by his wife, whose expression of mingled gentleness and dignity was just what the occasion called for in any one who represented Southern women to an audience assembled to hear of peace and reconciliation.

Mr. George William Curtis's address, it must be said, was worthy of what the celebration was originally intended to be—that is, a larger and more representative assemblage than that which listened to him. His tribute to Confederate valor and the purity of Confederate motives, delivered with great vehemence, was all that any Southerner could have desired, and brought a genuine glow of pleasure over Longstreet's tranquil face, and won vigorous applause from his sinewy hands, and it prepared the way well for the subsequent plea for the establishment of the suffrage at the South on a better and more republican basis. The whole speech, in fact, is, I think, pretty sure to circulate widely at the South and be pondered fruitfully. None of its own orators has paid a more splendid tribute to Pickett and his column who delivered the final charge on the last day of the fight, or has done greater justice to the efforts the South is making to recover from all her misfortunes and mistakes.

To those who find their historic sense gratified or stimulated by the sight of fields on which great human controversies have been settled by the sword, the field of Gettysburg must for ever remain one of the most interesting spots in the world. What it needs now of all things is a respectable guide-book. The Century Co. has issued one by Gen. Doubleday—good as far it goes—but it is a mere military summary of the events of the three days. The others, which attempt to give detailed narratives, are beneath contempt. What with balderdash, cheap sentiment, and attempts at lurid description, they may fairly be called a discredit to the country. One of them seriously maintains that God Almighty created Little Round Top expressly to furnish a position in which Meade's army might save the Union. No stranger who took up this rubbish would suppose that the army which won the battle had stood higher in point of intelligence than any the world has seen except the German. Of the kind of material which was to be found in the ranks, I met with a striking illustration in walking with Gen. Barlow over the ground on which he received his wound on the first day of the fight. We found a gentleman there examining the spot, who told us he was a private in a Connecticut regiment on that unlucky day, and had been wounded and carried to a house hard by. He is now a professor in a prominent college. The whole field of the operations in the three days is being covered with monuments indicating the various positions held by the different regiments and batteries on different days, the losses they sustained, the spots in which distinguished officers were killed and wounded, and so forth. They are, of course, of varying degrees of taste, and I heard of some which were assailed for inaccuracy or pretence; but, on the whole, they express a happy thought, and future generations will be grateful for them. I think they are the first attempt in the history of war to preserve the memory of the rank and file on the very spot which their valor and endurance has made famous. When all that are proposed have been erected, there will be about 600 of them, but we trust they will not justify the cant phrase by making Gettysburg a "Mecca." The guide-books and more talkative veterans have got hold of this "Mecca" idea now, and one hears it at every turn; and to any one who has seen the squalid crowd who go to the original "Mecca," and thinks what that "Mecca" is, it suggests sad poverty in terms of reverence.

The field will, however, never be illustrated and marked as it ought to be until the heroic deeds of the Confederates are also commemorated in stone or brass, like those of their Northern foemen. Without this even the Northern record will not be complete, for the full measure of Northern pluck and bottom cannot be presented without some account of the force by which the Northern positions were assailed in the last two days of the battle. It is to be hoped this defect will be supplied by the South before long, both as a tribute to its gallant dead, and as a final acknowledgment that all bitterness has passed away from the memory of the struggle. Something towards this end was done at the blue meeting last year, when it was voted to erect a monument to "American Valor" on the spot where Armistead fell, within the Union lines, at the head of Pickett's charge. I doubt much whether any Northern man or woman now visits and studies the field without wishing to share in the glory of that splendid feat of arms — that is, to claim as countrymen the soldiers who made up Pickett's column. One easily sees that it is this which takes most hold of every visitor's imagination after he has become familiarized with all the varying features of the fight. I do not recall anything in military history which can quite match it, among even such exploits as the march of the English column at Fontenoy, the rush of Macdonald's column across the plain at Wagram, the crowning of the heights of Albuera by the British in Spain, or the attack on St.-Privat by the Prussian Guards in 1870. No cavalry exploit can be compared to it—neither the charge of the Light Brigade nor that of the French Cuirassiers at Reichshofen. In a cavalry charge there is exhilaration in the swift motion through the air, and no strain of exertion on heart or lungs, and the excitement or agony of expectation is sure to be brief. But Pickett's men, laden with arms and ammunition, had to make their way under a burning July sun, across fields heavy with grass or grain, over 1,200 yards—fully equal to a mile on the high road—under the shells and grape shot of 120 guns, and towards the end the pitiless pelting of 20,000 rifles, leaving heaps of dead at every step, without shrinking, and they carried their flag into the enemy's lines. No American who admires human courage and endurance can walk over the ground they covered with their dead without feeling proud that this continent has produced such men.

E. L. G.

MINISTERS AND SOVEREIGN IN GERMANY.

BERLIN, June 20, 1888.

GERMANY has been passing through a political crisis which will, directly or indirectly, affect the interpretation of the sovereign's position towards the Ministry, and the responsibility of the Ministers to the Crown. In periods of intense political feeling there is a rapid development, if not of institutions, at least of the interpretation of relations already existing.

The two factors which brought about the present political issues were the death of the Emperor William, and the accession of the liberal-minded and progressive Frederick III. to the throne. Since the dissolution of the Parliament of 1878, a conservative reaction has set in, having its source in the overmastering will and absolute authority of the Imperial Chancellor. His ascendancy over the mind of the Emperor William in all political questions, whether of external or internal policy, cannot be questioned. There has been the gradual growth of ministerial independence, but subordinate to the controlling mind of the Minister President. Twenty-four colleagues in office have risen to power and fallen during his sway, and it is not strange that any interference with a rule exercised so long should be resisted as a violation of his prerogatives. Frederick the Third's accession to the throne was marked by the issue of two significant documents—his imperial rescript to the people and his letter to Prince Bismarck, in which he announced the principles that would characterize his reign. They indicated the possession of distinct views and a royal will to rule. The publication of the latter document inspired hope in the minds of all who desired to see Germany a constitutional State in which the rights of the people and the prerogatives of the Crown should be found consistent. The letter to Prince Bismarck seemed to indicate a new era. The past was not criticised, but the reform and simplification of the administrative system were stated to be necessary.

It cannot be supposed that Prince Bismarck, proud of the absolute system that had grown up under his rule, looked with pleasure upon the introduction of new forces which should disturb the old. English parliamentary government and ministerial responsibility are alike odious in conservative circles in Germany. It is necessary to take these views into consideration in order to understand the successive outbursts of feeling which swept over Germany during the reign of Frederick III. To this must be added the chauvinism, which is in part the product of German victories in the last war, which in popular belief causes German greatness to tower above that of all other lands. Hence foreign influence is regarded with aversion. This will explain the national indignation which flamed out fiercely at the proposed marriage of the Princess Victoria and Prince Alexander of Battenberg. One not familiar with the tone of the German press at that time can form no conception of the national self-consciousness and childish folly to which expression was given. The Empress Victoria was the object against which shafts dimly disguised were directed. The Cologne *Gazette*, the ablest and usually one of the most judicious of the press, spoke of the influence in politics of certain ladies of high rank; the "English influence" at court was bitterly attacked, and the visit of the Queen of England was deprecated as adding her royal influence in favor of an unpopular marriage. The marriage was characterized as a marriage of interest on the part of Prince Alexander to which he was otherwise indifferent. [illegible] spect for the Emperor was impaired b[illegible] senting him as having so weak a will [illegible] ruled by the Empress. "The German [illegible] desires to be ruled by kings, not women. [illegible] marriage would result in a double wa[illegible] France and Russia. On this feverish st[illegible] the public mind the resignation of the Ch[illegible] lor, the creator of German unity, whose [illegible] for his fatherland would not permit him t[illegible] responsible for the unpatriotic course w[illegible] was determined on at court, was reported. [illegible] alone loved his country better than all e[illegible] Why should a maiden's heart stand in the way of the national good? Public meetings were called and addresses prepared to avert the threatened resignation of Prince Bismarck.

It can now hardly be believed that the issue raised at the time of the Battenberg affair was never a real one, but was used by the Chancellor for political effect, with the design of making his position impregnable and his authority dominant in the national mind, in order to discredit in advance the liberal programme of the Emperor, and any court influence which he might not be able to combat directly. It is the misfortune of Germany at the present time that opposition to any measure of the Government is regarded as unpatriotic and subversive of the peace of the State. Upon authority which I cannot doubt, I believe that at the first discussion of the proposed marriage between the Emperor and Prince Bismarck, the matter as a political question was settled, and that the Emperor accepted the views of the Chancellor, and the question ceased to be one of Government concern. There is reason to believe that the Emperor proposed at first to raise Prince Alexander of Battenberg to the rank of prince in Prussia, and assign him to a high military command—an action which, in connection with his union with the Princess Victoria, would have made his subsequent acceptance of the throne of Bulgaria impossible. The whole machinery of the Government press was set in motion to discredit the marriage. The ruthless criticism of the imperial family was a severe blow at the dignity of the Crown. Perhaps never before in Prussian history have the views of a sovereign been depicted in so unfavorable a light, with so little cause. Prince Bismarck, in maintaining his own position, was ready to sacrifice the dignity of his imperial master and his family. Such an offence cannot be easily atoned for. The anti-English sentiments of the Crown Prince—the present Emperor—were thrown into the scale to contrast with the supposed liberal sentiments of his father. The result of this first crisis was to establish Prince Bismarck more firmly than ever as the support and "standard bearer" of German nationality, as he was called by the Crown Prince Wilhelm in his unlucky after-dinner speech.

A second crisis, less intense than the first, arose in connection with the bestowal of certain decorations. The first order conferred by the Emperor Frederick, the highest order of the Prussian Crown, that of the Black Eagle, was bestowed upon the Empress and upon Dr. Friedberg, Minister of Justice, his former teacher and an eminent jurist, a man of Jewish descent. This was followed by the bestowal of numerous decorations upon high officials, elevations to the nobility, and by the pardon of numerous political and military offenders which usually accompanies the opening of a new reign. The purpose in the gift of these orders, to recognize eminent men of all shades of political opinion, soon encountered the opposition of the Cabinet. The exercise of personal prerogatives of the Crown which had never been questioned, was suddenly met by the threatened resignation of the Ministry in case certain orders were conferred. Von Forckenbeck, the chief Bürgermeister of Berlin, a member of the Fortschrittspartei, received a decoration, but accompanied by the statement that it was for services in behalf of the sufferers from the floods, in order to rob it of all political significance, and to show that opponents of the Government, however prominent, must have other claims for recognition. Professor Virchow received the Order of the Red Eagle of the second class, but the bestowal of certain other orders encountered the opposition of the Cabinet. It was proposed to confer a decoration upon a former member of the Reichstag whose sympathies were strongly liberal, although he was not a member of the Extreme Left. He had been once tried for libel against Prince Bismarck and acquitted. On the principle that you never forgive the man you have injured, a crisis arose in which the resignation of the entire Ministry was threatened, and the proposed honor was abandoned.

These ghosts of discord were no sooner laid than a question of less general interest brought about the Cabinet crisis which resulted in the retirement of Herr von Puttkamer, the Minister of the Interior and Vice-President of the Ministry of State. No Minister of the entire Cabinet was personally so obnoxious, but he had held office for nine years, and was apparently superior to every attack. He was also connected by family ties with Prince Bismarck. He had signalized himself when a young man as Landrath, by ordering all office-holders to support actively the Government candidates, and by summoning to trial all whose self-respect did not permit them to obey his unauthorized demands. The effort to reform German spelling which was associated with his name was successful in the schools, but encountered the opposition of the Government, which forbade its use in official documents. Nothing could exceed the superciliousness of the Minister's bearing towards representatives of the people who ventured to criticise his measures in the German Diet or in the Prussian Parliament. The only defeat which the Government suffered during the winter was over Puttkamer's bill accentuating the provisions of the law against the Socialists, adding expatriation to the penalties which the Government could inflict. As this law is administered now, residence in any German State of a suspected person becomes practically impossible. The Socialists were able to show that Puttkamer's secret paid agents in Switzerland were criminal characters, perpetuating their term of office by information secured at Socialist meetings over which they presided, and of which they were the moving spirits, and in one case supporting entirely a Socialistic newspaper for circulation in Germany—in short, they were *agents provocateurs* of the very movement which they had been sent to aid in suppressing. The sworn evidence of the Zürich official which confirmed these charges produced such a sensation that the National-Liberals and Catholics united to oppose the expatriation clause of the Government bill, for which a simple act continuing the present law for two years was passed. The Minister's position, however, was shaken by a parliamentary investigation of several elections, in one of which his own brother was a candidate, in which he had thrown the Government influence in his brother's favor.

The bill for prolonging the legislative period in Prussia to five years had already passed, and had been for several weeks before the Emperor for his signature. He had signed a similar law which had been passed by the cartel-parties in

the Reichstag, but saw grave reasons against extending the law to Prussia, owing to the difference in the system of election. At this time, on the last day of the session, a powerful party attack was made by the Freisinnig Deputy Richter upon the whole ministerial policy. His speech was not confined to the question of freedom of elections, but he characterized the attitude of the Cabinet towards the Emperor in all questions that had arisen since the beginning of his reign; it had attempted to coerce the will of the sovereign by the threat to resign; it had substituted ministerial rule for royal rule; it had lashed popular sentiment to fury against the royal family in the proposed marriage of the Princess Victoria after the question had been settled. In place of sham constitutionalism with a ministerial dictatorship, he would prefer to return to absolutism. Never before had the power of the Ministers exceeded that of the Crown and of the representative of the people. The purpose of the Crown to rule in consonance with the will of the people is impossible with ministerial absolutism. No words or epithets were spared which could irritate the Government. The speech was abusive, and transgressed what we should consider all parliamentary bounds, but in substance was irrefutably true. The Emperor addressed a letter to Minister von Puttkamer, in which he announced his purpose, in connection with the publication of the law extending the legislative period, to issue a royal rescript forbidding all interference by Government officials with the freedom of elections, and emphasizing respect for the popular will. In this emergency the Minister invoked the aid of Prince Bismarck, who returned from Varzin to urge the Emperor to postpone the publication of the law in order to enable Von Puttkamer to vindicate his conduct in reference to elections. The Emperor found the defence unsatisfactory, and informed him that his interpretation of his duties did not consist with the Emperor's views of his duties as a Minister of the Crown. Hereupon the Minister tendered his resignation, which was immediately accepted. The energetic action of the Emperor was apparently a surprise to Prince Bismarck, who did not anticipate his colleague's retirement.

But a contest, however noble, waged by a dying Emperor, must cease with his life. The impending death of the Emperor caused men to shape their course according to views which would soon be controlling. The opinions of the Crown Prince were pronounced, and no one could doubt what policy would prevail upon his accession. No party ventured to form itself against the mighty influence of the Chancellor and the prospective ascendancy of conservative views in the person of William II. The new Emperor has issued his proclamation, first to the army, and secondly to his people. To the army he said: "We belong to one another, I and the army; we were born for one another, and we shall remain united by an indissoluble bond, whether by the will of God we have before us peace or tempest." The address to the people is modest and devout. The re-establishment of Prince Bismarck as the supreme director of affairs is the first result of the death of the Emperor Frederick. The possession of a positive will and positive views by William II. will in time find expression, possibly independent of his chief Minister. Private and public utterances concerning the national loss are very different. Patriotism induces the Government press to speak warmly of the noble, knightly character of the late Emperor, but I have not noticed an expression of public misfortune that he did not live to carry out his views. The Conservatives and those who, with William II., "conceive of the German people as an army marching to the assault," believe that the peaceful spirit of the late Emperor was not suited to the present emergency, that an alert, assertive military spirit is demanded to defend the frontiers and maintain German supremacy. The Emperor Frederick would never have adopted an aggressive policy, but his spirit was essentially that of a soldier, and no one can doubt that the military glory of Germany would have been safe in his hands. Others saw in the ascendancy of liberal and humane views a severe shock to the political system which, under Bismarck, is fast becoming among the people a tradition. The advent of new ideas would introduce weakness into the fabric of the State, and the solid social order would be destroyed, and in its place views of individual liberty and private rights would supplant the conception of the splendid structure of a consolidated monarchy. Socialism, not French republican ideas, was to be feared. Against the latter, national patriotism was a sufficient defence.

The Catholic press has steadily supported the prerogatives of the Emperor against the tyranny of ministerial rule. The Catholics, Jews, Poles, and South Germans all lament the loss of a humane and tolerant ruler, and, somewhat strangely, the Freisinnig press has been strongest in its support of the rights of the Crown against those of the Ministers. During the past winter, in the Reichstag and in the Prussian Parliament, both Ministers von Puttkamer and Von Goslar, the Cultus-Minister, have said defiantly: "We are the servants of the Crown; we are responsible to the sovereign alone, and not to Parliament." The Conservative press has represented ministerial responsibility, as it exists in England, as the greatest foe to a stable government and a commanding foreign policy: England's constant change of Ministers has destroyed her influence in European politics. In Germany, we have had during the reign of the Emperor Frederick the spectacle of Ministers asserting their responsibility to the Crown, and their independent responsibility over against the Crown. The supremacy of the Chancellor, by absorbing an authority over all his colleagues, extending through every bureau of administration, bears certainly a relation like that of the masters of the palace of the Merovingian kings. Criticism of his measures by the interpretation of the courts becomes easily libel, so that the acts of the great Minister in his height of power are almost as inviolable as the person of the King.

The reign of the Emperor Frederick lasted ninety-nine days. It will always be associated with the lofty purpose which marked its beginning and the heroism and pathos which attended its close. It is interesting, in this review of his short reign, to recall the principles with which he ascended the throne, which were stated in his famous letter to Prince Bismarck. It was written in San Remo, and communicated before publication to the Prince when the Ministry met the new Emperor in Leipzig. The letter shows that the years of waiting had been years of preparation for his duties as ruler; it exhibits a remarkable grasp of the province of government, and a statesmanlike view of political questions upon whose successful solution the future of Germany will depend. The constitution and rights of all the allied States of the Empire, as well as those of the Reichstag, are to be conscientiously regarded, but a like respect for the prerogatives of the Crown is demanded. At the same time, it must be considered that the province of these mutual rights is to promote the public welfare, which remains the supreme law of the land. Newly arising and undoubted national needs must always be fully satisfied.

"It is my will that the principle of religious toleration, which has been sacredly guarded for centuries by my family, shall extend to the protection of all my subjects, to whatever religious community or confession they may belong. Every one of them stands equally near to my heart, and all have alike in days of danger proved their full devotion." "I shall warmly support so far as lies in my power all efforts adapted to elevate the prosperity of the various classes of society, to reconcile conflicting interests, and to moderate unavoidable misunderstandings, without arousing the expectation that it is possible by the intervention of the State to put an end to all social evils." "I regard the fostering care which should be devoted to the education of the growing youth as intimately associated with social questions. A higher education must constantly be made accessible to wider circles, yet on the other hand grave dangers are created by half culture, by which claims in life are awakened which the resources of the nation cannot satisfy; similarly, a one-sided effort for increased knowledge must not disregard the proper task of education."

Local self-government, economy of administration, the reduction of taxation so far as it was practicable, and the simplification of the bureaus of administration were recommended. The letter closes with the significant words: "Unmindful of the splendor of illustrious deeds, I shall be content if in the future it can be said of my reign, it was a benefit to my people, useful to my country, and a blessing to the realm." It is impossible not to admire a spirit which conceived of its work in so brave and hopeful a way amid so many opposing forces. I cannot believe it would have suffered final defeat.

W. T. Hewett.

TWO SKELETON CITIES.

Granada, June 16.

Spain has been hitherto outside of the regular current of tourist travel in Europe, but every year adds to the number of sight-seers, and an unmistakable sign of its growing popularity with the travelling public may be found in the fact that the publishers of the famous Baedeker guides have sent out an agent to prepare a volume on Spain—partly also, no doubt, for the convenience of the German commercial travellers, who are invading Spain at present by the hundred, and are to be seen at all the hotels. Apart from the interesting sights which it contains, Spain offers unusual facilities for a "round trip," for, with few exceptions, the most attractive points are grouped in a circle along the principal lines of railway and steamboat travel. Starting at Burgos, the tourist whose time is limited to six or eight weeks proceeds to Valladolid and Madrid, thence to Toledo, Cordova, Seville, and Cadiz, thence by steamer to Tangier, Gibraltar, and Malaga, thence to Granada, Valencia, and Barcelona, and finally, to complete the circle, back to France via Saragossa. Village life may be easily studied by stopping over at some of the smaller stations, and even this is hardly necessary, so far as the populace is concerned, for on the religious holidays, which are as numerous as Sundays, all the villagers and peasants visit the cities in their best clothes, ready to be inspected and to inspect you in turn.

The three cities at which a stop of at least a week each should be made are Madrid, Seville, and Granada; and if the tour is made in spring, Seville should be visited before Granada, because it is a much warmer place, many Sevillans, in fact, going to Granada in summer for fresh air. I am not of the opinion of those who advise tourists to waste as little time as possible in Madrid. The capital has fewer

architectural and antiquarian attractions than such places as Toledo and Cordova, but it has the finest picture gallery—one of the best in Europe, full of gems—the streets are more animated, both day and night, than elsewhere, the promenades more frequented, and the women *not* inferior in beauty to those in Andalusia. For Americans, Madrid has an additional attraction in the hospitality of the present Minister and his wife, at whose Monday receptions and afternoon teas one has an opportunity to meet the best society in Madrid and observe its ways. The presence of the Minister's niece, a Virginian, prevents the Spaniards from being too conceited regarding the beauty of their women. In much frequented cities the number of Americans may make them a burden to the diplomatic representatives of the country, but in Madrid they are comparatively rare, and therefore always welcome at the Minister's house. As Mr. Curry had planned a visit to Toledo with his family, I prolonged my stay in the capital a day in order to have the pleasure and advantage of their company and that of the Secretary of the Legation, Mr. Strobel, who lately distinguished himself by amicably arranging the Morocco difficulty, and who knows Toledo as well as a native.

As Toledo, though visited by all foreigners, has not a single tolerable hotel, tourists are in the habit of going there in the morning from Madrid, and returning in the evening, which leaves them only about four hours to see the place and its wonders. It is much better to take the evening train to Toledo, and spend the night at a *casa de huespedes*, or boarding-house, kept by two ancient dames, where one can find a tolerable amount of comfort and fair meals. We chose this plan, and did not regret it, although the noise in the narrow streets, where a whisper sounds like a shout and a footstep like a horse's gallop, precluded the idea of sleep, while the beds seemed to have become the last refuge of bloodthirsty inquisitors transformed by metempsychosis into their entomological equivalents. The only serious disadvantage of arriving at Toledo in the evening is that one misses the general sight of the hill-town on approaching it; but this can be easily compensated for by ascending the hill across the river on the following day, and thence enjoying the bird's-eye view of this fortress-city, which was strong enough at one time to withstand a four years' siege, as one can readily believe on noting its commanding, inaccessible site on a hill, surrounded by high walls and by the river Tagus, which sweeps around it in a semicircular curve.

The omnibus from the station, after crossing the old bridge and passing through the Puerta del Sol, once the only entrance to the city, plunges recklessly into a maze of streets so narrow that there is hardly room for the few people in them to pass by without being ground to powder, and one begins to speculate what would happen if it should meet another wagon. But this fear is idle, for the railway omnibus is the only vehicle in this town of 20,000 inhabitants, traffic being carried on chiefly with donkeys and mules, as elsewhere in Spain, and as it doubtless was at the time when Toledo was the capital of the country and had ten times as many inhabitants as at present. The houses remain, but in a more or less dilapidated state, and what one sees is merely "the skeleton of the ancient city, the necropolis of three empires." The flesh and blood, the people, are gone, never to return, and I actually believe there are to-day more dogs than human beings in Toledo. One need only walk for ten minutes along these narrow, tortuous streets to realize the absurdity of the sentimental complaints that the capital should have been transferred from Toledo to Madrid. Such streets, doubtless, are of great advantage in so far as they keep out the scorching rays of the sun, but they would be wofully inadequate to sustain the traffic of a modern capital, all the more as most of them run up and down hill. As, moreover, the scenery from Toledo is by no means equal to that at Madrid, while the climate is quite as trying—as scorching in summer and as cold in winter—and the streets more dusty, owing to the scarcity of water, it seems time to protest against the habitual scolding of tourists for devoting a whole week to Madrid and only a day to Toledo. All that the ordinary tourist cares for in Toledo—the cathedral, the Alcazar, the gates and churches, the remains of the Roman circus—can be seen in a day, and some little time will even perhaps remain for visiting the place where the famous "Toledo blades" are manufactured for the army, at the rate of about 3,000 a year; they are, however, made of imported metal, and said to be inferior to the ancient original article.

As I am not writing a guide-book, I shall not attempt to describe the famous Toledo Cathedral, all the more as I find in my own experience that the most vivid descriptions of architectural monuments make but a confused impression on the mind until one has seen them with his own eyes. How much there is to be seen in this cathedral may be inferred from the fact that Señor Parro, author of a work of 1,550 pages on Toledo, devotes as many as 745 to the cathedral! Special admirers of ecclesiastic sculpture and architectural details have here a week's study and enjoyment laid out for them; but the relish for much of it must be an "acquired taste," and I fancy that much of the pleasure given to Christians by mediæval cathedrals might be traced by a psychologist to various religious associations rather than to purely æsthetic sources. The priests thoroughly understood the art of blending artistic with religious emotions, and thereby increasing their power over the populace—very much as Wagner intensifies the interest in his music by means of his poetry and scenic accessories. But times have changed, and the power of the priests is gone—in Spain at any rate. The churches are attended by mere handfuls of people, mostly women, or a few men of the lower classes; the monasteries have been suppressed; and no outward respect is shown to the priests—no one bows or runs to kiss their hand as formerly; while there is much scoffing and "irreverence" among all classes. Indeed, competent observers agree that the pendulum has swung from the extreme of bigotry and fanaticism to the opposite extreme of scepticism and indifference. Toledo, which was once the chief seat of the Inquisition, is still the great stronghold of the priesthood. Here lives the primate, second in dignity to the King alone; but he no longer has the power to impose a fine of 2,000 maravedis on kings for not attending service. Could he at present impose proportional fines on all Spanish "Catholics" who neglect to attend service, he would be the richest man in the world.

Toledo is such a labyrinthine, dreary, desolate place, its deserted streets so suggestive of Pompeii, that, notwithstanding its numerous art treasures, I fancy that few tourists are sorry to leave it after seeing the principal attractions. It is customary to return to Madrid and take the train the following day for Cordova, but it is possible to save a day by going from Toledo to Castillejos, and waiting there about five hours for the night train to Cordova. I chose this plan, and thus had an opportunity to see what sort of a life people lead at a small station consisting of two or three houses. A very quiet life it is, the only "events" being the arrival of the trains, which are rather frequent. One freight train contained several carloads of soldiers, while on several other cars were a dozen peculiarly shaped high wooden boxes, through the chinks in which small boys peeped with an expression of awe. I thought that possibly a band of robbers had been caught and boxed, and that the soldiers were their escort, but on following the example of the boys I found that the boxes contained Andalusian bulls for the ring in Madrid. Small a station as Castillejos is, it has its two well-armed and well-dressed civil guards, and its beggar. The beggar accosted me only once, and when I paid no attention to him he stalked away proudly, lit a cigarette, and paid no further attention to me. Afterwards I saw him at the buffet buying his supper. I followed his example, and succeeded in securing three hard-boiled eggs, bread, and a bottle of wine.

At eleven o'clock the train arrived, and when I awoke in the morning, I was in Andalusia, the "garden of Spain," famed for its fragrant orange groves, its wine, women, and song, its dances, its gayety, its festivals, its Moorish architecture, its "Murillos," living and painted, and its perennial blue sky. After fasting so long among the arid, treeless hills of northern Spain, it was a perfect picnic for the eyes to feast once more on green meadows, groups of trees, and a tropical luxuriance of vegetation. When the train entered the station, we found it crowded with an eagerly expectant crowd, and a brass band struck up a lively tune. Who had told them I was coming? But no; nobody paid me the slightest attention except a porter who wanted to carry my valise. The crowd and the music were intended for greater men—for a group of bull-fighters, who soon emerged from a first-class car and were at once greeted by the authorities and surrounded by admirers. Subsequently I repeatedly found a group of people waiting in front of their hotel to catch a glimpse of them. These bull-butchers, although the most vulgar-looking and brutal persons to be seen in Spain, and although despised by refined people, are worshipped by the masses with an ardor hardly credible unless one has witnessed its manifestations with his own eyes. If you ask a boy what he intends to be when he grows up, he will instantly reply, "Un torero." Biographies of these butchers are sold in front of the bull-rings, and there is hardly a window in the town where their photographs are not exposed for sale, together with pictures of the fights in every stage—pictures which also "adorn" fans and handkerchiefs.

At first sight Cordova does not belie its Andalusian title, by right of which it ought to be animated and gayly decked out with trees and flowers. The hotel omnibus passes a fine public garden and a number of new houses in the outskirts. But as soon as the city proper is entered, the tourist becomes aware that Cordova is still what Gautier called it half a century ago—a city of whose body "il n'en reste plus maintenant que le squelette blanchi et calciné." We have entered another skeleton city—a term the more applicable from the prevalent habit of whitewashing all the walls and all the houses. The same narrow, dark, tortuous streets as in Toledo, and equally deserted. Mr. Augustus Hare says of these streets that "they have a more thoroughly African appearance than those of any other town in Spain. One threads one's way between interminable whitewashed walls, their scanty windows guarded by heavy iron bars, over a pebbly pavement so rough that it is like the

bed of a torrent littered with straw from the burdens of innumerable donkeys." This is quite graphic; but what shall we say of the impudence of Théophile Gautier, who wrote exactly the same thing in the same words many years before Hare?—"Cordoue a l'aspect plus africain que toute autre ville d'Andalousie; ses rues, ou plutôt ses ruelles, dont le pavé tumultueux ressemble au lit de torrents à sec, toutes chonchées de la paille courte qui s'échappe de la charge des ânes, n'ont rien qui rappelle les mœurs et les habitudes de l'Europe. L'on y marche entre d'interminables murailles couleur de craie, aux rares fenêtres, treillissées de grilles et de barreaux," etc. I find in Gautier's otherwise most charming 'Voyage en Espagne' numerous plagiarisms of this sort from the works of his successors, who, however, have duly punished him by rarely, if ever, mentioning his name. Washington Irving was another sinner like Gautier, having surreptitiously anticipated many things to be found as original matter in subsequent tourist and guide-books. All of which argues a sad state of literary morality in the good old times.

No longer enjoying Mr. Strobel's erudite guidance, and having an invincible prejudice against professional guides (except when limited time makes them a necessary evil), I studied the map of Cordova, and resolved to find the great mosque alone. But in five minutes I was as hopelessly lost as if I had descended in a balloon into the midst of an Alaskan forest. When I began to ask my way, it was amusing to note the perplexed expression on the faces of the Cordovese. They knew exactly where I wanted to go, but how to direct me was the puzzle. It was "no go." Finally, I gave a boy a copper to take me to a place where I could buy a pocket compass. I might have had him take me to the mosque quite as well, but my spirit was aroused, and I resolved to find that mosque alone, even if I perished in the attempt. With map and compass in hand it was easy enough to walk straight up to it, and in the same manner I found my way about the city subsequently as infallibly as if I had been a Cunarder in mid-Atlantic bound for New York or Queenstown. And the mosque was quite worth the trouble I had taken to find it. Notwithstanding that much of its glory is gone (thanks to the stupidity of the bishop who marred the central portion by building a church in it, thereby reducing the number of columns from 1,400 to 860, and partly destroying its sublime proportions), it made a deeper impression on me than any building I had ever seen, excepting the Doges' Palace in Venice. It was a sensible idea on the part of the Moorish builders to seek to attain sublimity by lateral expansion and distance, by length and width, rather than by height (as in Gothic cathedrals), and by the superabundance of columns. The disadvantage of the Gothic style is, that height can only be appreciated amid great physical discomfort and straining of the neck muscles, while the beauties of the ceiling can only be appreciated with the aid of an opera-glass. The Cordovan Mosque is quite low, but if the original ceiling remained, and the central columns were restored, I am sure this would not be felt as a disadvantage.

I cannot refrain from once more referring to Théophile Gautier and his influence. Concerning the impression made by this many-columned mosque, he says: "Il vous semble plutôt marcher dans une forêt plafonnée que dans un édifice; de quelque côté que vous vous tourniez, votre œil s'égare à travers des allées de colonnes qui se croisent et s'allongent à perte de vue, comme une végétation de marbre spontanément jaillée du sol." Possibly Gautier was not the first who compared these columns to a marble forest, but I suspect he was, as the comparison did not strike me as very pertinent on the spot. Nevertheless, it was eagerly taken up by all subsequent writers, and underwent a regular evolution in specificality, so to speak. De Amicis, for instance, says: "Imagine a forest, fancy yourself in the thickest portion of it, and that you can see nothing but the trunks of trees. So, in this mosque, on whatever side you look, the eye loses itself among the columns. It is a forest of marble whose confines one cannot discover" (!) And Mr. E. E. Hale caps the climax by saying regarding this "forest of marble": "It is not hard to persuade yourself that you hear the wind, as you might in a forest at home."

The costliness of the "marble forest," and the other evidences of wealth in the mosque, though but a shadow of what they were once, almost convince one that there is little exaggeration in the assertion of the old Arabian historian that Cordova, about a thousand years ago, was the most important city in Europe, containing a million inhabitants, 600 inns, 300 mosques, and 900 baths. It has now about 50,000 inhabitants and one public bath. And this change is due to the influence of the priests who expelled the industrious Moors and Jews, and compelled them to seek new homes in Granada and Morocco. The influence of the Moors, however, has remained in the character of the streets and the houses, with their cool inner courts or patios. In a walled town, where space is very valuable, only a great inherited love of gardens, fountains, flowers, and fresh air could induce the inhabitants to sacrifice so much space to these patios.

I was fortunate in arriving at Cordova during its principal festival week, even though I had to pay double price at the hotel, and to consider myself lucky in getting a room at all. The festival consisted in illumination with colored lights of the alameda, or public promenade, both sides of which were lined with booths containing chiefly toys for children. At one end were some cheap shows and some restaurants, in front of which a kind of crullers were fried in olive oil. Behind the booths was a donkey market, but the purchasers seemed to be scarce, being probably frightened away by the frightful braying choruses; and towards evening the roads were crowded with the unsold donkeys returning home. The seats along the alameda (for which two cents is charged) were all occupied, and a dense throng of pedestrians made locomotion difficult for any one but the water-carriers, more numerous here than anywhere else. They keep their water cool by having it in porous jugs, the evaporation from which keeps the water at a pleasant temperature and obviates the necessity of using microbe-infected and dyspepsia-breeding ice. Spain has much to learn and adopt from us, but it has some improvements to offer in return; and among the foremost are the Andalusian water jugs and the cool and cosey patios, which serve as reception rooms in the morning and evening.

HENRY T. FINCK.

Correspondence.

THE PRESIDENT AND THE COMMITTEE ON PENSIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: By press despatch we have a fragment of the Report of the Pension Committee on eight vetoed pension bills, and while I cannot criticise it as a whole, I can certainly call attention to the apparent want of information by the Committee as to the origin and office of the Executive Negative. Presumably it is this which gives to the concluding sentence that inaccuracy and exaggeration which, ordinarily, has no recognized position outside of the stump speech:

"The right to so use the power of Executive disapproval as to change the ordinary method of legislative action by a majority vote upon proper subjects of legislation, merely because the Executive differs from Congress upon the sufficiency of proof or the expediency of relief, does not, in the opinion of your Committee, exist. Such a misconception of the extent of the Executive power, making it limitless, is fraught with danger to the independence of Congress and to its constitutional powers, and it clearly implies that a usurping President who proposes to subordinate to his will that of the department to which the Constitution has confided the principal powers of government, can rightfully do this and prevent the will of the people from taking statutory form, except by a two-thirds vote of each house of Congress."

I suppose by this last sentence the writer means to assert that the President regards his veto power as limitless, and that the exercise of it, which by the Report is reprehended, is a usurpation; but I confess my inability to understand how "a usurping President" can "*rightfully*" use unauthorized and revolutionary power.

If the Report contained nothing except this sentence, I should not regard it as worthy of notice. The statement as to the office of the veto deserves consideration. The Committee say that the President ought not to use his veto merely because he differs from Congress upon the "sufficiency of the proof" or the "expediency of the relief." This language is apt, of course, dealing with the special subject of pension-relief bills, and is a clear statement of what the Committee meant to say; but it is a misconception gross enough to be almost characterized as perverse.

When the President comes to consider a private or general pension bill, under his oath of office it is his imperative duty to refuse his approval if, in his opinion, the evidence supporting the bill be insufficient, or if the proposed legislation be inexpedient. This is the precise occasion calling for Executive disapproval, and the Committee could not possibly have placed their contention upon ground more untenable. The non-partisan constituency of the President commend him especially for the courage with which he has dared to exercise this constitutionally conferred power. The duty of approval involves examination and consideration, and unless the duty is carelessly or faithlessly done, the Presidential negative must be interposed whenever, in his judgment, the majority has acted hastily, or upon insufficient proof, or against the public good. Any one of these conclusions following examination leaves the Executive no alternative but to notify Congress to reconsider their action. When he does this with a respectful statement of his objections, it seems almost childish to make response through a *paper* like the one we quote from.

Mr. Hamilton, after stating the necessity for the veto, says: "It not only serves as a shield to the Executive, but it furnishes an additional security against the enaction of improper laws. It establishes a salutary check upon the Legislative Body, calculated to guard the community against the effects of faction, precipitancy, or of any impulse unfriendly to the public good which may happen to influence a majority of that Body" ('Federalist,' Letter lxxiii); and throughout the discussion it was assumed that, though the negative was a qualified one, it was the President's duty to as-

sert it against any and all laws which, in his judgment, were bad. Mr. Hamilton was of opinion, also, that the veto would from its nature be often used, and he was quite right upon the assumption that the Federal Executive would always have the patience to examine and then the courage to determine questions of right and expediency in the acts of Congress coming to him for approval. In 1832, when the Senate considered the bank veto, Mr. Clay said: "The veto was an extraordinary power, which, though tolerated by the Constitution, was not expected by the Convention to be used in ordinary cases"; but Mr. Webster, with of course broader knowledge of constitutional questions, stated the true rule when he said: "It is not to be doubted that the Constitution gives the President the power which he has now exercised; but while the power is admitted, the grounds upon which it has been exerted become fit subjects of examination."

So here, the Pension Committee may question the sufficiency of the President's reasons for his action, but they weaken themselves in popular estimation when they characterize a manly and intelligent use of a constitutional power as a usurpation. W. H. Effinger.

Portland, Oregon, June 29, 1888.

A PROTECTIONIST "FACT."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As the protectionists assure us that the country will go to ruin if the war tariff is in any way reduced, I am sure they will need every argument possible to sustain their position, and so offer them this authoritative and official one:

"It will, however, be advisable for those who wish to preserve their self-respect as Americans, when considering the relations borne by England to the industrial development of this country, to remember that England has always done her utmost to prevent any industrial or political development of the American people. . . . In addition to these consistent acts of continuous hostility, England, as has already been stated, has succeeded in introducing into American colleges the text-books written by her professors of political economy, and American young men are thereby indoctrinated with English free-trade ideas, which it usually takes them from five to twenty-five years to recover from. Nor are these by any means the only emissaries of English policy in America. Certain so-called leading American journals in New York city and elsewhere, for reasons best known to themselves, advocate English free-trade theories, while the English 'Cobden Club,' whose avowed purpose is the propaganda of English free-trade ideas, makes special effort to secure, by courtesies extended, the influence of leading Americans, and also circulates pamphlets and other printed matter as widely as possible in the United States. In short, it is a matter of public notoriety that England neglects no available opportunity to disseminate in America the free-trade theories she deems so essential to her interests.

"In considering these theories it is well to keep one fact in mind, and that is, that from the first hour of English settlement in America down to the present time, the active influence of England has been constantly exerted to prevent, retard, and destroy the industrial and commercial development and prosperity of the United States.

"No amount of later compliments or courtesies, however unusual or distinguished, paid to living or deceased Americans, can obliterate these historical facts, or should be suffered to weaken the memory of them in the minds of patriotic Americans mindful of their country's welfare; because the situation of Great Britain is such that necessity of self-preservation compels her to continue in the same course towards this nation that she has ever adopted.

"The historical events just recited may be commended to the consideration of such youthful Americans as find themselves inclined to Anglomania, who affect English costumes and customs in dress, manner, and speech, and who would esteem it a compliment to be taken for English, 'which they never could be, you know.'" ('Education in the Industrial and Fine Arts in the United States,' by Isaac Edward Clarke, A.M. Washington: Government Printing Office. 1885. Art. "Industrial Relations of England to America," pp. cc-ccii.)

I feel that I have remained a "patriotic American" by calling my fellow-countrymen's attention to this Government publication on fine art. Y.

P. S.—Will Mr. H. C. Lodge please copy? *Vide* A. Hamilton's Works, ed. Lodge, v. 3, p. 416.

PRUSSIA'S HEGEMONY IN THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The writer in the *Nation* of April 26 on the constitutional position of Prussia in the German Empire might have cited the case of Waldeck as an example of the various ways by which Prussia controls more than her constitutional seventeen votes in the Bundesrath. As this little duchy feels unable to pay its army assessment, Prussia charges herself with the expense, on condition that the vote which Waldeck possesses in the Bundesrath shall always be cast with her own.

The inhabitants of Waldeck are quite willing that their small territory should be added to the Prussian dominion, but Prussia refrains from incorporating it, partly because she wishes to avoid the appearance of absorbing the smaller States, but chiefly from the fear that Waldeck, in losing its autonomy, will also lose its vote in the Bundesrath. The Administration papers say openly that could some arrangement be made to secure that vote to Prussia, the Government would not hesitate to annex the duchy. J. C. N.

Berlin, June 20.

Notes.

Ground Rents in Philadelphia is the subject of the third number in the series of monographs on Political Economy and Public Law, edited by Prof. E. J. James, and published by the University of Pennsylvania. It will appear shortly, and the names of its editors, Messrs. Allinson and Penrose, are a guarantee of excellent performance.

The second volume of 'Cent ans de république aux États-Unis,' by the Duc de Noailles, is about to appear. An extract from it under the title, "Le Pouvoir exécutif aux États-Unis," was given in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for June 15. In this the author attempts to show what it is that makes the originality of the American republic, and what is its essential difference from the republics of Europe.

'Drames Philosophiques,' by Ernest Renan, is announced as in preparation by Calmann Lévy. It is to be a thick octavo volume, but there is no indication as to whether it is a collection of his already published writings in this direction, or an entirely new work. The same house announces, for immediate publication, the fifth volume of the 'Histoire des Princes de Condé,' by the Duc d'Aumale, accompanied by portraits and maps. A long passage from this forthcoming volume was read at the session of the French Academy on June 14, and published by the *Revue des Deux Mondes* in its issue of June 15, under the title, "De Lens à Vincennes." It closes with a page of personal explanation from the author concerning his treatment of the events which follow in the life of the Grand Condé, in which the exiled Prince, recalling his own unmerited disgrace, expresses himself in regard to his hero in language which has evidently been carefully weighed: "L'homme de bien a le devoir de protester à tout risque contre l'acte tyrannique qui, dans sa personne, atteint le publique; de résister, de lutter même, si, au péril de sa vie, il peut mettre un terme à l'oppression de tous. Il n'a pas le droit de troubler sa patrie, de la déchirer, d'y porter la guerre, pour venger une offense personnelle."

Calmann Lévy has just published 'Madame de Custine, d'après des documents inédits' (Boston: Schoenhof). In these new "études sociales et littéraries," M. A. Bardoux continues his studies of society at the end of the last century and the beginning of the present one, with the grace and charm that rendered his previous work upon Madame de Beaumont so attractive.

Jouaust (New York: Duprat & Co.) has just begun the publication of a "Bibliothèque des Mémoires relatifs à l'histoire de France," with the 'Mémoires de Choisy sur le règne de Louis XIV.,' in two 16mo volumes. It is edited by M. de Lescure, and accompanied by a preliminary notice, notes, an analytical table of contents and an index. The same publisher also begins another collection, "Les Pièces de Molière." Each play will be published separately, and illustrated by engravings from the designs of Louis Leloir, and notices and notes by M. Auguste Vitu. The first volume, which is already issued, is "L'Étourdi."

Henry Gréville's 'Perdue' has just been added by W. R. Jenkins to his "Romans Choisis."

For Ginn & Co.'s "Classics for Children" Mr. Edward Everett Hale has made a selection from the 'Arabian Nights,' mainly following Lane's version, and taking over also some of the familiar illustrations from his edition. Another volume is to follow.

New to our list of periodicals is the *Historical American*, begun this month at 90 Euclid Ave., Cleveland, O. Its aim is "to expound the best and most advanced thought of our time, as well as to picture the past and present, and to predict the future." In comprehensiveness, this programme certainly leaves little to be desired, and Mr. Lester F. Ward's name is appropriately connected with it. The magazine is illustrated.

The June number of the *Ohio Archæological and Historical Quarterly* is wholly given up to the proceedings at the Marietta Centennial (Columbus: A. H. Smythe). A steel portrait of Dr. Manasseh Cutler is prefixed; Gen. Rufus Putnam is rather crudely delineated on page 32, and there are several good topographical and antiquarian illustrations.

The first article in the *English Historical Review* for April is "The Campaign of Sedan," by William O'Connor Morris. The conclusion arrived at by the writer is, that the German success was due rather to Moltke's generalship than to any superiority in equipment or fighting qualities. And yet Mr. Morris does not appear to place Moltke in the highest rank of commanders. He says: "Moltke, without a claim to the grand original genius and resource of Napoleon, is, nevertheless, with the possible exception of Lee, the best strategist of the school of Napoleon. But, like the great Emperor, he showed in 1870 . . . that utter incapacity to understand the power of popular movements and patriotic passion which cost Napoleon so dear in Spain, in Russia, and notably at Waterloo." Leslie Stephen follows with "Chatham, Francis, and Junius," showing, against Mr. Dilke, that "there was not merely a conjunction of the two (not very heavenly) bodies [Junius and Francis], but a coincidence through an arc of their orbits." "The Plantation of Munster, 1584-1580," by R. Dunlop, gives a detailed account of this unsuccessful attempt

at settlement. Miss Robinson contributes a concluding article to "The Claim of the House of Orleans to Milan." This claim is fully set forth in the two articles, in its origin, its history, and its lawfulness; and after its "absolute and impregnable" character has been demonstrated, it is shown that it was shipwrecked upon the principle of nationality—that the real reason for its failure was that "the French Dukes of Milan were, in their own dominions, foreigners." Of the Notes and Documents, the most noteworthy is a paper upon the recently deceased Paul Ewald, by Prof. J. R. Seeley.

Krummacher, whose paper on Carlyle's style in 'Frederick the Great' we noted in January, continues the subject in the latest *Heft* of the *Englische Studien*, xi., 433–457. The present paper deals with Carlyle's use or omission of the definite and indefinite article, and peculiarities in the use of nouns, adjectives, prepositions, etc. We have to repeat our praise of the author's industry and acumen. And if we are to exercise our own critical faculty, we may remark that we fail to detect a *triple* negation in the passage quoted p. 456*e*, scarcely even a *double* negation. Wishing any one or anything "at the Devil," p. 457, is by no means a Carlylism; "to admire at" (="to wonder at") is a decided provincialism, not unknown in America.

A colored and lacquered bust of a young Japanese girl, by a native artist, makes an attractive frontispiece to the *Studio* for June. A shameful interest attaches to the story of the way in which a piratical American publisher has "adapted" Walter Crane's color designs. Mr. Clarence Cook continues his notice of the Academy, and criticises justly, as it seems to us, the distinction bestowed on Mr. Brush's "The Sculptor and the King," to which was awarded one of the prizes of the exhibition.

L'Art for June 1 (Macmillan) is very severe on the eight purchases of pictures made by the State from the late Salon. Detaille's "Le Rêve" alone is tolerantly treated, though the black-and-white copy of it we have somewhere met with is not very captivating, and one would say generally that what might be called the "dream business" has been done to death by artists. The rest are handled with severity, Henner's fumbling "St. Sebastian" in particular. Only four of the eight canvases, we remark, were sketched in the Illustrated Catalogue of the Salon. Roll's "Manda Lamétrie" was given in the last number of the *Universal Review*, along with Rafin's "Le Soir," and the praise which Mr. Harry Quilter accords to both is in amusing contrast to *L'Art's* depreciation of the same pictures; but on the face of it we are disposed to side with the latter critic. In the *Courrier de L'Art* for May 25, M. G. Dargenty censures the exhibition of Victor Hugo's drawings as if they were one phase of his genius, or were remarkable as art. "Is it not enough," he asks, "to have equalled Dante and surpassed Shakspere?"

The report on the manufacture of oleomargarine in Massachusetts contained in the nineteenth annual report of the Board of Health of that State is entirely favorable to this unpopular but useful industry. Noticeable in the same document is the discussion of the ventilation of schoolrooms heated by stoves—a paper freely illustrated by diagrams.

The State Historical Society of Wisconsin, in coöperation with the Historical Department of the State University, desires to collect statistics and other facts in relation to *organized* emigration into the State of Wisconsin. Any person willing to assist in this work is requested to correspond with Mr. Reuben G. Thwaites, Secretary of the Society at Madison, marking the communication "Organized Emigration" on the envelope. Printed or written documents, in English or otherwise, bearing upon this inquiry will be thankfully received by Mr. Thwaites for the Society.

—Mr. W. J. Linton writes us from London under date of June 28: "May I ask leave to correct a statement in your kindly notice of 'The Masters of Wood-Engraving' in the *Nation* of June 7? The size of the book (short royal folio), as shown by the specimen pages, is a little under seventeen inches by twelve. It therefore does not require 'a double page' to admit cuts of twelve by eight."

—With great pleasure we announce the arrival of Part iv. of the Philological Society's New English Dictionary (Macmillan). It is divided into two sections, the first completing at once the letter B and the first volume of this monumental work. The second section ends with *cass-weed*. We must, as usual, defer proper notice of the new instalment till time has been afforded for careful examination. Here we can only make a few gleanings from the preface to vol. i., which accompanies the first section. The editor points out that while, as in other dictionaries, the main words beginning with A exceed in number those beginning with B, the space devoted to the latter is considerably in excess of that devoted to A—contrary to the rule in other dictionaries. "This difference arises from the diversity in the historical character of the words under the two letters respectively, and the effect which this has upon the relative space required by them in a dictionary which deals with a language historically." The obsolete words under B are rarer than those under A; "fewer of the Old English and Norman words [which characterize B] have dropped out of use, than of the much more recent learned importations of the Renascence which, after a short literary life, perished before the end of the seventeenth century." Furthermore, more than three-fourths of the whole English A and B vocabulary on record since the twelfth century is still in current use—"striking evidence of the continuity and general identity of our language during seven centuries." B, as had already been made known, furnished the hardest etymological nuts to crack. The editor explains his action on the question of admitting adjectives derived from proper names. *African* was excluded, but *American* was admitted because *Americanize* and *Americanism* had to be reckoned with. As the wicked intention of the abolitionists to *Africanize* this country was once much talked of among us, probably *African* would have been admitted in consistency had not the printed page been closed. As regards pronunciation we read: "The Editor was once present at a meeting of a learned society, where, in the course of discussion, he heard the word *gaseous* systematically pronounced in six different ways by as many eminent physicists." "On several occasions," too, Mr. Murray says he "has applied directly to the introducer of a word to know how he pronounces it, or means it to be pronounced, and has received the answer that he has never thought of its pronunciation, does not presume to say how it ought to be pronounced, and leaves it to people to pronounce as they like, or to the DICTIONARY to say what is the *right* pronunciation." Of the letter C we are told that, unlike B, it contains only a small proportion of Old English or Teutonic words, but many from the Latin (directly or through the French) and the Greek. "And words of Celtic origin are proportionably numerous."

—Among the Editor's warmer acknowledgments to his colaborers on both sides of the Atlantic, those to an American scholar residing in England take precedence:

"And first of all, and above all others, to Mr. Fitzedward Hall, D.C.L., who, as a voluntary and gratuitous service to the history of the English Language, has devoted four hours daily to a critical examination of the proof sheets and the filling up of deficiencies, whether in the vocabulary or the quotations. Those who are familiar with the pages of his 'Modern English,' his 'English Adjectives in -able,' and his numerous articles and papers on special points of English, know with what an amazing wealth of evidence the author illustrates the history of every word, idiom, or grammatical usage upon which he touches; the whole of his stock of quotations, references, and indices, he has generously placed at the service of the Dictionary, and there is scarcely a page to which he has not added earlier instances of words or senses than those which our readers have found; many rare words and rare senses have been added entirely from his stores."

—Mr. Howard Williams has translated for Bohn's Classical Library (New York: Scribner & Welford) one volume of Lucian's 'Dialogues.' The present selection comprises "The Dialogues of the Gods," "Zeus the Tragedian," "The Convicted Zeus," "The Ferry-Boat," "Menippus." Now, the "Dialogues of the Gods," the translation of which we have examined as a sample of the whole, are largely studies of form, and whoever undertakes to translate them should try at any rate to give something of the grace of the original—dancing-master's grace though it be. But Mr. Howard Williams has renounced at the outset any attempts to make a "*spirited*" rendering, for which he italicises his contempt, and professes "to adhere to the original as closely as essential differences of idiom allow." In spite of this profession, however, the unfortunate schoolboy who should take Mr. Howard Williams at his word will assuredly come to harm, if he tries to make a practical use in the classroom of this droll jumble of over-doing and under-doing, of antiquated English and modern slang, with not a few downright mistranslations, which are worse, we venture to say, than any to be found in those "*spirited* versions" which, according to Mr. Williams, are "for the most part not distinguished by any very strict fidelity to the original." The article with the proper noun, which is in most instances merely an index of familiar speech, comes in not unfrequently for terrible emphasis, and the unlucky aorist is made to yield its supposed momentariness at every turn. And side by side with this would-be grammatical exactitude, we find: γοργός, 'lively,' 'nimble,' translated "Gorgon," 'for all I care,' rendered by "for my own sake," a whole section spoiled by ignorance of so familiar an idiom as the use of ἔδει; and τοῖς παιδικοῖς explained in the notes by an ellipsis of ἔρωσι. In these notes, by the way, the translator manages every now and then to dull a point which he had not entirely blunted in the text; and the second-hand learning heaped up at the foot of the page is made thoroughly distasteful by the false accents with which the Greek quotations are dusted. In fourteen lines of a familiar passage from the "Medea" there are more accentual mistakes than there are lines, and one hideous misprint besides. In short, we can only express our judgment of this performance by the Lucianic word: θυννώδης —the word which Mr. Williams in despair translates "very fishy." What of Lucian Mr. Williams has spared is of far more importance for the student of Greek life and thought in the second century than the dialogues contained in this volume, and it would be a pity to have that spoiled also. But who is

there that will give us an English Lucian to match Bernays's translation of the 'Peregrinus'?

—Another new volume of the "Bohn Classical Library" bears as its title 'Julian the Emperor,' and under this heading Mr. C. W. King has put his versions of Gregory Nazianzen's Two Invectives against the Emperor Julian, and of the Funeral Oration of Libanius in honor of the same personage, together with Julian's theosophical works, or, in less ambitious phrase, his discourses on the Sun and on the Mother of the Gods. The interest of the first part of the volume is supposed to lie in the opportunity thus afforded the English reader of comparing the divergent accounts given of the imperial philosopher; of the second part, in certain modern parallels. As for the student of history, so far from leaving him to draw his own conclusions, Mr. King takes a malicious delight in prodding the clerical inveigher, and can hardly be said himself to keep the desirable judicial attitude. But those who know the period, know that discourses of this kind have scarcely any value for history. The supposed historical facts are as often as not invented for the sake of showing off an acquaintance with Herodotus or Thucydides. It is a world of reminiscences, of phrases, all the more remarkable because people actually did something in those days. Still, Mr. King thinks that he has found archæology and art enough, chiefly of the numismatic order, to repay the quest, and in testimony of this he has supplied the volume with a full index. As for the literary delight to be had either from the original or from the stiff translation, that may be put down as a *minimum*, in spite of the reputation of the Cappadocian Father and of the teacher of Julian. Julian's own contributions to the volume do that vivid person injustice. In the "Cæsars," the "Misopogon," one may recognize something of the vigor that marks the Romanticist on the Throne in action; but the "Discourse on the Sun," the "Discourse on the Mother of the Gods," are dreary performances. However, one must have sympathy with the theosophic mind to understand it, and the only practical objection we have to urge is the rarity of the theosophic mind. As in the Lucian, as in so many of the Bohn volumes, the Latin and the Greek of the Julian are abominably printed.

—The Year Book of the Library of the University of Norway (*Universitets-Bibliothekets Aarbog for 1887*), recently issued, contains the Librarian's report and the catalogue of accessions. The report is for the fiscal year 1886-87, and shows an increase of 6,336 volumes, making the total contents of the library on June 30, 1887, 296,518 books, 1,412 manuscripts, and 602 maps, besides the collections of prints and music and a considerable number of duplicates. During the year, 26,578 volumes were loaned out, and 27,867 volumes were brought to the reading-room for use there. Of the books so used the greatest number, 12,110, were historical works, philology coming next, 7,976, followed by belles-lettres, 4,992; law, 4,728; medicine, 5,442; natural history, 3,832, and theology, 3,727, while 520 manuscripts were examined. The excellent and well-equipped reading-room of this institution deserves special mention. It was constructed some five or six years ago in the court of the library building, but it is well lighted and comfortable. There are 2,500 reference books ranged round the walls, and the current numbers and parts of several hundred periodicals and society publications are placed at the disposal of readers with commendable promptness.

—The catalogue of accessions is divided into three parts, the first containing the titles of works (printed or published in Norway during the year 1886) of which copies have been deposited in the library, in accordance with the Norwegian Copyright Law, by 140 printing and lithographic establishments. These titles embrace 956 books and pamphlets, 120 periodicals, 109 newspapers, 132 pieces of music, 24 maps, 13 prints, and 916 leaflets—a respectable showing as the literary production of a year for a country with a population of less than two millions. None of the great names in the contemporary literature of Norway occur in the catalogue for 1886, except that of Björnstjerne Björnson, who appears only as the translator of an article contributed by Col. Robert Ingersoll to the *North American Review*. The other translations from American authors are, an Indian story by Miss Alcott, entitled 'Onawandah,' Professor Anderson's 'Norse Mythology,' Cooper's 'Deer-Slayer,' and Mr. Henry George's 'Progress and Poverty' and 'Social Problems.' Norway is not without a literary censorship, and three of the titles are followed by notes stating that the works have been suppressed. The second part of the catalogue contains the Norwegian books printed prior to 1886 which were received during the year, and also the books printed abroad, but relating to Norway; while the third part includes the foreign accessions, arranged under subjects. The additions from German and French literature are valuable, and the number of titles under "Philology" is noticeable. Very little original American literature, however, is included—less than a dozen volumes in all; and these, with the exception of two volumes of the *Critic* and Mr. Stedman's 'Poets of America,' have been selected apparently because their contents had some relation to Scandinavian subjects.

—Prof. H. Jordan of Königsberg, whose lamented death (Nov. 10, 1886) left unfinished the standard work upon the topography of ancient Rome, left also a fragment, entitled 'Die Könige im alten Italien,' discussing a problem which had occupied his attention in the last months of his life. This problem was to account for the fact that the kings of patrician Rome bore the names of plebeian *gentes: i. e.*, leaving out the Etruscan Tarquins, the names Pompilius, Hostilius, Marcius, and Tullius are, he thinks, exclusively plebeian. To account for this, he advances the startling theory that the earliest Rome, the Rome of the three tribes, embraced patricians and plebeians alike, the exclusively patrician rule having been established later, and in connection with a new immigration (*jedenfalls getragen durch eine starke Einwanderung*). Undoubtedly, if the author had lived, he would have revised his work, and especially would have elaborated his theory more fully; as it stands, it suggests more questions than it answers. It is difficult to conceive how a theory which completely reverses the accepted view can be made to harmonize with the evidence. Especially, it may be remarked, the exclusively plebeian character of these names is by no means established. The Marcii and Tullii of the later Republic were undoubtedly plebeian, but so were also the Junii and Cassii; while there are traditions (which he is obliged to discredit) of patrician Marcii and Tullii in the early Republic. The names Pompilius and Hostilius are too rare to be taken into account. On the other hand, there are numerous instances of plebeian branches of patrician *gentes*, descended probably from clients; the best known example is the Claudii Marcelli. In any case it is surprising that (with the exception of Horatius) none of the great patrician names of the early Republic—Valerius, Fabius, Quinctius, etc.—occur under the kings; but we must remember that the long rule of the Tarquinian dynasty gave opportunity for some families to sink into obscurity and others to rise in importance.

LE CONTE'S EVOLUTION AND RELIGIOUS THOUGHT.

Evolution and Its Relations to Religious Thought. By Joseph Le Conte. D. Appleton & Co. 1888. xviii., 344 pp., 8vo. Ills.

Professor Le Conte is well and favorably known to the scientific as well as to a large proportion of the non-scientific reading public. He is a man in whom reverence and imagination have not become desiccated by a scientific atmosphere, but flourish, in due subordination and control, to embellish and vivify his writings. Those who know them have come to expect a peculiar alertness of mind and freshness of method in any new work by Professor Le Conte, whether his conclusions be such as they are ready to receive or not.

The questions suggested by the title of the present work must weigh with more or less persistence on the mind of every intelligent and liberal thinker. And the more fully the thinker is acquainted with the methods, scope, and apparent results of modern science—the more thorough his sincerity with himself, the greater his devotion to truth, lead where it may—so much the more poignant must be his travail, and the more fervent his prayer for light "if there be light." The man who can keep his science and his religion in two boxes, either of which may be opened separately, is to be congratulated. Many of us cannot, and his peace of mind we cannot attain. Therefore, every contribution towards a means of clearer vision is most welcome, above all, when it comes from one who knows the ground on which he stands, and has conquered his right to be there.

Prof. Le Conte has attempted to give (1) a very concise account of what is meant by evolution; (2) an outline of the evidences of its truth drawn from many different sources; and (3) its relation to fundamental religious beliefs. As for the first and second propositions, we shall pass them over, with only the comment that they are treated in a manner no less satisfactory than our author's qualifications would lead us to expect. We believe that we can employ the space assigned to this review most usefully for our readers in giving them a brief synopsis of the third part, in which Prof. Le Conte has solved for himself the greatest of the problems which confront humanity. Those who would know the reasoning by which the argument is sustained must, and we hope many will, go to the work itself.

Prof. Le Conte accepts evolution as an established law of nature, and regards the materialism which so many draw from it as an unwarranted and hasty inference. Everybody knows that every one of us, individually, became what we now are by a slow process of evolution from a microscopic spherule of protoplasm, and yet this did not interfere with our idea of God as our individual maker. Why, then, should the discovery that the first individuals of each species originated by evolution destroy our belief in God as the creator of species? Prof. Le Conte asserts divine agency by natural process as opposed, on the one hand, to the theologian who asserts divine agency and denies natural process, and, on the other, to the materialist who accepts natural process while denying divine agency. If evolution be materialism, so is

gravitation and every other law of nature. The only difference is, that here is the last line of defence of the dogmatist, and his yielding implies not a mere shifting of line, but a change of base; not a readjustment of details merely, but a reconstruction of Christian theology. While the author believes this to be necessary, it does not seem to have many terrors for him.

The next step considers the relation of God to nature. The dilemma is stated without compromise. Either God is far more closely related with nature, and operates it in a more direct way than we have been accustomed to suppose, or else nature operates itself and needs no God at all. There is no tenable middle ground. The author promptly accepts the first alternative, and postulates a Deity immanent, in whom (in the most literal sense) not only we but all things have their being, in whom all things consist, through whom all things exist, and without whom there would be and could be nothing. According to this view, the phenomena of nature are naught else than objectified modes of Divine thought, the forces of nature are different forms of one omnipresent Divine energy or will, the laws of nature the regular modes of operation of that will, invariable and unchangeable. To the objection that this is pure Idealism, Prof. Le Conte points out that the received Idealism regards the external world as composed of objectified mental states of the observer, while in the present conception it is the objectified modes of the mind of God, a very substantial reality conditioning us on every side.

In treating of the relations of man to nature, the author contrasts the two views, as old as the history of human thought, according to one of which man is an immortal spirit belonging to a world of his own, while the other regards him as a part, and relatively a rather insignificant part, of nature, belonging strictly to the animal kingdom, and his thought, emotion, consciousness, and will as products of his brain in the same sense as bile is the product of the liver. He combines and reconciles these mutually exclusive extremes by treating the phenomena of consciousness and thought as of an entirely different order from the physical changes in sense organs through which the former become evident—so different that it is impossible to imagine the nature of the nexus between or to construe the one in terms of the other. This relation lies evidently beyond the domain of science. It requires some other *kind* of knowledge than human to understand it. There is nothing especially strange in this, since the same mystery underlies the essential nature of all phenomena. Physical and chemical forces, admitted as existing, are mutually convertible in terms of each other and of motion. Standing on the plane of material existence, all its phenomena fall into intelligible order. But there is another plane above this, having no intelligible relation with it. Material forces are a mystery of the first order. But mental and moral forces and phenomena are a mystery even from the standpoint of the other, and therefore of the second order.

Now, in the gradual evolution of the animal kingdom, did the immortal spirit enter with life, or with sentient life, or somewhere in the ascending scale of animals, or with the advent of man? If with man, was it something added, or did it grow out of something already existing in animals? The author holds as the only tenable view that the spirit of man was developed out of the anima or conscious principle of animals, and that this again was developed out of the lower forms of life force, and this in its turn out of the chemical and physical forces of nature; and that at a certain stage in this gradual development, viz., with man, it acquired the property of immortality precisely as it now, at a certain stage, in the individual history of each man, acquires the capacity of abstract thought.

In support of this he urges that there is nothing wholly exceptional in such transformation with the sudden appearance of new powers and properties; but, on the contrary, it is in accordance with many analogies in the lower forces, and therefore *a priori* not only credible, but probable. There is now a sort of taxonomic scale of force and matter in sharply limited and distinct planes. These are: (1) the plane of elements; (2) that of chemical compounds; (3) that of vegetal life; (4) of animal life; and (5) the plane of rational and, as we hope, of immortal life. Each has its own appropriate force and distinctive phenomena, and there is between each a very distinct break. Though there are various degrees of the force characteristic of each, yet the difference between the characteristic forces is one of kind as well as degree. Although energy by transmutation may take all these different forms, and thus does now circulate up and down through all these planes, yet the passage from one plane upward to another is not a gradual passage by sliding scale, but *at one bound*. When the necessary conditions are present, a new and higher form of force at once appears, like a birth into a higher sphere. This is appropriately and ingeniously illustrated, as by the formation of water from gases, and of protoplasm in a green leaf. With each new irruption of the universal energy into a higher plane, there appear new, unexpected, and, previous to experience, wholly unimaginable powers and properties. The forces of nature being naught else than different forms of the one omnipresent Divine energy, which has taken successively higher and higher forms in the course of cosmic time, the author points out that the upward movement has been wholly by increasing individuation, not only of matter, but also of force. Finally, the same energy, completely individuated as a separate entity, and therefore self-conscious, capable of separate existence, and therefore immortal, we call the spirit of man. In animals, spirit is deep submerged in nature, as beneath a water surface, wholly ignorant of any higher, freer world above. In man, spirit emerges above the surface into a higher world, looks down on nature beneath him, on other emerged spirits about him, and upward to the Father of all spirits above him—emerged, but not wholly free; rising above the lower plane, but not entirely foot-loose.

Now, if man be indeed something more than a higher species of animal, if man's spirit be indeed a spark of Divine energy individuated to the point of self-consciousness and recognition of its relations both Divine and natural, it is evident that this new relation should include a difference of attitude between the individual and God, as compared with the mutual attitude of Divinity and unindividuated nature. The possibilities of mutual reaction afforded by this conception enable us to imagine an inspiration or revelation to the spirit of man, which shall not, in the physical sense, be a reversion or interruption of natural law, but something of a different nature and on a higher plane. There is evidently no other kind of revelation possible, and such revelation is given to all men in different degrees. But there is, and in the nature of things can be, no test of truth but reason, by which all things must in the last instance be tried.

Having shown how, following the line of scientific thought, we are logically driven to the doctrine of Divine immanence, the author proceeds, in a very ingenious argument, to free his hypothesis from Pantheism, and to show how, in his opinion, we are also logically impelled to a belief in a Divine personality. His statement is necessarily analogical and suggestive rather than convincing, but we think he shows, at least, that there is a door open in this direction.

The problem of Evil is regarded from an evolutionary standpoint. Not happiness or innocence, but virtue, is the goal of humanity; virtue cannot be given, it must be self-acquired, by a knowledge of and conformity to the laws of the moral world. We cannot conceive of a moral being without freedom to choose. Evil, then, has its roots in the necessary law of evolution, is a necessary condition of all progress, and preëminently so of moral progress. All that we call evil, both in the material and spiritual world, is good so long as we hold it in subjection to the spirit, and only becomes evil when we succumb. True virtue consists not in the extirpation of the lower elements of man's nature, but in their subjection to the higher. The latter are nourished and strengthened by their connection with the former, while the lower are refined and glorified by their relation to the higher, until by this mutual reaction the whole plane of being is elevated.

Such is, in brief, the scheme presented for our consideration by Professor Le Conte. That it will not satisfy the mind in bondage to hereditary dogmatic systems is self-evident. Nothing in harmony with scientific rigor would do so, nor is it worth while for any one to attempt, for the scientific mind, any repetition of the nauseating incongruities which have so often been put forward under the guise of a "reconciliation of science and religion."

PLYMOUTH AND THE BAY COLONY.

The Puritan Age and Rule in the Colony of the Massachusetts Bay, 1629–1685. By Geo. E. Ellis. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888. 8vo, pp. 576.

The Pilgrim Republic; an Historical Review of the Colony of New Plymouth, with Sketches of the Rise of other New England Settlements, the History of Congregationalism and the Creeds of the Period. By John A. Goodwin. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1888. 8vo, pp. 662.

We cannot complain of a want of scholarly attention to the dark questions of our early colonial days. To Doyle's judicial and broad, though somewhat slow, history of the Puritan colonies, and Adams's lively but one-sided essay on the 'Emancipation of Massachusetts,' are to be added these works by Dr. Ellis and Mr. Goodwin, both learned, both sombre, and both somewhat clerical, not to say Puritan, in their lore, but not the less fit on that account to enter into the inner life of that strange period, with its curious compound of harshness and enthusiasm, of mediæval bigotry and modern statesmanship. The two volumes have very different aims. Dr. Ellis has not tried to write a detailed history. His work is an essay on the religious aspects of that curious age, and it is easy to guess that the desire to answer Mr. Adams, and exhibit the Massachusetts Puritans in a less odious light, had no little effect upon the execution of his plan. It is not difficult to show the Puritan defects in a striking and hateful aspect; at the best they seem savage enough in the light of modern liberal thought. The difficulty is to get out of our modern atmosphere, and revive enough of their surroundings and modes of thought to get a genuine histori-

cal insight, and judge them by their age, not ours.

Dr. Ellis helps us a good deal here. He is not dramatic or animated. He gives little space to sketching character or picturing scenes. But he does succeed in showing us why the Puritans felt bound to carry out that "grim and iron rule of bigotry, austerity, and intolerance," and how they grew

> "strong thru shifts an wants an pains,
> Nussed by stern men with empires in their brains,"

as Lowell says. They were trying a wonderful experiment of government by pure Bible rule, in an age peculiarly ripe for such a trial, for both the feudal civil institutions and the old feudal church had been outgrown, and experience had not shown what could take their place; and the boundless enthusiasm for the newly discovered Bible made it seem most natural to appeal to it as the final arbiter. They could not try the plan fairly without using exceptional and violent means. They had not the slightest idea of separating Church and State. In that period few had conceived of the possibility of such a thing; and even in our own time many will not willingly accept the thesis which Dr. Ellis thinks has been practically demonstrated, that no organic form of civil government can safely base itself on religion. The Reformation in England had the closer union of Church and State for one of its main features; and when the extremer English reformers migrated to form their colony here, they drew the tie closer still. The Church did not govern directly, but indirectly her influence was omnipotent. The parish was the unit of crystallization, only church members voted, the elders were constantly consulted by the magistrates, the Mosaic Code was treated as legally binding, and the enemies of the Church were promptly expelled. This idea could not be carried out without a good deal of severity, but it had a wonderful grandeur in that age, and such severities did not wear the barbarous look that they have to our eyes. Harshness seemed a practical necessity. To punish obtrusive dissenters by nothing but banishment was a concession painful to not a few. The extremists would have liked to treat them as they did Indian combatants—sold the squaws into slavery, and brought away only the heads of the men. Such was the age.

It is easy to make too much of the narrow limits of the Puritan charter. Some of the earlier New England patents had been merely for trade, but the charter of 1628 was granted for a different purpose and had a different form. A religious government in the Christian faith was put forward as one of the purposes of the plantation. Even trading corporations could banish unwelcome intruders; but this was a municipal rather than a trading corporation, and considerable legislative power was conveyed by the clause of the charter authorizing the colonists to make laws, enforced by fines, imprisonment, "or other lawful correction, according to the course of other corporations in this our realm." Certainly this did not authorize the infliction of the death penalty in cases which, like witchcraft, were not capital at common law, and it did not authorize the sale of Indian captives. For these acts the colonists had only what satisfaction they could get from the Mosaic law. But a vast number of provisions, not only criminal but civil, were quite within their power, as in matters relating to husbands and wives, administration of trusts, etc. Writers on the subject are apt to forget the very peculiar state of the law in England at that date, when the common law was still in swaddling clothes, incompetent to deal with many of the commonest events of life either penally or civilly, and requiring to be constantly supplemented by some other authority.

The English people tolerated the equity jurisdiction of the Chancellor, the military jurisdiction of the King, and the civil jurisdiction of his Privy Council and courts of high commission, and especially the broad ecclesiastical jurisdiction of the Church, largely because they believed that it was necessary to fill these extensive gaps in the common law. And when they came to this country they found much the same gaps, and filled them as best they could by action of the General Court and church discipline. It is a high tribute to the common law that the colonists, with their religious instincts and organization so strongly opposed to its cold utilitarianism, should yet have worked back into it, naturally without a jar. There were no lawyers at first, and some of the early actions were more like the proceedings of the board of directors of a charitable institution than a modern court; but, as prosperity came and courts were organized, the common-law process came back insensibly. The point most like a break was at the revocation of the charter in 1684; but the change in practice had preceded that change in law, and the theocracy had been overthrown in the hearts of the silent majority before the political changes in England brought about its overthrow. The experiment of Bible government had been tried and had failed, under peculiarly favorable circumstances, in the hands of a set of vigorous enthusiasts, at a time when the Bible, as Dr. Ellis says, was held as it never had been before and never has been since—not only as all-sufficient, but as requiring, by positive divine injunction, that it should be so used and obeyed. "No thought of what is to us so obvious in the impracticability of the experiment seems to have presented itself to those who put it on trial."

It was requisite that there should be resolute adherence by the adopters, and a firm rule over sojourners, who, although not parties to the experiment, had to be compelled to conform to it. We cannot blame the Puritans for perceiving this and acting on it. Their rigor against dissenting preachers was political as much as it was religious. Dr. Ellis devotes a whole chapter to showing the cordial reception given to the Jesuit Father Druillettes, who made no effort to teach his views. It was because Mrs. Hutchinson and President Dunster and Roger Williams and Samuel Gorton (whose trial for heresy Dr. Ellis does not mention, by the way), and more especially the Quakers and Anabaptists, either proselytized actively or attacked the magistracy, that they were put down so harshly. If they had said nothing, and gone to church regularly, they would not have been bothered. As it was, we may concede that it was necessary to get rid of them, but it was most impolitic as well as illegal ever to impose the death penalty. And yet it is curious to see how it was present in the minds of the judges in heresy trials, with a horrible fascination, from the very beginning.

In his chapter on the Quakers, Dr. Ellis quietly abandons some of the extremer positions that he once took in defending the Puritans. The witchcraft horror he treats as outside his subject, because it occurred under the commission of a royal Governor, after the power had passed from Puritan hands, though he would concede, no doubt, that it was the intolerant Puritan zeal for the Mosaic law that made the persecution possible. Another point on which Dr. Ellis might well have been fuller is the growth of the opposition party, as shown in the history of the Brattle Square and Old South Churches.

Mr. Goodwin's 'Pilgrim Republic' covers a very different ground. Dr. Ellis's work is an elaborate essay on one phase of the life of the great Bay Colony. It is a part of a great controversy, an authoritative statement of the Puritan defence. Mr. Goodwin's is a local history, narrating the early republican régime at Plymouth with great fulness of detail, touching upon many controverted points, and handling them with coolness and justice, though without much imagination or humor. He begins by explaining that while the Bay Colony was Puritan, the Plymouth one was not, having severed from the very beginning that connection with the English Puritan Church which the Bay men for many years nominally kept up. And he plumes himself not a little, as Plymouth archæologists are wont to do, on the greater liberality and freedom from persecution which the Separatists showed.

Such was the roundabout connection between the two things, however, that this result was due more to a cautious recognition of the dangers of their peculiar position than to any religious open-mindedness. Neither colony cared much doctrinally for the tenet. Only four years after the settlement, before they had got a firm foothold, Brewster told Lyford that the Plymouth men did not insist upon it, and Lyford says that the non-Separatists were in a majority. Politically, however, they had destroyed their chance of a charter by their outspoken course, and they were unable, therefore, to pass any valid laws. The colony existed only by the connivance of the English Government, and this had a marvellous effect in subduing any over-vivacious enforcement of their religious belief. The Bay men began more shrewdly. They were the same race, with the same beliefs, and just as much Separatists at heart as the Plymouth men. In their practical home administration they dropped the tie the moment they landed, with a quiet unanimity and promptness that is very suggestive; but by keeping up the nominal connection abroad with the English Puritans they secured a powerful support for half a century, which not only preserved their charter so long as that party had power, and gave a tacit assent to their legislation, but added materially to the tide of wealthy emigrants which their fertile soil drew upon them. The violent extremists were a minority in both colonies, but in Plymouth they were kept back, while at the Bay success unfortunately kept them in power and made them more violent. It was their prosperity and power rather than their religion that made the Bay men worse persecutors than the settlement beyond, and led them to go further than was necessary or wise.

Mr. Goodwin's book is in this way an answer to Dr. Ellis, for if the Plymouth Colony could prosper so well without persecution, the Bay men might also. The Puritans probably urged that it was not mere prosperity that they were after, but harmonious communion of the saints; but they did not get that anyway as it turned out. It is hardly necessary to say that the Plymouth Pilgrims did not tolerate crime because their legal position was so shaky. They followed the example of President Dunster, who, when he understood that there was no law punishing a burglary which a couple of Harvard students had committed, took them in hand paternally and administered a sound flogging. And they did not confine their punishment to what we think criminal nowadays. The stocks and the whipping-post were ready not only for the thieves and malefactors, but for those who reviled the clergy or stayed away

from public worship. Gorton's maid-servant, as Mr. Goodwin might have noted, was threatened with banishment as a common vagabond for smiling in church. On Cape Cod Bay as on Boston Harbor they wished to have

> "Men of God in courts and churches watch
> O'er such as do a toleration hatch."

They got rid of Gorton and Williams and others who urged dissent, and they sold their Indian captives into slavery with a cheerful eye to the main chance. They even passed the same severe laws against witches and Quakers as the other colonies did, but here they paused. They did not enforce them, and the witchcraft trials were total failures. They were a people of sound common sense, and one thing in that connection may well be noted: the utter failure of the community experiment. The colony would have perished if the salutary spurs of individual ownership and competition had not been restored; and they were wise enough to find it out in time and profit by the lesson.

ZOROASTRIAN LITERATURE.

The Zend Avesta. Part iii, the Yasna, Visparad, Afrînagân, Gâhs, and miscellaneous fragments, translated by L. H. Mills. [The Sacred Books of the East, vol. xxxi.] Oxford: at the Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 8vo. Pp. xlvii, 400.

THE fragments of the old Zoroastrian literature known as the 'Zend Avesta' may be divided into three groups, dealing with the religious and civil law, with the legendary law of Iran, and with the liturgy and metaphysics of Zoroastrianism. The first elements are embodied mainly in the 'Vendidad,' the next in the Yashts, and the last in the 'Yasna,' 'Visparad,' 'Afrînagân,' etc. The 'Vendidad' and the Yashts were translated for the series of the "Sacred Books of the East," by M. James Darmesteter of Paris (Parts i and ii making vols. iv and xxiii of the series); the present volume, containing the rest of the 'Avesta,' translated by Mr. L. H. Mills, brings the work to an end, and the student of Zoroastrianism will thus have in his hands all, or nearly all, of what remains of the sacred literature of the Parsis.

The 'Visparad' and half the 'Yasna' are liturgical books, the books of sacrifice (this is the meaning of Yasna); the other half of the 'Yasna' consists of the celebrated Gâthas or Hymns, which are the oldest and are considered to be the holiest part of the 'Avesta' and the very essence of Zoroastrianism; they are also the obscurest part of it. They have been translated in their entirety or in part more than once, and the passages are not many on which there is perfect agreement between any two of the translators.

The five Gâthas are five groups of hymns which have been arranged together according to the five different metres in which they are written. The language differs from that in the rest of the 'Avesta'; it is more archaic in its forms and its lexicon, and bears a closer affinity to the Vedic dialect. The contents are also of a different character, though the Gâthas are frequently quoted and their spirit breathes through all the sacred books. The 'Younger Avesta' possesses a rich mythology much like that of the Vedas, whereas the Gâthas have the severity and abstract character of a moral and dogmatic composition. Its main subjects are the idea of Dualism, the opposition of Ahura Mazda (Ormuzd), the Beneficent Spirit, to Ahriman, the Spirit of Destruction, the glorification of the former and the six Amshaspands, who are the divine impersonation of six of the highest abstractions of the moral, social, and material world; the permanent struggle of the two spirits, and the victory to come of the good one.

The difficulty of the Gâthas does not lie in the ideas expressed: they are nothing new to the Avesta student, as they permeate the whole of the 'Avesta'; it lies in the eccentric and artificial way in which these ideas are expressed. In this point, also, the Gâthas remind one of the Vedic phraseology; nothing is less simple, less natural than the style of the Vedas, those supposed strains of unaffected and spontaneous primitive poetry; nothing either less flowing or simple than the moral commonplaces in which the Gâtha poet unceasingly delights. He thinks that brevity is the essence of speech; half the grammatical helps are suppressed, and the idea is half uttered in an imperfect sentence meant to invest it with the mystery and majesty of an oracle. From the passages whose meaning is clear, one can see that the mystery is not in the idea itself, but in the voluntary imperfection of the grammar, in the archaism of forms and the number of ἅπαξ λεγόμενα. It follows also that the problem is not one to be given up in despair; it is a work of time, and the solution depends mainly on a patient comparison of the many tautologies with which these texts abound.

Mr. Mills is not unknown in this country, of which he is a citizen, though he has studied in Europe and now resides in Oxford. He was not originally trained as an Oriental scholar; he became one late in life by dint of energy, and he is a wonderful instance of what will and singleness of purpose may accomplish under not very favorable circumstances. Nearly fifteen years ago, being engaged in researches upon Gnosticism, he found himself obliged to study the Zoroastrian dualism, and especially the Gâthas. He set to work, and studied Zend; but no Zend text can be surely understood without the help of the traditional translations written in that enigmatic language, the Pehlvi, the study of which requires a knowledge of both the Aryan and Semitic family of languages. But from the Gâthas, the scholar drifts unavoidably to the Vedas, which alone can throw light upon many particularities of the language, and also upon the old groundwork of ideas which underlies the Zoroastrian edifice. Mr. Mills toiled for years through that heavy and obscure Pahlavi literature; he went to Munich, the richest library of Europe in Pehlvi books, to prepare an edition of the Gâthas which should contain the Zend text, the Pehlvi translation of the Zend, the Sanskrit and Persian translations of the Pehlvi; all these materials being given either in the original character or in Roman transliteration as well as in an English translation. Mr. Mills, with admirable zeal and disinterestedness, had his work privately printed and sent to the leading Zend scholars, asking for their advice and suggestions, and he passed several years in recasting it. We understand that this most useful encyclopædia of Gâthic literature has at last received its definitive form, and is about to be published with the aid of the East India Office. It is to be hoped that Mr. Mills will find also in his own country the additional support needed for this most important publication.

The present translation embodies the result of Mr. Mills's researches. As he himself very modestly acknowledges, it cannot be expected for a long time that any new translation of the Gâthas will command the approbation of all Zend scholars, both owing to the special nature of the Gâthas and also to the many divisions on points of theory which exist between the members of the Zend Brotherhood. All acquainted with the state of the Avesta studies know that for many years there was a fierce struggle between those who practically make Zend a mere dialect of Sanskrit, and the 'Avesta' a counterpart of the Vedas, and those who think that the Zoroastrian tradition does more to teach us about the meaning of the Zoroastrian texts than all the Vedas in the world. The latter view is now fast getting the upper hand; it may appear strange that its triumph was so long delayed, and it may be said that the ascendancy of the Vedic school of interpretation in Germany has been most injurious to Zend scholarship, and has delayed its progress for twenty years. We do not wish, of course, to ignore the valuable help that the 'Veda' may give to Zend philology, nor the indirect light it throws upon what may have been the pre-Zoroastrian state of Iranian thought; but it is clear as day that the actual meaning of the Zend language and Zoroastrian doctrine is to be sought for first of all on Iranian ground. That the Parsi tradition is not always reliable, that commentators are apt to subtilize and blunder here as elsewhere, cannot be doubted; but above the direct and conscious tradition embodied in the scholastic books, which may err, is heard the indirect, unconscious, and perfectly safe testimony of that objective tradition which reigns all through Zoroastrianism, from its oldest text to the most recent.

Mr. Mills has tried to steer between the Vedic craze and a tame acquiescence in tradition as found in the Pehlvi translations. It must be confessed that such acquiescence is not the easy thing it may seem, as the Pehlvi translation is not seldom as obscure as the original. That in spite of his long acquaintance with the Pehlvi tradition, Mr. Mills is no blind follower of it, is shown besides by more than one passage in which he boldly makes appeal to the Veda. It is principally in such passages, we confess, that we should differ from the learned translator. For instance, to suppose that the Zoroastrian Gâthas should have the slightest reference to the Vedic *aranis* (xxxi, 3) is to us out of the question; and this appeal to the Vedas is the more strange as here we have one of the few passages in which the traditional translation is easily understood, easily accounts for the text, and agrees with a long series of concording traditions. The passage refers to the ordeal of fire, and contains the revelation of the *Varnirang* so often alluded to through all the Parsi literature.

We have no space to enter into further details. Suffice it to say that no new translator of the Gâthas will do his work without taking Mr. Mills's translation into consideration, and that his collection of materials will be a boon to all Zend scholars. We understand that it is proposed to create for him a Zend readership at Oxford; we should welcome this recognition of the importance of Zend studies by the great English University, as well as of the services rendered to Zend philology by the admirable zeal, scholarly patience, and unflagging enthusiasm of our American scholar.

Hannah More. By Charlotte M. Yonge. [Famous Women Series.] Boston: Roberts Bros. 1888.

A REALLY interesting study of Hannah More might easily be made by treating her literary career as a part of what may be called "comparative literature"—literature considered in its relations to the general intellectual life of the age, and to the social conditions by which it is shaped. But Miss Yonge has preferred to give a simple narrative, and it must be said a

dull one, of the incidents of Mrs. More's life. She includes, of course, mention in some detail of her writings and of their reception by the public, but she dwells, as of more importance, on her practical labors for the poor. These labors were indeed admirable, and very remarkable for that day in the largeness of her scale of operations, but essentially possess only a personal interest, so to speak, and would need to be touched in a more dramatic spirit, and with more intimate sympathy, than in this volume to render them interesting. The motto of Miss Yonge's volume would fitly be a quotation from George Eliot, who, reading in her youth Mrs. More's Letters, wrote: "The contemplation of so blessed a character as hers is very salutary."

There might on the other hand be found much entertainment, and something even more valuable than entertainment, in tracing out the causes that made Garrick give his admired friend the name of "Nine"—as uniting all the nine Muses in one—and led to her now forgotten tragedy of "Percy" being highly extolled by the generation to which Sheridan belonged. At the moment that Johnson was writing the 'Lives of the Poets,' he was ready to cry out in a company discussing poetry, "Hush! hush! it is dangerous to say a word about poetry before her [H. M.]; it is talking of war before Hannibal."

When, at the age of forty, she published anonymously her first prose volume—a treatise whose suggestive title, 'Thoughts on the Importance of the Manners of the Great to General Society,' was well carried out by the good sense of its contents—it was as enthusiastically welcomed as her later productions. The second edition sold in a week, and the third in a morning. A few years later, a short and popular refutation of Paine, in the form of a half-humorous dialogue between village politicians, was, if we may believe Miss Yonge, circulated by hundreds of thousands of copies; and, previously, another pamphlet directed against the attacks on religion in the French National Assembly of 1792—the proceeds of whose sale she devoted with liberal and unsectarian benevolence to the benefit of the seven thousand emigrant French clergy in England—obtained two hundred and forty pounds.

Her next literary venture was the writing in company with her sisters—not less able women than herself—a number of stories, ballads, and religious readings, "tracts" for the uneducated. The well-known 'Shepherd of Salisbury Plain' is one of these, of which Wilberforce said that he would rather present himself before Heaven with the 'Shepherd' in his hand than with one of Scott's novels. Every one was reading the tracts, these "Cheap Repository Tracts." Their readers were not only those for whom they were intended, but the Duchess of Gloucester, and her uncle, the Earl of Orford (Walpole), and the Archbishop of Canterbury (Moore), and the Bishop of London (Porteus), and untitled Mason, the friend of Gray, and Dr. Wordsworth, the Master of Trinity, who pronounced them more "novelish and exciting" than was desirable. Two millions of these tracts were sold in one year.

Then came a volume called 'Strictures on Female Education,' which brought down upon Miss More an attack from Peter Pindar because of her views about poets, of whose band she no longer wished to be, in spite of Johnson having said (to Dr. Beattie) very solemnly that Miss More was "the most powerful versificatrix in the English language"—a tribute Miss Yonge has not recorded.

Not long after this time she had to meet the brunt of a more painful and widespread burst of abuse directed against her in consequence of her efforts to elevate the lower classes. Such sympathies were thought to savor of revolution, and the onslaught upon her was so furious and bitter that nine clergymen, among them the son of the Bishop of London and his chaplain, wrote pamphlets in her defence. The attack was even spoken of as "a national disgrace." She was in the ranks of no party. On one side she heard the bark of the *Anti-Jacobin Review*, and on the other felt the bite of a Jacobinian curate, who accused her, among other similar crimes, of being art and part with Charlotte Corday in the assassination of Marat, as a hireling of Pitt. She could laugh at this, but she must have laughed more gayly when at another time her book on 'Practical Piety' was abused by the "high Calvinists" on the ground, among others, that she called the sun *he*, as if she idolatrously believed in Phœbus Apollo.

Miss Yonge perhaps does not sufficiently sympathize with Miss More's liberality of mind to bring this quality into due prominence, and, especially, keeps rather in the background her intelligent interest in French matters and familiarity with French literature of the seventeenth century. It is possible Miss Yonge might hesitate to report the story Hannah More tells of herself, that one day Dr. Johnson "reproved me with pretended sharpness for reading 'Les Pensées de Pascal,' alleging that, as a good Protestant, I ought to abstain from books written by Catholics. I was beginning to stand upon my defence, when he took me with both hands, and, with a tear running down his cheek, 'Child,' said he, with the most affecting earnestness, 'I am heartily glad that you read pious books, by whomsoever they may be written.'"

It was not only piousness, but excellence of all kinds that Hannah More was quick to discover and to value wherever she found it, and it is this kindly simplicity of her intelligence, her good-hearted openness of mind, that still keeps her memory green. She liked 'Don Quixote' as well as Pascal, and read both in alternation with the 'Arabian Nights,' 'Tom Jones,' and the Greek tragedians. She was eager that her little friend "Tommy" Macaulay should "become a complete Frenchman," that she might give him the works of Racine. Of 'Corinne' she says, "Like *Pistol*, I swallowed and execrated, yet I went on swallowing. . . . There never was such a book—such a compound of genius and bad taste." When her own 'Cœlebs in Search of a Wife' was translated into French, Mme de Staël, in her turn, "swallowed," and probably execrated while praising; but her praise can hardly have echoed the phrase, "a compound of genius and bad taste."

Some of Miss More's other works had also the honor of translation—oddly enough, into Cingalese and Tamil; and it is interesting to know that several of the "Cheap Repository Tracts" were widely circulated in Russia. 'Cœlebs' was translated into German, as well as French, which Miss Yonge does not mention. Before her death, too, she could merrily exclaim, "I have conquered America!"—and traces of her conquest may be yet observed.

Colchester. By the Rev. Edward L. Cutts, B.A. [Historic Towns. Edited by E. A. Freeman and William Hunt.] Longmans. 1888. 8vo, pp. xii, 219.

THE first four chapters of this book are devoted to the Roman period of Colchester history. The author is evidently afflicted with a mild form of what Madox, in one of his manuscripts in the British Museum, calls "the Roman dance," which has prevailed in England since Camden's day. Within the past decade or two, there have been some indications that the local historians of England are trying to get rid of this disease, whose chief symptoms, in the acute stage, consist in futile excursions on the etymology of the name of the town, rambling disquisitions concerning sundry pots, fibulas, and other Roman antiquities found in or near the city, and the inference, founded thereon, that the town in question was exceedingly ancient, manifestly the long-lost Calleva or Camulodunum. Such excellent recent works as Hedges's 'Wallingford' (1881) and Tomlinson's 'Doncaster' (1887) show that the "Roman dance" has not yet ceased to afflict England. We do not wish to disparage the value of such discussions, when, as in the case of Mr. Cutts's book, they are rationally conducted. We merely emphasize the fact that in a volume on the general history of Colchester, a quarter of the whole work ought not to be devoted to so small and comparatively unimportant a part of the subject, even though the lineage of the town may be traced back to the "oppidum of the Trinobantes," the royal abode of Cymbeline, and the "Colonia" of Claudius.

The only other chapters that are open to much censure are the two on "municipal government" and "jurisdictions." The latter contains more antiquarian gossip than local constitutional history. There is no work in existence that gives us a clear idea of the nature of the mediæval municipal courts of England, their relation to each other and to the crown. Surely, the historian of a town, in treating of its judicature, should at least furnish us with an enumeration of the different burghal courts, the extent of their jurisdiction, the frequency of their sittings, and the titles of the presiding officers. But we seek in vain for this information not merely in the book before us, but also in most English local histories.

In discussing the municipal government of Colchester, the author speaks of the civic courts as something wholly distinct from the meetings of the burgesses for the management of the local polity. Then, after making some dubious conjectures concerning the burghal officers, he goes on to say: "Here we have the germ of the municipal institutions which it is the business of this chapter briefly to sketch" (pp. 135, 136). It is not at all clear what "here" refers to; he presents nothing tangible enough to be called the germ of the municipal constitution. The latter is, in fact, to be sought in the burghal judicature, which constituted the nucleus of the town assemblies and other municipal institutions.

But, regarded as a whole, Mr. Cutts's book is one of the best of the series. Chapters xii and xvii are particularly well worked up; they contain much valuable information, and afford some vivid glimpses of the every-day life of the mediæval burgesses of Colchester.

History of New York City: Embracing an outline sketch of events from 1609 to 1830, and a full account of its development from 1830 to 1884. By Benson J. Lossing, LL.D. A. S. Barnes & Co. 8vo, pp. 881.

The Story of the City of New York. By Charles Burr Todd. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 12mo, pp. 478.

The Story of New York. By Elbridge S. Brooks. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 8vo, pp. 311.

EACH new history of New York makes it more and more incontestable that the coöperative plan employed by Mr. Winsor in the case of Boston can alone produce anything satisfactory here. The works of Valentine, Booth,

Stone, and Lamb are defective either in completeness or in essential qualities of grasp, proportion, accuracy, and style. Mr. Lossing's is open to the latter criticism, and purposely subordinates the political to the social and material phases of the city's history during the period on which he specially dwells, and which, by the way, is that of his own acquaintance by contact with New York. Mr. Lossing is a chronicler and an antiquarian, rather than an historian, and his narrative is formless and scrappy to the last degree. We are not surprised that no table of contents is provided; it would have implied a scheme of orderly arrangement of which there is very little beyond the chronological division. Instead of being oppressed by the wealth of his materials, Mr. Lossing could allow two pages (pp. 394–397) to a "remarkable poem" on the changes in New York in the first half of the present century, and eight pages (pp. 247–254) to "a remarkable poetical contribution" to the *Mirror*, which are neither remarkable nor poetical, and have no place whatever in a serious historical review. They illustrate, however, perfectly, Mr. Lossing's conception of his task. The footnotes are largely given up to biographical sketches. Nearly two pages are allotted to each of the following persons: Tweed, Cornelius Vanderbilt, J. W. Francis, C. D. Fredericks, and Judge Daly, and a page to a page and a half is not uncommon. It may be judged, therefore, how large a portion of the volume is consumed in this manner—not the least useful, we admit. The principle of selection, however, in these sketches is as mysterious as in the portraits.

We should be glad if we could vouch for Mr. Lossing's punctiliousness in such information as he chooses to give, but we cannot. He ought not to spell the poet's name "John Pierrepont" (p. 251); he should not say, as on p. 330, that the American Anti-Slavery Society was founded in Philadelphia on December 30, 1833, December 6 being the true date. His statement on the same page as to William Jay's hand in framing the Constitution of that society is unsupported by evidence, and is incredible, seeing that Judge Jay was not present at the founding, and that the so-called essential declarations of policy flowed from the Declaration of Sentiments, which was wholly the work of Garrison. Moreover, the New York abolitionists had to be gently constrained by the latter to go to Philadelphia at all. But it would be idle to push further our critical examination of this ponderous book, of which the most that can be said is, that it supplements to some extent other histories but little more commendable.

Mr. Todd, who acknowledges having had the advantage of using the foregoing work, ends his history where Mr. Lossing begins his, *i. e.*, with the year 1830. Mr. Todd says he has "adopted the view of most scholars, that history ceases fifty years back of the present time, contemporary record taking its place"; but we must say that we have never heard this view advanced, unless by the "scholars" of Chautauqua who have persuaded the Rev. Edward Everett Hale to draw the line in his manual at the war of 1812. Neither Miss Martineau, nor Kinglake, nor Justin McCarthy, nor Thiers, nor Louis Blanc, nor Karl Hillebrand, nor Treitschke, nor, in the case of our own country, Botta, Von Holst, the Comte de Paris, McMaster, Schouler, has acted upon it. Moreover, all the political lessons derivable from the history of New York city are to be sought in the past sixty years—the era of mobs, of rowdy political clubs, of rings, and, as against these, of incessant struggle to maintain a healthy municipal existence with the most mixed population in any civilized community, and with a defective civic pride and consciousness and continuity. Mr. Todd does touch a little on these topics—as a chronicler, he would say—for he gives a chapter, mildly denominated "The Mouse in the Cheese," to Tweed's doings, and draws "the moral of it." But his outlook is mainly material and social. His subdivisions are good, but "The Free City" is an ill-chosen title for the last. New York was never that, except in the traitorous dreams of Fernando Wood. Mr. Todd's narrative is agreeable and thoroughly readable. More might have been told in the same compass, but he has, we presume consciously, disregarded proportion in favor of picturesqueness.

Mr. Brooks's volume opens as if designed for youthful readers, but one quickly finds that the serious preface is a truer indication of the author's intention. A philosophical treatment has seemed to him at once best and within his grasp, and to it he sacrifices freely the details which distinguish and enliven Mr. Todd's annals. Two works on the same subject, and occupying about the same space on the shelf, could hardly furnish a greater contrast in their conception and execution. Mr. Brooks gives 52 pages of large type to the period before the English conquest of New Amsterdam; Mr. Todd gives 96 of smaller, besides a chapter of 36 pages on the social and domestic life of the Dutch colony. Mr. Brooks asserts, with quite as much positiveness as the evidence warrants, a Spanish occupation or exploration a century before Hudson's arrival. With equal positiveness he finds a Spanish etymology for the name Manhattan. He speaks of "the questionable discoveries of Verazzano." Mr. Todd ignores the Spanish claim, identifies the name of the island with that of the Indian tribe inhabiting it, and asserts that "Verrazano was, therefore, the first European to discover and sail into the city of New York." Mr. Brooks, again, sums up Peter Minuit as "a self-willed and self-seeking adventurer." Mr. Todd more charitably says: "Of the four Governors of New York under the Dutch dynasty, none are worthier of kindly remembrance than Peter Minuit."

But we will not pursue the parallel on this line. Mr. Brooks makes up for his generalizations by appending "the story of New York told in chronological epitome," in a very handy form. He gives, too, the Constitution of the State of New York, and a bibliography. Mr. Todd has also his appendices—one chronological, another a list of mayors. Both works are illustrated—Mr. Todd's much the more usefully; and he alone provides maps.

An Explanatory Digest of Professor Fawcett's 'Manual of Political Economy.' By Cyril Waters, B.A. Macmillan & Co. 1888.

THIS little book suggests an essay upon the advance which has been made in political economy since Professor Fawcett published his 'Manual' in 1863. Professor Fawcett represented the orthodoxy of that day. He was a disciple of Mill, and the master represented "progressive orthodoxy" even more than did the disciple. Mr. Waters is a disciple of Mr. Fawcett, and in the book before us he has conscientiously refrained from showing that he has either learned or forgotten anything of serious importance. On page 3, for instance, we find the famous proposition that "a demand of commodities is not a demand for labor," as if a farmer did not furnish food to support the same amount of labor whether he uses his wheat to buy carriages or buy carts. On page 13 we find a statement of the wage-fund theory which would suggest that the author had read neither General Walker nor Henry George. It is stated baldly that "the rate of wages depends upon the ratio between capital and population at any time, and is regulated by it." There is no intimation that the productiveness of the labor has anything to do with the question. Had the law been examined in the light of statistics, it would have been seen at once that the ratio of capital to population is double as great in England as in Iowa, while wages are much less. However, the absence of such statistical examination was characteristic of the political economy of a generation ago, and Mr. Waters is perhaps not to be blamed that he has not improved upon the methods of his masters.

There is, however, one feature of his book for which Mr. Waters is to be blamed, and that is its abominable "Mnemonic Rhymes." For example (page 14):

> "In every trade or business, wages vary, don't you see?
> As that trade or business pleasant or unpleasant still may be,
> And as with ease and cheapness, or with trouble and expense,
> Such trade or business may be learnt, and this is common sense,"

etc., etc.

Were these rhymes as good as they are bad, it would still be difficult to express the sentiments aroused by an attempt to teach political economy by means of them.

Wit, Wisdom, and Pathos from the prose of Heinrich Heine, with a few pieces from the 'Book of Songs.' Selected and translated by J. Snodgrass. 2d ed. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. 1888. 8vo, pp. 338.

THIS book, of which the first edition was published in 1879, but which was not put upon the American market until now, is well worth reading, especially by those to whom Heine is not accessible in the original. It is fuller than the small volume of 'Scintillations' put forth fifteen years ago by Mr. Simon Stern of Philadelphia, and the extracts are longer. They are, indeed, long enough to afford some idea of the exuberant wealth of wit, humor, fancy, wisdom, sentiment, and learning scattered with a lavish hand all through the writings of Heine, not excepting mere pot-boilers, such as newspaper correspondence and the like. The 'Reisebilder' is, it is true, enjoyable by English readers in the translation of Mr. Charles Godfrey Leland, made a generation ago; but the remaining prose works are to them a sealed book, except for the glimpses vouchsafed by the present volume.

The translation is, in the main, satisfactory, being close enough to satisfy the requirements of fidelity, but not so literal as to smother the spirit of the original. How easy it is for the most practised writer to stumble in rendering the simplest sentence from one language into another, may be seen in Matthew Arnold's Essay on Heine, when he quotes as follows: "The Englishman loves liberty like his lawful wife, the Frenchman loves her like his *mistress*, the German loves her like his old grandmother." The word here rendered as "mistress" is, in the original, "Braut," and Mr. Snodgrass correctly translates it "bride." Another instance may be found in an essay by George Eliot in the *Westminster Review* for January, 1856, where Heine is made to speak of himself as a young man of one-and-twenty, while Mr. Snodgrass correctly has it two-and-twenty. It is curious to remark that in the French edition of Heine, authorized by him, and published under his eye, we read, "jeune homme de *vingt ans*," making a discrepancy of one year more than George Eliot's version. In the same

passage George Eliot translates: "So you want a bonus for having taken care of your sick mother, and refrained from poisoning your *worthy* brother?" Mr. Snodgrass gives us: "You think, then, that you should have a gratuity for tending your sick mother, or for not poisoning your *elder* brother?" Heine's phrase is "Ihren *Herrn* Bruder," and *worthy* is a decided intensification of Heine's irony, while *elder* is simply a mistake; "gratuity" is a more correct rendering than "bonus" of the original "Trinkgeld."

Mr. Snodgrass is not as successful with Heine's verse as he is with his prose. The most that can be said in his favor is, that he does as well as is possible for one who is not himself a poet. His versions are, perhaps, not inferior to those of other amateurs, like his countryman, Professor Blackie, or our own James Freeman Clarke, but they will not compare with the spirited work of Emma Lazarus. Like the last two, Mr. Snodgrass has himself passed away, since this edition was brought out.

Ignorant Essays. By Richard Dowling. D. Appleton & Co. 1888.

MR. DOWLING appears to be a person of literary enthusiasms, and the subject of his "ignorant essays" is his own "fads." He seems to have been affected by modesty when he selected his title, but there is no other evidence that he possesses that virtue. He expresses his opinion with a largeness of phrase that intimates his entire belief in himself; in fact, he does no more than "rave," like a college student over his favorite books. Enthusiasm, however, is not unpleasant to witness when it assumes so naïve a form. What he has to say is not criticism—his statements have no other charm than a boyish abundance of literary spirits; but it is something to be able to maintain the high temperature of a youthful adoration for Keats, De Quincey, and Mangan into the mature years of cold judgment. When Mr. Dowling is not enthusiastic, he is either clever or humorous—such cleverness as consists in naming "the two best books" as Nuttall's 'Standard Dictionary' and 'Whitaker,' out of which he makes a whole essay, and such humor as we can best illustrate by his remarks upon ourselves, alias "Uncle Sam":

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So he goes on for pages to inform us that our literature has begun with burlesques and blasphemies exclusively, inasmuch as "Emerson, Bryant, Cooper, Poe, Hawthorne, Lowell, Holmes, and Irving are merely Europeans born in America," whereas "Ward, Harte, Twain, and Breitmann are original and American." Such humor, such cleverness, and such boiling enthusiasm as we have indicated make up a volume not inaptly named.

Histoire du Plébiscite. Par Charles Borgeaud. Le Plébiscite dans l'antiquité: Grèce et Rome. Geneva: H. Georg.

IN view of the fact that democracy is gaining a stronger foothold among civilized nations, M. Borgeaud feels justified in attempting a history of the part played by the people in the making of laws, the evolution of mass-meeting legislation. The volume before us treats of the ancient plébiscite, particularly that of Sparta, Athens, and Rome.

Contrasting the idea of law which prevailed at the beginning of history with that of to-day—then the voice of deity, uttered from the clouds and interpreted by priests; now the act of men, the result of reasoning and debate—the author asks for the reason of this change, and finds it in the history of the plébiscite. While some would place the transition in the rise of democracy in Athens, he finds a peculiar field for this evolution also in Rome. By a subtle operation of the mind, which we can scarcely appreciate, the Romans, without losing their supreme reverence for oracular utterances, began to take divine ordinances under human revision when these did not agree with popular desires. With the rise of the *plebs* and the introduction of the *plebiscitum* began a method of legislation which came to be regarded as coordinate, as *lex inauspicata*, till, finally, under the great jurists, law came to be defined as "that which the people commands and ordains." While the plébiscite of the ancients was quite different from the modern idea, and the proportion of people participating very small, yet its operation affected legislation in a manner parallel to that of humanism in religion and philosophy.

The student of politics will feel indebted to M. Borgeaud for his succinct yet entertaining treatment of this subject, and will await with interest the remainder of the work.

Madame de Sévigné. By Gaston Boissier. 8vo, pp. 205.—*George Sand.* By E. Caro. 8vo, pp. 235. Translated by Melville B. Anderson, translator of Hugo's 'Shakespeare.' [The Great French Writers.] Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1888.

THESE volumes in the original having been noticed at length by our Paris correspondent, it needs only to be said here that they are well translated, and that they have the meritorious quality of reading like translations. While he is never betrayed into the use of French idioms, Mr. Anderson follows his authors so closely and accurately that the character of the form continues to harmonize with the character of the thought—an effect too little aimed at by translators. This result is furthered rather than hindered occasionally by a felicitously free translation of a new word or phrase. In such passages Mr. Anderson seems, either by labor or by luck, to have found the very expression the author would have used had he been writing in English. The only criticism to be made is on the translation of the poetical passages which occur here and there. Mr. Anderson is evidently not an easy versifier, and his readers should be assured that he does but scant justice to poor Coulanges and the other *chansonniers* of his day.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arabian Nights. (Classics for Children.) Boston: Ginn & Co.
Curran, J. E. Miss Frances Merley. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. 50 cents.
Denslow, V. B. Principles of the Economic Philosophy of Society, Government, and Industry. Cassell & Co. $3.50.
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Goldsmith's Plays: The Good-Natured Man; She Stoops to Conquer. London: Geo. Bell & Sons; New York: Scribner & Welford.
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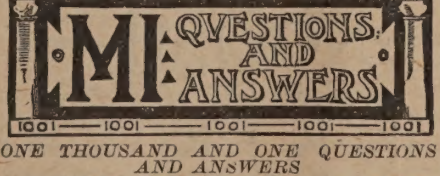

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 19, 1888.

The Week.

THE country is to be congratulated on the unanimity with which the Democrats stood by their determination to make the importation of wool free to our manufacturers. The wool duty is, from every point of view, perhaps the least defensible of all the conflicting and injurious provisions of our tariff scheme. Its history has been a continuous history of logrolling and of intimidation of the legislators of the nation by the representatives of special interests. As to its intrinsic merits, no rational theory of protection can justify the imposition of a protective tax on this product of the most primitive of industries, a tax which is a vexation and hindrance to manufacturers as well as a burden upon the whole population as consumers. If this opinion needed any confirmation, it might be found in the fact that though Germany, France, and Austria maintain protective tariffs, and are also wool-growing countries, they impose no duty on wool. We do not believe that high duties on it could ever have been imposed here had it not been for the constant political pressure exercised by the wool-growers, and the "deals" they have been able to effect with the woollen manufacturers. It is interesting to note that on the last day of the debate a letter was read from President Whitman, of the National Association of Woollen Manufacturers, protesting against the relief of his industry from a tax upon its raw material. This is quite in keeping with the history of the wool duty. But Mr. Whitman might profit by reading the extremely cogent and admirably sustained argument which he himself, in the name of his Association, submitted to the Secretary of the Treasury in 1885. We have nowhere seen the cause of free wool more ably advocated, or the burdensomeness of the wool duty to all classes and interests more clearly set forth.

The debate on the rice duty, like that on the sugar duty, shows an interesting condition of mind on the part of the Republican members. They manifest an extraordinary desire to look into the merits of the case in regard to these two Southern products, and consequently develop very contradictory opinions. The only way to avoid such differences is to stick to every duty through thick and thin, which is the policy formally adopted by the Chicago platform. Mr. Hopkins of Illinois argued that the duties should be made lower, because "the statistics show that no business North or South pays any better than the cultivation of rice," and he stated that the production was now fifty per cent. greater than before the war. Then it was pointed out by a Southern member that this was an error, Mr. Hopkins having accidentally got the ante-bellum figure wrong by just one hundred million pounds, so that in reality there has been a decline of about thirty per cent. And, sure enough, a little further on in the debate, up rises Mr. Bayne and indignantly asks whether the consumers of rice are to be taxed at a high rate for the benefit of a small and retrograding industry. But why bother about the consumer, or go into details of more or less? Has not the Chicago platform given you the simple rule that every protective duty is to be retained, or, if it must be modified to reduce the surplus, it is to be raised to the prohibitory point?

Another respect in which the Republican treatment of the sugar and rice questions contrasts with their treatment of the other items of the bill is, that they talk about the total rate of duty in these cases, and not about the reduction from the present rate. In the case of every other item in the bill they clamor against the slightest reduction, on the plea of its destructive effect upon those engaged in the industries affected. Now, the Mills bill does not commit the inconsistency of leaving the sugar and rice duties untouched; it reduces both of them something like 18 per cent. It may be held that the reductions proposed in the bill are not sufficient; but it is absurd, and especially so for high-tariff men, to estimate the justice of the proposition by considering simply the total rate of duty. The Mills bill is not a free-trade measure; it is a very moderate and conservative measure for the reduction of the present tariff. Mr. Elliott of South Carolina did well to remind the Republicans that "it is a condition we are confronting, not a theory," and that the condition in this case was a duty of something like 113 per cent. imposed by Republican legislation.

An element of picturesqueness is occasionally infused into the tedious discussion of economic questions by Mr. Nelson of Minnesota, whose evident American patriotism does not prevent him from feeling a pride in his Norse ancestors and his hardy Norwegian kinsmen of to-day. In the steamship-subsidy debate the other day, Mr. Nelson began a little speech by saying that he had not intended to take part in the debate, but that while listening to it "thoughts came into his mind of what great navigators his ancestors had been, and what great navigators their descendants still are." He told what high rank the merchant marine of Norway holds, it being next in magnitude to that of the United States, although Norway has a population of less than two millions. He ridiculed the notion that our ocean shipping was in its present low state on account of the operations of rebel cruisers twenty-five years ago, and mentioned that when those cruisers were causing our ship-owners to sell their vessels at a sacrifice, "hundreds of them were purchased by that little country of Norway, and used in her commerce, although she had as good and ample material for shipbuilding and as good ship-carpenters as you had." And it was with evident pride that Mr. Nelson replied to a Republican member who asked why they bought them: "They bought them because they could buy them cheaper, under those peculiar circumstances, than they could make them at home, and because they had the privilege of buying them," whereas with us "the trouble is, you have put the American merchant marine in a sort of strait jacket."

Senator Hoar has made an elaborate attack on the Fisheries Treaty, which he calls "a speech," but which is in reality an essay, filling a pamphlet of sixty pages, and containing a history of the American fisheries from the earliest times. We need hardly say that it contains very little that is new, which is no discredit to Senator Hoar, considering what thorough discussion the subject has undergone. He makes one new charge against the Administration, that it refused or failed to communicate the proposals and counter-proposals made while the Commission was in session. To which Mr. Bayard replies that it is absolutely untrue; that no record of the proceedings was kept except the daily protocols drawn up by the Secretary, which were transmitted to the Senate when called for in March of this year. When one extricates the Senator's main complaint from the mass of historical matter that envelops it, it is found to be simply the old one that the Canadians will not allow Americans to carry on the fish trade from Canadian ports. American fishermen wish not only to fish in Canadian waters, and to enter Canadian ports for wood, food, and repairs, but to enter them for any purpose whatever, or, in other words, to enter them both as fishing and trading vessels. The Canadians offer these privileges in return for the free admission of their fish and fish oil to our ports. This Senator Hoar treats as an impudent proposal, and he is not only angry with Secretary Bayard for listening to it, but for failing to override it by threats. No arrangement with Canada will satisfy him, or even be accepted by him as worthy of discussion, which does not compel the Canadians to share with Americans all the advantage and profits of their home fisheries.

Of course, this seems, on its surface, fair enough. But it is in reality most disingenuous. There are no fisheries on our coast in which the Canadians ask to be allowed to share or to fit out in Boston or Gloucester to carry on. When they come to our ports, they come simply as trading vessels with a commodity to sell. They do not seek to make our coast the basis of their fishing operations. In denying them access to American ports, we should, therefore, be denying them privileges accorded to all the world in order to punish them for refusing to let us share in something in which we do not deny them rights of property. The vicinity of fish-

ing grounds is an advantage of the nature of property to the inhabitants of the coast. It would doubtless be churlish to refuse to allow foreigners to share it on any terms. But the Canadians do not do this. They say, "You may share all our advantages; your fishing vessels may enter our ports for any purpose, if you will give us free access to your markets." Sooner than accede to this, however, Mr. Hoar is ready to go to war. To him a proposal from a foreigner that we should take off an import duty on anything, has a savor of impudence about it like a proposal to commit some act of dishonesty or indecency, and he would punish it if he could. He quotes in the opening of the essay Burke's picture of the energy and success of the New England fishermen, and then goes on, with much fuming and fretting, to furnish an excellent illustration of that admirable saying of the same orator, that "a great empire and little minds go ill together."

It is difficult to tell whether the attempts of the Chicago *Tribune* to become reconciled with the programme which its party has this year laid down for itself partake more of the pathetic or the ridiculous. Its repudiation of the ultra-protection plank of the platform is complete, but it is exercising all of its ingenuity to find some way to excuse its support of the ticket on that platform. Its latest attempt takes the form of an argument to prove that the recent National Convention at Chicago had no right to speak for the party. It calls the free-whiskey utterance the "blunder or trick of a platform committee," and lays down the proposition that "a convention called as the agent of an existing political organization with well-known principles and policies must act within its commission, and perform only the specific duties intrusted to it," comparing such a convention to a church synod or conference. It is hardly worth while, perhaps, to argue against so ridiculous a proposition. A political convention is made up of delegates who are chosen just as much to adopt a platform as they are to nominate a ticket. There is, in fact, no other existing authority to set forth the party's principles. "A party's platform can only be changed," says the *Tribune*, "by consent of its members." The *Tribune* has announced that its way of withholding its consent to the free-whiskey platform is going to be to sustain the candidates who have been placed on that platform, and who have in their informal acceptances of their nominations signified their commendation of the doctrines held out to them, and will, of course, do so more explicitly in their formal letters of acceptance. The *Tribune* knows perfectly well that the only way the people can manifest their condemnation of a political platform is to defeat at the polls the candidates selected to put that platform into effect.

The woman suffragists appear to have a strong case against Judge Nash of Washington Territory, who recently declared the act giving women the right to vote in that Territory unconstitutional. He took the ground that when Congress, in the organic act, granted the Territorial Legislature the right to confer suffrage, it did not expect the Legislature ever to confer it upon women, and therefore that no Territory can grant its women a right to vote unless it can be shown that a majority of Congress believed in woman suffrage at the time when they conferred upon the Territory the power to regulate suffrage within its borders. This would be a weak position at best, in view of the fact that three Territories have granted suffrage to women without any question of their power being raised, and that the women of Wyoming have been voting for nearly twenty years; and the opinion loses all claim to respect in view of the experience of Utah. It will be remembered that when Congress two years ago wanted to deprive the women of that Territory of suffrage, it inserted a special section in an act, thereby admitting that the Territorial Legislature had been within its right in granting them the ballot, in the absence of Congressional prohibition of such action, and that the theory of such action being unconstitutional was absurd.

Our Consul at Amsterdam calls attention in a recent report to an interesting movement which has been started in Holland in the shape of an association called "The Foreign Country." This society has been organized by a number of the most prominent merchants and manufacturers of Holland, and by other influential citizens, with a view to keeping up the commercial rank of Holland in competition with the more powerful nations which are now so greatly enlarging their distant markets. The advantage which England and Germany have over Holland "is chiefly due," says the circular of the Association, "to the fact that both these countries possess in the principal markets of the world commercial establishments, entertaining direct intercourse with the mother country. By this means trade and navigation with the English and Germans are constantly stimulated, and their industry is kept informed by countrymen about the wants and requirements of other nations, and obtains fresh opportunities for the sale of its productions." With a view to supplementing the deficient opportunities of the Dutch in these respects, the Association "intends to procure, through personal influence of the members and by the interference of our consuls, for such young men as it shall think fit, appointments with commercial counting-houses in trans-Atlantic places." The Association intends to pay the travelling expenses of these young men, and give them such other pecuniary assistance as may seem necessary, with the understanding that the beneficiaries shall feel themselves morally bound to return the money when they are in a position to do so, and the money so returned will be again employed for the same purpose. We have no doubt that the energetic merchants of Holland will push this scheme of commercial fellowships with vigor, and it will be interesting to observe its development. But why not first try our plan of giving the foreign consulships to broken-down politicians, men with weak lungs in search of a warm climate, drunkards, ne'er-do-weels whom their friends want to get rid of, and active stump orators?

The London *Economist* has been making very severe strictures upon the mode in which the budget for India is determined. It has complained that the estimates are very loose, being made, in accordance with custom based on the provisions of an old law, some weeks earlier than it is possible to arrive at an accurate knowledge of the returns for the closing year. It also urges that there is no effective outside control over the financial administration of India. "The British Parliament is supposed to exercise supervision and control; but although this is the theory, every one knows that in practice Parliament never devotes more than a few hours at the fag end of a session to the consideration of the Indian budget, and then scrambles through the discussion in the most perfunctory and superficial fashion." In the issue of July 7, from which we have been quoting, the *Economist* writer, in replying to a defence of the Indian administration against his charges, made in an official communication by E. J. Sinkinson, one of the Secretaries of the Indian Government, handles Mr. Sinkinson without gloves; but at the same time the high position which the British civil-service system occupies in the public estimation is signally illustrated. After saying that the £70,000,000 of Indian taxation are "spent according to the virtually uncontrolled discretion of a handful of Government officials, there being not even an independent non-official audit of accounts," it is no small compliment for a severe critic to add: "That these officials are a body of honest and honorable men, filled with a sense of their responsibility, and striving earnestly to promote the best interests of the people of India, every one acknowledges. Still they are only human, and prone to err; and it is in the very nature of things that absence of control leads to laxness, and the growing up of practices that are apt to develop into abuses."

Frances Power Cobbe, discussing in the last number of the *Contemporary Review* the effect of scientific views of life on religious thought, mentions as an illustration the growing love of medical publications among the young of both sexes, and the growing interest in surgical operations. This brings her, naturally enough, to the practice which has sprung up within a few years among the doctors, and is particularly common in this country, of describing the patient's condition in detail in their daily "bulletins" when he happens to be a distinguished or well-known man. Formerly the bulletin used to be simply a statement of the patient's condition, whether better or worse, more or less hopeful, than the previous day. Now the attending physicians insert the reasons for their conclu-

sions in the shape of accounts of the patient's temperature, and of the working of various internal organs — stuff, in short, which is of no earthly value to the public, simply satisfies the disgusting curiosity of a low class of newspaper readers, and ought to be confined to the nurse's record. The bulletin, too, is now signed by a larger number of doctors than it used to be. Formerly the principal physician told over his signature all the public needed to know. Nowadays a bulletin without four or five names to it seems to carry little weight. In fact, the multiplicity of signatures has a most unpleasant look of advertising. It produces the impression that the head doctor is trying to give as many of his brethren as possible a chance to get their names before the public in a conspicuous way. The general result is, as Miss Cobbe truly remarks, that—

> "The last recollection which the present generation will retain of many an illustrious statesman, poet, or soldier will not be that he died like a hero or saint, bravely, or piously, but that he swallowed such and such a medicine, and was perhaps sick at his stomach. Deathbeds are desecrated that doctors may be puffed and public inquisitiveness assuaged."

Those who remember the bulletins issued during President Garfield's and Gen. Grant's illness, and those of some others more recently, will think this a very mild way of putting it. The bulletins are not the worst of the matter, however. The interviews of the reporters with the physicians are a distinct aggravation, because they always contain fresh particulars—that is, a great deal of diagnosis and prognosis thrown into a popular, and sometimes a humorous form, to which the reporter gives as many journalistic touches as are necessary to make a thoroughly nasty mess. Has not the question an ethical side, which deserves the attention of the Medical Associations? Ought not the doctors to be restrained in the composition and publication of bulletins, as they are now in the matter of advertising themselves by periodicals or by hand-bills?

The proposal of the English Ministry to furnish a commission of judges to try the *Times's* charges against Parnell seems to be most reasonable and well-advised. A commission of English judges is probably the best tribunal for such a purpose that it would be possible to devise, and its decision would be accepted as the best obtainable, by the whole civilized world. The *Times* would of course prefer a London jury, but every fair-minded Englishman appreciates the force of the objections which the Parnellites make to an action at law, restricted by rules of legal evidence, and tried before a body of this kind. The Parnellites will now seek to exclude from the consideration of the Commission everything but the authenticity of the letters indicating complicity with assassins which the *Times* attributes to Parnell, while the *Times* seeks to have all the charges it makes in its pamphlet, "Parnellism and Crime," laid before it. The letters are, however, the only thing a sensible man need feel called on to answer. The rest of the pamphlet is an ordinary "campaign document," full of vague insinuation, forced inference, and ingenious collocation, all seasoned with the regular journalistic abuse. It would hardly be possible to get a bench of judges to agree to wade through it.

Nothing in our day could better illustrate the hold which the journalistic superstition has on the modern mind than the importance which the British public attaches to the *Times's* charges. They are really made, and believed in with knowledge, so far as is known, simply by the editor, Mr. Buckle, an obscure young man, formerly an assistant editor, and Mr. Walter, the proprietor, an elderly and dull country squire without any personal weight or influence. If the cry were, "Buckle and Walter believe Parnell was an accomplice of assassins," nobody would pay much attention to it, and most people would be amused by it. But by calling Buckle and Walter "the *Times*," the charges assume in Englishmen's minds great gravity, and compel the Government actually to organize a special tribunal to try them. Respect for the *Times*, without regard to the kind of men who are behind it, is really a discredit to a civilized nation in our day. It is a conversion of the cylinder press into a sort of fetish, such as an African chief would undoubtedly make of it, but of which men in broadcloth ought to be ashamed.

The influence of the Floquet-Boulanger duel on French politics, odd as it may seem to us, is likely to be very great. Floquet has shown himself a powerful and skilful debater in the Chambers, and has made mincemeat of poor Boulanger whenever he took the floor; but the French public does not expect a "brave général" to be much of an orator, and it does not discredit him seriously to be worsted in encounters of the tongue with an "avocat"—a well-known term of contempt in French military circles. To be worsted in a duel with swords, however, with an avocat considerably his senior—in fact, not far from sixty years old—is something which they are not likely to forgive in a soldier. Rochefort, who is an extremely French Frenchman, probably expressed the popular feeling very correctly in saying, as is reported: "How wonderful! The youngest general in the army let himself be pinked by a barrister nearly sixty years old!" In other words, whether Boulanger gets well or not, we have probably seen the last of him as a politician, and the Republic will be greatly fortified by having in one way or another disposed of a military pretender who at one time seemed dangerous.

The peculiar circumstances attending the reëlection of President Diaz will freshly warn Americans against reading their own political ideas into the Mexican political forms. The fact that a man could be elected President without having ever said that he would accept the office, without ever having been formally nominated, or having put forth a declaration of principles and purposes, or having one put forth for him by a party whose representative he had been chosen to be, is enough of itself to show how hollow is the pretence of popular elections in Mexico. And when we add to this the fact that the legislative power has been renewed in the same underground manner that has marked the choice of the Executive, so that it can be said of the new Congressmen that their "politics are mostly unknown," we see how impotent universal suffrage may be. In fact, the necessary preliminaries to a real election by the people are wanting in Mexico. The country does not know what a political party is, in our sense of the word. The only thing approaching a party platform known to Mexicans is the pronunciamiento of the leader of a revolution; and that means of political education is now, happily, largely a reminiscence. There is no such thing as public political discussion. The press has been so closely muzzled of late that its limited power as a political educator has been made smaller than ever. The indirect system of voting is a most manageable instrument, and the elections pass off almost in secrecy. Indeed, the hopeless wonder with which intelligent Mexicans regard our own immense fervor and agitation at times of important elections, is proof enough that their popular voting is only a name.

Yet all this is not saying that the choice of Gen. Diaz for a third term is not highly complimentary to him and his Administration of the past four years, nor that it is not probably the best thing that could have happened for the country. He has undoubtedly made a valiant stand for economy and efficiency in the public service. In all international relations, excepting, perhaps, a part of his policy in respect to Guatemala, he has conducted affairs with prudence and dignity. The enormous financial difficulties of the country he has made determined efforts to meet, and if his success here has not been as great as was anticipated, it has been perhaps as great as was possible in the nature of the case. The pronounced favor he has always shown towards plans for popular education and religious freedom will be a guarantee against any serious Catholic reaction under his rule. In fact, he has recently taken occasion to declare anew his opposition to the clerical programme, and has been, in consequence, bitterly assailed by some of the organs of the Church. That his election marks a new step in the centralizing tendencies of Mexico is certainly true; yet it may very well be that the best hopes for the future lie in the establishment of a firmer national power, even if it has to be a personal power, which will enforce order, direct and stimulate internal improvements, and work towards the diffusion of education, and so, at last, towards a recovery by the people of their constitutional right to self-government. That President Diaz is moved more by a desire to accomplish something like this for his country than by personal ambition, is a belief which his attitude during his present term certainly warrants.

WHISKEY.

Col. "Bob" Ingersoll probably never made so great a mistake as that glowing eulogy on whiskey which he wrote about a year ago, and which we here reproduce :

"I send you some of the most wonderful whiskey that ever drove the skeleton from a feast or painted landscapes in the brain of man. It is the mingled souls of wheat and corn. In it you will find the sunshine and shadow that chase each other over the billowy fields, the breath of June, the carol of the lark, the dews of the night, the wealth of summer, and autumn's rich content—all golden with imprisoned light. Drink it, and you will hear the voice of men and maidens singing the 'Harvest Home,' mingled with the laughter of children. Drink it, and you will feel within your blood the star-lit dawns, the dreamy, tawny dusks of many perfect days. For forty years this liquid joy has been within the happy staves of oak, longing to touch the lips of man."

The objection to this is that, after making all due allowance for the exaggerations of poetry, it gives a radically misleading impression as to the social value of even very old whiskey. If whiskey produced the effects which Col. "Bob" ascribes to it, it would undoubtedly be the best gift bestowed by Providence on suffering, toiling humanity. But unfortunately it does not produce these effects on any, or on more than very few at all events. It may possibly cause some to "hear the voice of men and maidens singing the 'Harvest Home,' mingled with the laughter of children." But what the great majority of people hear when they take it in sufficient quantity to be affected by it, is the voice of men swearing at the maidens, and the yells of children under the application of the paternal poker and tongs. In truth, it affects different people in different ways. Some it makes hilarious and others morose. Some can take a good deal without feeling it, while others are upset by a mouthful of it. It was extremely rash of the Colonel to predict to any particular individual what its effect on him would be. Very likely its principal effect on his friend was to make him feel within his blood simply a passionate desire to lie down and go to sleep.

The solemn truth is, that anybody who would now maintain that whiskey is a convivial drink, in any proper sense of the term, would, as Canning remarked of the man who said he liked dry champagne, maintain anything. It obtained its fame as such in ages and countries in which men who drank together did not converse or expect to converse, or to have any pleasure but that of getting very drunk, or, in other words, of losing the ability to walk steadily or talk coherently. In those days, say the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, when men met socially, they always fell to drinking, and in Scotland and Ireland the drink was whiskey; but it did nothing for them in a convivial sense except set them to singing songs in the brief interval before they became absolutely silly. In those days, as any one may see in reading Pepys's Diary, whenever two or three men got together over a bottle or a tankard, they did not talk—they sang, or one sang and the others joined in the chorus. The choruses of the old songs, mostly rigmarole, were intended simply to enable the whole company to take a hand in the entertainment. For this purpose of starting the singing, whiskey was perhaps as good as anything. But, for social purposes in an age when men meet to talk, and have lost the art of singing convivial songs, all spirituous liquors are well-nigh worthless. They steal the senses and paralyze the tongue too rapidly. Few can drink whiskey for half an hour, even in the smallest sips, without becoming more or less incoherent, if not noisy and quarrelsome.

In a period when men converse when they meet, and have topics of conversation furnished them in great abundance by the newspapers, what is wanted is a liquor that will exhilarate only slightly, and which is only intoxicating when taken in great quantities, and the effects of which pass off rapidly. This is furnished by most kinds of wine or beer. People can "sit over" wine or beer for hours, and get just enough stimulation from it to loosen their tongues, without any fear of a disturbance or disorder or sickness. Whiskey-drinking in the same manner and during the same period would probably produce very disgusting scenes, and break the party up in a row, and send them home as nuisances or terrors to their wives and children.

For this reason the failure of the vine in France and some other countries of continental Europe, and the substitution of whiskey and various forms of brandy for wine, as popular beverages, must be regarded as one of the greatest misfortunes which have overtaken the modern world. We have several times given in these columns some account of the alarm it is exciting in France and Switzerland, and of the energetic measures which have been proposed to check the spread of what is called "alcoholism"—that is, of the passion among the masses of the people for drinks containing 50 or 60 per cent. of alcohol, instead of 6 or 7 per cent. At this moment, both the statesmen and scientists of continental Europe are really at their wits' ends to devise means of saving the health and morals of the population from what we may call the ravages of all distillations from barley, rye, corn, potatoes, beet-roots, or, in other words, what we may generically call whiskey. They do not want to have "landscapes" painted in the brains of the population, especially when the landscapes are generally filled with snakes and demons and all manner of vermin.

The United States has had this experience already, and has certainly profited by it. It once had cheap whiskey, and we know what the result was. The *Chicago Tribune* described it thus the other day:

"Wipe out the internal revenue altogether, what would be the result then? Down would go whiskey to 25 cents a gallon, and by retail to 3 cents a glass, as it was in ante-war days, when the best Monongahela whiskey could be had for 5 cents a swig, and common whiskey for 3 cents; and all the evils of those days would be let loose again with redoubled force, because money with which to buy liquor is so much more plentiful now. There are plenty of men living who can remember the 25-cents a-gallon whiskey days. They can remember how the farmers came to the towns, some with jugs, some with kegs, and some with barrels. Some would give excuses that they were afflicted with all the diseases to which flesh is heir, and which could only be cured by whiskey. They had malaria, and might have snake-bites to cure. Their drinking water was so poor they could not use it without mixing whiskey with it. Never were farmers in such an unhealthy and moribund condition as in those days. They could not get through harvesting, threshing, ploughing, corn-husking, or log-rolling without it. It was as necessary to the hay-mowing and the harvest as the scythe or the sickle. The whiskey-jug on such occasions was as common in the West as the rum-jug in New England, when every one, from the deacon to the farm hand, had his wet rations. In those days of cheap whiskey there were ten drunkards to one now. Delirium tremens was a common disease; now it is rare. Then every one filled up with whiskey or rum. It was one of the staffs of life in every house."

The Providence *Journal*, discoursing recently on the same subject, said :

"For nearly half-a-century prior to the outbreak of the last war the Government imposed no specific tax on whiskey, and exercised no direct supervision over its production. It was an era of 'free whiskey,' and what was the result? The average market price was twenty-four cents a gallon, and it could be bought by the drink in saloons at three cents a glass. The effect was seen in the pitiable inebriety prevalent in all classes of the community—an evil that was so exceedingly common that the early temperance reformers had great difficulty in making people believe it was an evil at all. In the country districts, especially, where now is the stronghold of temperance, drunkenness was almost universal. Whiskey was one of the chief articles of barter at all the cross-road stores; the whiskey jug was a conspicuous figure in every farmer's market-wagon; and even the women and children were habitual whiskey-drinkers. It is not beyond the memory of men now living when in the country towns it was no more uncommon to meet a tipsy clergyman than to see a woman or half-grown boy staggering under an overload of spirits, or a farm-hand lying 'blind drunk' by the roadside. The Rev. John Marsh, in his 'Temperance Recollections,' describes his flock in Haddam, Conn., a typical New England community, as 'a stanch, well-informed but plain people, whose labors were in ship-yards, coasting, fishing, quarrying, and farming; labors in which ardent spirits were a daily ration at eleven and four as regularly as food was provided at other hours. A pitcher of water, as a part of table furniture, was unknown. No one, not even the most delicate female, used it.'"

We do not care what any one's views about temperance or total abstinence may be; every man who values either law or order, or rational conviviality, must hate whiskey, or must desire, if he cannot banish it from the land altogether, to see it made hard to procure. There is no greater delusion than to suppose that a glass of whiskey can be considered the "social glass," or that real conviviality—that is, the free interchange of ideas, or jokes, or songs, or quips or cranks of any description—is promoted thereby. On the contrary, it is a highly anti-social drink. It rapidly produces either stupor or extreme irritability, and is, indeed, especially adapted to the needs of the solitary drinker. It never tastes so well as in the private jug of the lonely toper. It is a liquor which is probably only drunk in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred by men who wish from the bottom of their hearts they could give it up, and find that it fills their blood not with the "tawny dusks of perfect days," but with awful forebodings of domestic and professional ruin.

GEN. HARRISON'S RECORD.

The Indianapolis *News*, an intelligent and independent journal, occupies the anomalous position of supporting the Republican can-

didate for President and opposing the Republican platform and the election of Congressmen who stand upon that platform. This seems to us a case of extraordinary stultification, for the election of Gen. Harrison would obviously nullify the work which the *News* hopes for from the tariff-reform Congressmen, inasmuch as he would be bound by the platform upon which he stands to veto a bill such as tariff reformers would send him. We hailed Gen. Harrison's nomination as "a very respectable one," and a happy escape from the threatened renomination of a personally unworthy and unfit candidate. At the same time we pointed out that his personality would cut but a small figure in the canvass, and that the selection of such a man "leaves the field open for the freest discussion of the principles which divide the American people." We must confess, however, that Gen. Harrison's record in the Senate proves, upon examination, to be far less creditable to him than we had supposed, and that his position upon certain great issues was so indefensible that we could not support him, even if he stood upon a decent tariff platform. First among these issues we rank that of centralization. We hold stoutly to that view of the relations of the States to the Federal Government which was held by the Republican party of Abraham Lincoln's day; and we believe with Gen. Hawley, one of the few Republicans in Congress who still maintain the ancient doctrine of the party, that the "tendency towards a consolidation of the entire powers of Government," as illustrated in the bill for Federal interference in education in the States, "is one of the strongest to-day, and one of those most dangerous to the Republican experiment as our fathers understood it." Gen. Harrison holds the opposite view—a view which runs directly counter to the Constitution as interpreted by the Supreme Court, and which would sanction an entire revolution in the relations between the States and the general Government. His support of the Blair bill, given, as the *Congressional Record* shows, after careful deliberation and with full knowledge of what it implied, proves him a believer in centralization in its most dangerous form.

Gen. Harrison's pension record shows that he is not a safe man to trust with executive power at a time when the Treasury needs protection from the raids of the claim agents and camp followers. He voted for the Dependent Pension Bill, which President Cleveland vetoed, with the approval of the country, in February, 1887—a bill which even so partisan a Republican journal as the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette* was constrained to admit "opened the door for vast abuses." Moreover, he introduced a great number of private pension bills, several of which were so very bad that Mr. Cleveland had to veto them, one of the proposed beneficiaries having been a man who had deserted. Furthermore, he would be bound to approve any pension grab like the revival of the arrears job, involving the payment of hundreds of millions, which would surely pass Congress if the Republicans controlled both branches, the party being already committed to it. Gen. Harrison's position regarding the pension question should cost him the support of independent voters.

The Republican candidate has shown himself a man who favors the most reckless extravagance. The St. Paul *Pioneer-Press*, a Republican paper of standing, was quite within bounds the other day when it called the Hennepin Canal scheme "the most gigantic and unequalled piece of jobbery" ever contained in a river and harbor bill, and described it as an "attempt to commit the National Government to the construction of a stupendous system of sewerage for Chicago." Senator Ingalls of Kansas once described it (July 10, 1886) as a scheme "to commit the Government to the expenditure of between $10,000,000 and $25,000,000 to lift the commerce of the Northwest step by step up a gigantic water stairway of 208 feet up to the Mississippi River, and then let it down again step by step, and up again 140 feet more to Chicago." Nor is the scheme bad alone in itself; it would inevitably prove the forerunner of many other equally tremendous jobs. Congressman Browne, the oldest and ablest Republican Representative from Indiana, who has always earnestly opposed the project, argued against it on one occasion (July 20, 1886) with great force upon this broad ground: "Rich as this nation is, great as are its revenues and its sources of wealth, you are entering upon a system which, if not arrested, may bankrupt this magnificent republic of ours." Gen. Harrison voted for this "most gigantic and unequalled piece of jobbery"; and, what is worse for him, he did it with his eyes open, for he once delivered a speech in favor of it in the Senate (July 8, 1882). A Senator who endorsed the Hennepin Canal scheme, by that very act showed himself unfit to be President.

All that has come to light about Gen. Harrison's private character since his nomination strengthens the impression that he is an estimable person, and does not live in constant apprehension of somebody's printing letters which he had directed to be burned because they would expose his dishonesty. This is a great gain over the situation four years ago. But it necessarily eliminates the personality of the candidate from the canvass, and leaves him to stand before the people upon his party's platform and his own record in the Senate. The former alone should condemn him, but if it were not sufficient, the latter is fatal to him. The advocate of centralization, the defender of reckless pension schemes, the friend of Hennepin Canal jobs, is not a safe man to be President.

PUBLICITY.

THE value of the proceedings before the Fassett Committee can hardly be overestimated. The work which these legislative investigations have done for the cause of good government and political morality during the last few years has been very great. The effects of the Sharp investigation, for instance, will undoubtedly be felt in municipal affairs for many years. It brought a whole band of criminals to justice, or drove them out of the country, or checked their activity, and, what was better than all, revived public faith in the possibility of enforcing the Penal Code against corruptionists. It was, in fact, on the general disbelief in the possibility of obtaining convictions for bribery that men like Sharp flourished and grew rich. Very likely they will before long again grow bold and resume their trade; but they will not in our time be as bold as they were, or make as much money as they used to make. The press might have denounced them for a hundred years without making as much impression on them as was made by one hour of examination under oath.

The investigation of the Custom-house affairs by the Senate Committee was also very fruitful. Without it, Assistant-Secretary Maynard's flat denials would have stood unimpeached, and apparently unimpeachable, and he would have lived on as a martyr of newspaper malignity and slander. But the minute the subpœna was applied to his case, a flood of light about appointments and removals and frauds and "pernicious activity" burst forth and helped purify the political atmosphere. At this moment, too, the aqueduct investigation is giving us illustrations of political manners and morals even among what may be called picked men, which are and will continue to be most wholesome for doctrine, for reproof, and for instruction in righteousness.

It has often been said bitterly of these investigations, by people who do not like to be investigated, that they do not confine themselves to "legal evidence," and that they are conducted under the influence of partisan motives. It is true that the evidence they take is not always legal evidence, but legal evidence would not answer the purpose. No rational man who wishes to inform himself about a person, place, or thing confines himself to legal evidence. He takes human evidence—that is, the evidence on which the human race manages its affairs and shapes its conduct—and mighty good evidence it is. Lawyers do not like it, but it makes the world go round.

Nor is it an objection to these investigating committees that they are animated by partisan motives. Their motives do not hurt their work, except, possibly, by restricting the field of operations. But even when they do restrict the field of operations, they make compensation by driving the plough deeper in the ground which they cover. No politician can be got to make a thorough inquiry into anything from a simple desire to benefit his country or his race. He must be allowed a few earthly aims and low desires in order to get really good work out of him as an investigator. What the public demands is that he shall summon witnesses, produce books and papers, and ask a full line of pertinent questions. If he does this, it matters little how corrupt his motive may be.

Now, what is the fundamental reason why these investigations are so valuable? Simply the fact that they supply publicity about transactions which ought never to have been private. They communicate to the public information the public ought to have pos-

sessed from the beginning, but which it is the chief aim of a great many men in office to keep from it.

A large proportion of the public officers in this city, we venture to assert, would like the business of their offices to be considered strictly private and a large proportion of their subordinates "confidential" agents; but nothing worse could happen either to them or the service. There is hardly a man in any public office who is not helped and fortified, not only against other people's badness, but against his own, by having the world know what he is about.

Take, for instance, the case of this Aqueduct Commission. Nearly everything of an objectionable or disreputable character which has been revealed in the evidence is the result of secrecy. The Commissioners were expressly directed by the statute to open the bids or proposals "publicly." They evaded this with the connivance or consent of men of Mr. Dowd's standing, by secretly ascertaining beforehand what bids would be made, and what bids they would accept. They took, moreover, every precaution possible to keep from the public all knowledge of the motives which animated them in performing this most important of all their official duties, by failing to keep any minutes or other record of their proceedings. Had these proceedings been public, as they ought to have been, there is little doubt the work would not have been awarded in two huge sections to two firms of contractors, because the flimsiness of the reasons for this arrangement, which is now acknowledged, would have been detected at the outset. The theory that from any point of view it was desirable to give the work out in two large slices would, of course, have never been produced when all concerned knew that the job was immediately to be divided up among a large body of sub-contractors. Nor is it at all likely that Fish would have got up his little scheme of reorganization had he known that the other Commissioners would not give him the shelter of silence, and that he was going to intrude himself into a body of men who were in frank and loyal relations with the people of the city, handling the public money on the table with open books.

BRITISH WAGES.

THE present agitation of the tariff question has given rise to a great demand for statistics bearing upon the various aspects of the subject. It is, however, almost a commonplace that no cause is so poor but that it can find statistics which can be made to appear to support it. The complexity of most statistics is such that a skilful and not too scrupulous advocate can make them tell strange tales. But this is not all, nor the worst; there always remains the connection of cause and effect, which statistics alone cannot enable us to determine. Those who laud our protective system as the corner-stone and the only safeguard of our prosperity and of the welfare of our workingmen, usually consider their task accomplished when they have written down the figures which record our progress during the past generation. This progress has taken place under protection, and they think they are acquitted of the task of showing that protection has been the cause of it. But, fortunately, our own is not the only country which has statistics; and any one who examines the statistics of other countries will soon convince himself of the absurdity of the claim that our indebtedness to the protective system is shown by the evidence of statistics.

There are two classes of facts, especially, which are a dreadful stumbling-block to the protectionist statistician: the superiority of English to Continental wages, and the rise of wages in England during the free-trade era. As to the latter point, we have fortunately very high authority for determining it. On the opening of the fiftieth session of the Statistical Society of London in 1883, its President, the eminent statistician, Mr. Giffen, chose for the subject of his inaugural address "The Progress of the Working Classes in the Last Half-Century." The table which he there presents, though itself showing in a striking way what opportunities such tables offer for intentional perversion, exhibits unmistakably an enormous rise in the wages of British labor. The least increase shown by any occupation in the fifty years is 20 per cent., in nearly every case the increase is more than 50 per cent., and in one case, that of the Bradford weavers, it exceeds 150 per cent. From a table showing so great a diversity in the different occupations, it is difficult to draw an accurate numerical conclusion; what is plain is, that the workingmen of England have made an enormous advance in their rate of wages. Nor is this all. At the same time that his wages have been increased, the English workingman's hours of labor have been diminished, the nine-hour day being now almost universal in England; Mr. Giffen estimates the average reduction of hours at 20 per cent. A French economist, M. Émile Chevallier, in his work on 'Wages in the Nineteenth Century' (Paris. 1887), to which was awarded the prize of the Académie des Sciences Morales et Politiques, sums up the matter in this way (p. 100): "The English workingman has obtained in fifty years an increase of from 50 to 100 per cent. in his money wages, and a diminution of 20 per cent. in the duration of his daily work; he has therefore made an advance in round numbers of from 70 to 120 per cent."

As to the comparison between English and Continental wages, that is a less simple matter; the variations are great in each country, and the classifications of employees vary from one country to another. The fact, however, that there is a vast difference in favor of the English workingman is notorious; it is as unnecessary to prove it by statistics as it is to prove that our own workingmen have better wages than those of Great Britain. As to the exact figures, one can only appreciate the difficulty of arriving at them by taking a glance at the bulky volume published by the United States Bureau of Statistics in 1875, under the title of 'Labor in Europe and America.' No mode of striking an average could lead to a really accurate result; and any result arrived at by one who was illustrating a thesis might be suspected of being more or less influenced by bias. We shall, therefore, quote the figures given by the French economist already cited as being apparently the best attainable, though no special importance should be attached to them: "The United States, then, hold the highest position; wages there are 3½ per cent. higher than in Australia, 84 per cent. higher than in the United Kingdom, 162 per cent. higher than in Germany, and 205 per cent. higher than in France. Great Britain, in its turn, shows a rate of wages higher by 42 per cent. than that of Germany, and by 65 per cent. than that of France."

The statistics we have cited as showing the increase in British wages during the past fifty years are not adduced to show that free trade raises wages. They are merely given in rebuttal of the ever-recurring fallacy that any improvement which has taken place in our own country under the régime of high tariff is to be attributed to that institution. But the contrast between English and Continental wages—which, we repeat, does not rest upon any special statistics, but is matter of common knowledge—this contrast is something more than a mere rebuttal. Not only does it utterly break the force of the position that the superiority of our wages to those of Europe is due to protection, but it constitutes in itself a positive proof that a high rate of wages has its source in something deeper than a system of taxation, and may be maintained by an energetic and favorably situated people in the face of the inferior wages of inferior and less fortunate competitors.

ARGENTINE FINANCES.

THE remarkable material expansion of the Argentine Republic during the last seven years of peace has not entirely escaped notice in our own country, despite our limited commercial relations with the great Power of the Plate Valley. The rapid extension of her railroad systems, the vast sums devoted to other public works, the reclaiming of immense areas of fertile land from the danger of Indian forays, the marvellous quickening both of domestic and foreign trade—of all these things we have heard vaguely, though, at the same time, color has been given to the suspicion that the whole might be an unnatural inflation to be followed by a disastrous collapse. Argentine credit, for example, has all along been comparatively low, inferior to that of Chili or Brazil. A new 5 per cent. loan, negotiated in January, 1887, commanded only 85½ in London. Specie payments had to be suspended early in 1885, and when the two years had elapsed which had been fixed as the limit of the suspension, its term had to be extended, resumption now being promised for the 9th of January, 1889. Meanwhile, the national income had been steadily falling behind expenses, the foreign and domestic debts were each mounting higher and higher,

so that the remark of the Argentine Minister in Washington, in 1885, that the financial condition of his country was "not quite satisfactory," was as mild a phrase as could well be used under the circumstances.

Still, there were all the while hopeful features. The republic has a splendid record for fidelity to her public obligations. The interest on her national debt has always been punctually met, and one of her Presidents once solemnly asserted, with general approval, that the nation would suffer hunger and thirst rather than fail to pay its debts. At a time of civil war, thirty-one landed proprietors in the Province of Buenos Ayres signed an agreement to pay the interest on the national debt until after the termination of the strife. Then, too, the expensive system of internal improvements was accompanied by a great development of natural resources and enlargement of foreign commerce. A total foreign trade of $83,202,750 in 1877 had swollen to $218,000,000 in 1887. And if the debt had gone on increasing in great leaps, so had the revenue, the national revenue rising from $14,824,096 in 1877 to $59,138,000 in 1887.

In fact, the recent message of President Celman to the Argentine Congress appears to show that the republic is now mistress of the financial situation, certainly that she is now in a more assured position than ever before in her history as an independent Government. For the first time on record the revenue for 1886 had more than covered the outlay, and the President reports that the surplus for 1887 is still larger. At the same time, the public debt has been reduced by more than eight millions of dollars, and the credit of the country so much strengthened that the 5 per cent. bonds issued a year ago at 85½, are now quoted at 97, while the 6 per cent. loan of 1882 now commands from two to five above par. The abolition of export duties, together with the allowance of drawbacks on imported bags, boxes, etc., for the shipment abroad of national products, has greatly stimulated the export trade, which showed an increase in 1887 of $14,600,000, principally in grain, hides, and frozen meats. The returns for the first three months of the current year show a further gain of $4,000,000 in foreign commerce, even over the unprecedented figures of 1887.

Since the date of her independence the Argentine Republic has negotiated twenty different foreign loans, of a total capitalization of $221,438,077. In interest she has paid $55,904,613, and for redemption of maturing bonds $86,212,653. The total amount of the foreign debt on the 31st of March of this year was, according to the message of President Celman, $92,427,000. The domestic debt, at the same date, amounted to $47,000,000. The provinces have besides a foreign debt of $88,219,611, and a domestic debt of about $25,000,000.

The national revenues are derived from import duties, which are fixed, with a few exceptions, at 25 per cent. ad valorem, from stamps, the Post-office, railways, telegraphs, the tax on real estate, and other minor taxes. The per-capita taxation under national laws amounted, in 1886, to $12.42.

The banking and currency of the Argentine Republic have been in an extremely unsettled condition for several years. A resolute attempt to put them upon a better basis was made in the law of November 3, 1887. This was nothing less than the creation of a system of national banks expressly modelled on our own. It made banking practically free, and provided a national currency guaranteed by national bonds bearing 4½ per cent. interest in gold. These bonds are delivered to any banking institution submitting to the required governmental inspection, for 85 per cent. of their par value, and may then be deposited as security for an emission of bills up to the face value of the bonds. President Celman reports the entire success of the new scheme, saying that the circulation of the new national banks already amounts to $88,500,000, and that they bid fair to supply the monetary needs of the country.

THE UNIVERSITY OF BOLOGNA AFTER EIGHT CENTURIES.

BOLOGNA, June 16, 1888.

IN reviewing the festivities which accompanied the celebration of the eighth centennial of the University of Bologna, there are certain moments on which the memory loves to linger; and there are one or two points which suggest less agreeable reflections. To begin with the latter: Although the foreign delegates were theoretically the guests of the University, they were never formally presented to the Academic Senate, nor, except by mere chance, did they have an opportunity of making the personal acquaintance of any of the professors. Many who came to Bologna with a sincere desire of learning something of the workings of an Italian university, and of getting to know some of the many learned men who fill chairs at Bologna and in other Italian universities, went away no wiser than when they came. This omission, which might at first seem disrespect, was due solely to mismanagement and imperfect organization; but as the Rector Capellini, who was mainly responsible for what was as disagreeable to the Italians as to the strangers, has since resigned in consequence of the criticisms on him, nothing more need be said on this subject.

A great contrast to the official management was afforded by the uniform success which attended everything that was either undertaken or carried out by the students, whether their reception of the foreign students, with the white ox, the great cheese, and the big cask of Barbera wine, presented by their comrades of Padua, Pavia, and Turin, or their torchlight and humorous mediæval processions, their burlesque festival, or their celebration in honor of the memory of Galvani. In kindness, in amiability, and in courtesy they were constant, in season and out of season. Their hospitality was unbounded, and many of them will doubtless find it hard work to get through the next year on their scanty means. The poet Guerrini told me that he knew a poor medical student who had given up his only room to two Germans, and had taken meanwhile a bed at the hospital in which he was studying. They were, of course, this being Italy, not unassisted by the richer citizens; and several noble ladies lent their horses and carriages, with coachman and footman in full livery, to help them do honor to their guests. Their tact was such that no disagreeable incident occurred between the French and German deputations, who, indeed, fraternized at first to such an extent as to excite the wrath of certain Parisian newspapers. Their courtesy to all was so great that many a foreign professor found his way smoothed for him by the good offices of the first student he chanced to address.

In a city with the secular musical reputation of Bologna—and, if report speaks truly, it is to a mediæval Bolognese student that we owe the song "Gaudeamus igitur"—music would naturally form part of the programme of any feast. Twice during the official celebration we listened to a cantata written by the poet Panzacchi, and composed and directed by the ambitious young *maestro*, Baron Franchetti. Twice Wagner's opera, Italianized into "Tristano ed Isotta," was given as a gala spectacle. Best of all was a concert of classical and modern music by the celebrated orchestra led by Martucci. Selections from Weber, Beethoven, Rossini, Rubinstein, Tchaikofsky, Brahms, Berlioz, and Wagner were executed with a delicacy and precision which enchanted the severest German and American critics present. Unfortunately, the course of historical concerts and the performances of Mendelssohn's "Elijah" had not yet begun; they are to come later.

A fantastic torchlight procession in honor of royalty made us lament the organized horrors which render so hideous the last nights before a Presidential election. No mazy dance of fireflies along the Arno could be more beautiful. Rows of lights, groups of lights, combined into odd figures and shapes—the Queen's favorite marguerite, the star of Italy, the cross of Savoy, fans, wreaths, and palm-leaves—followed each other for an hour, yet all in order, in rhythm, and with due sequence of color and effect. Yet the materials were simple—light frames of lath or wire on the end of a staff, small glass tumblers filled with some tallow-like composition, and provided with a wick, and bits of white and colored paper pasted round them to protect the lights from the wind. Any clever Italian can, at a slight expense and with a day's labor, illuminate the front of his house more effectively than with any number of flaring gas-jets.

The evening at court differed from other soirées of this kind only in being held in the long galleries of a mediæval building, unused to such gayety since the times of the Cardinal Legates, and in the relaxation of etiquette. Presentations were made without difficulty, and the King, who usually avoids occasions of ceremony, talked as freely and pleasantly with the delegates as did the Queen. The Prince of Naples did his part well, but his youth made him shy and more constrained. The presence of the Queen lent a charm to the place which President de Brosses could never have felt, agreeable as Cardinal Lambertini was, and excellent a Pope as he afterwards became. A surprise was reserved for the end of the evening. Looking out of the windows, we saw the square densely packed with thousands of people; and in the strong electric light every upturned face was visible and distinct. All Bologna was listening to a military serenade, the music of which we had scarcely noticed; and the appearance of the royal party on the balcony, under the outstretched blessing hands of the bronze statue of Pope Gregory XIII., was the signal for an outburst of enthusiastic applause.

So far I have spoken only of the hospitality of the city, of the Government—for there was an excellent dinner offered by the Prefect—and of the Crown. It is time to return to *Bononia Alma Mater Studiorum*. Seldom has there been seen such a picturesque gathering of learn-

ed men as that which met on the morning of June 12 in the courtyard of the University. Here, under the awning and around the statue of Hercules, the scarlet, blue, and black robes and trencher caps of English and Scotch doctors mingled with the yellow, buff, and brown gowns of French professors, wearing odd-looking mortar bonnets. The Russians, Rumanians, Greeks, and Portuguese were, like most of the Americans, in full evening dress, though many of them wore decorations which added a little color; the Swedes were in embroidered uniforms; the plain, prim-looking black gowns of the Dutch and Belgians contrasted strongly with the heavy robes of red and purple cloth and embroidered satin capes of their neighbors the Germans and Austrians. Of the Hungarians, one wore a violet clerical robe; another, the rich dress and jewelled chain of a Magyar noble. The Spaniards, who came late, were worth waiting to see: they wore long clerical cassocks of black silk, satin capes of brilliant red or of bright blue close up to their ears, fastened under the chin, through which protruded the crosses of their decorations; and on their heads caps shaped like a fez of the same color as their capes, surmounted by thick tassels which fell equally on every side. There was something in them both of the Arab and of the mediæval Catholic; and as they stood in the middle, with their finely cut features, they seemed to have descended from the frame of some old picture. Nor was the gathering less interesting than picturesque. Here were Jebb, Muir, and Gaston Boissier; here were Lowell and Story and Ramsay; further on were Gaston Paris and Veselofsky talking folk-lore with Crane and Meyer; in another corner stood Erskine Holland with Asser, Bar, and other noted jurists, while Holtzendorff was overheard in his inquiries about the effect of a recent statute of Pennsylvania. Unfortunately, even here there was no chance of meeting the Italian professors, for they assembled in another part of the building.

Finally, the signal was given, and the learned procession started for the Archiginnasio, which had been the seat of the University until it was removed to its present quarters by Napoleon. The march began with the Italian students, whose sole remnant of academic customs consisted in their little berettas made for the occasion according to ancient style, white, green, blue, or red, to denote the Faculty to which they belonged. Then came the foreign students—the English in gowns, the Germans and Austrians with their ribbons and their sabres, their jack-boots and their absurd little muffin-shaped caps or their spreading plumes. The Hungarians wore their native costume, almost too rich for such an occasion, for one youth was in a white satin doublet covered with rich jewels. Next followed the professors of other Italian universities; then the foreign delegates, the Americans walking first; and finally the professors of Bologna in their black togas, over which they wore hoods of the color of their faculty, arranged in a peculiar manner so that the color showed chiefly in front—some with ermine tippets, and all with lace bands the quality of which is left to the personal discretion of the wearer.

Never before have I walked through such crowded streets—at least not so much at my ease; and certainly never had I passed through streets where every window and every balcony was decorated with squares of old damask and brocades, feeling that this was done, in part at least, in my honor. On we went past the palace, where the King and Queen bowed to us from the balcony; through the Via Farini, where sprigs of oak and laurel were rained upon us from the upper windows; into the Piazza Galvani, where the students received us between two lines, waving their caps and sabres and shouting *Evviva l'America!* and saluting every other country in succession, until we were seated in the beautifully decorated court of the Archiginnasio.

The place was an historical one. Behind the throne was the pretty little chapel, the pictures in which look so fresh and untouched because it was used only for hearing confessions and giving the sacrament to students, as preliminary to their taking their degrees. Above that is the Anatomical Theatre, wainscoted in carved cedar, where Galvani demonstrated his discovery of animal magnetism. The walls and vaults are covered with the arms and names of old students in fresco or stucco—among them the name of Erasmus. Every country and nearly every large town in Europe is recorded here; for centuries Bologna was preëminently the great international university, and when a youth showed a desire for the higher learning, his father used to give him a horse and a purse, and say, "Go to Paris or Bologna."

After the King and Queen had entered and had been received by the professors, Franchetti's cantata was sung; the Rector made a short speech; the Minister of Public Instruction, Boselli, a longer one, but eloquent and well delivered; and the poet Carducci mounted the pulpit. *Conticuere omnes.* He discoursed on the origin and significance of the University of Bologna; but to this I shall recur. The representatives of foreign universities presented their addresses of congratulation on illuminated parchment scrolls, in cases of varied design and workmanship, to such a number that the light blue basket, embroidered with marguerites, overflowed upon the steps of the throne even to the feet of the Queen. The leaders of the deputations made brief addresses, among which that of Mr. W. W. Story was one of the most felicitous, accentuating the fact that America as a civilized country was but half as old as the University of Bologna, and that to Italy we owed both our discovery and our name. After a Latin welcome by Professor Gandino, of studied and impressive oratory, the ceremony came to an end, having lasted in all about five hours.

The next day, in the same place, and with the same brilliant surroundings, we witnessed the ceremony of conferring the honorary degrees on eminent foreigners. In all, 104 doctorates were given, of Philology (*i. e.*, Arts and Letters), of Mathematics or Science, of Law, and of Medicine. Of these America received but four, one in each faculty, only one-fourth of what were given both to England and to France. Over fifty degrees were divided between Germany and Austria, chiefly for medicine and the sciences. If this meant anything else than the personal proclivities of the Rector, Capellini, himself an eminent geologist, it would seem to show the high opinion which Italy has of German science and scientific methods. The American doctors are Mr. James Russell Lowell in Letters, Mr. David Dudley Field in Law, Mr. Alexander Agassiz in Science, and Dr. Weir Mitchell in Medicine. As the names of the laureates were called out, each man who was present walked to the foot of the platform, bowed to the sovereigns, had the great doctoral ring passed on and off his right forefinger, and received the congratulations of the Rector, together with his illuminated diploma, from which hung enclosed in a silver case the great wax impression of the University seal. Those whose names were best known were received with loud and long applause. Doubtless, in my own case, a tolerably familiar knowledge of Bologna itself—where I always found pleasure in spending a week at a time—acquaintances in the Italian society, and the meeting with old friends, added to the pleasure derived from the festivities themselves, which, owing to the hereditary Italian talent for improvisation, were far finer than the most hopeful expected during the confusion that marred their beginning. Two evenings not set down in the programme have left especially agreeable memories. One was passed with Jebb, Knight, Ramsay, Sir Herbert Oakley, Conway, and other English and American delegates, when the indignation of those who were, for the moment, shelterless or discontented gave way over a mug of German beer, which is rapidly usurping the place of wine in north Italian towns; the other was spent in the *birraria* Hoffmeister with Mr. Story and Guerrini, the University Librarian, who made the establishment famous, and who is better known by his poetical pseudonym of Stecchetti.

The most striking part of all the official ceremonies, apart from the splendor of the pageant, was, to many, the discourse of the poet Carducci. It was not only the matter of it, but the manner in which it was delivered. Carducci has immense influence in Italy, not only as the regenerator of Italian poetry, but as a man independent and fearless in proclaiming his beliefs and convictions. A republican and democrat by principle, he is a supporter and admirer of the House of Savoy; an innovator in rhythm and metre, he is strongly imbued with classical feeling, and throughout his professional career has devoted himself to illustrating the glories of Italian literature. He does not allow his politics or his religious views to interfere with his critical appreciations, and lately he refused the first literary honor in Italy, the professorship of Dante exegesis at Rome, lest by accepting it he should seem to favor erroneous ideas as to Dante's work. Every line that he writes, whether of verse or of prose, is eagerly read, and nowhere is he more popular than at Bologna, where he is now the crown and glory both of the University and of the town. When he mounted the tribune, nervous and excited by the scene, the audience, and the presence of royalty, he could hardly restrain his impatience at the outbursts of applause which greeted him. But at the first word all became silent. Similar outbreaks interrupted him after the most telling passages, when, trembling with impatience and excitement, he would throw his head back until his black curly hair and grizzly beard became golden in the strong sunbeam which fell on him through a rift of the awning, and each drop of perspiration shone like a diamond. If the comparison may be excused, he looked like a splendid dog tossing his head and shaking the water from him on coming out of the sea. Then he would seize a twig of oak which had been thrown to him in the procession, and would command silence with an imperious gesture, which no one dared disobey.

Carducci said just enough to impress upon us why Bologna, besides being the oldest, was the most important university of the world. The study of the Roman Law had been transferred from Rome to Ravenna, where the lamp of learning burned with but a flickering light. When, eight hundred years ago, the law books were brought to Bologna, Pepo and Irnerius studied them in a new spirit, and developed from the codes of Justinian those principles which were thereafter to be the bases of legality, of organized government, of freedom, and of civilization. The University of Bologna formed the model for others in Europe, and the statutes of two at least in the extreme north,

those of Upsala and Glasgow, are mere copies of the statutes of Bologna:

"The constitution was democratic. The fervor of liberty which warmed the Italian city had, it seems, invaded also those beyond the mountains. These Franks, these Germans, these Bohemians and Poles, coming from their feudal castles, their abbeys, and their lordly chapters, learned to subject themselves to civil order, felt the advantage of living in common, and got to desire equality. After strange journeys by sea and over the Alps, students of all Europe meeting here found again their native countries in the 'nations' which constituted the University; had their State in the University; and, in the common use of the Latin tongue, aspired to that higher unity, that civil brotherhood of peoples for good, which Rome had sent out with its law, which the Gospel had proclaimed in spiritual things, which the civilization of to-day wishes with reason. O Italy! O my country! in the torments of slavery it was pleasing to think of thee in the act of sending from the seven hills the flight of victorious eagles over all nations; but perhaps thou wert more humanely fair when, to those same nations that had oppressed thee, thou didst rise, and open with the tongue of the ancient Empire the sources of the new civilization, and, freeing them from the yoke of barbarism, didst persuade them of the glory of making themselves again Roman."

But let us not delay over the Diet of Roncaglia, the Four Doctors, the Gloss writers, Accorso, Odofredo, and the Theorists, or even Rolandino Passaggerio, whose tomb, high in air in front of St. Dominic's Church, has been covered in these days with laurel leaves by the hand of grateful votaries. Let us pass over the flourishing period of Provençal poetry at Bologna; the ancient and even the modern school of Italian poetry; Petrarch, Dante, and his earliest commentators; Erasmus, Jerome Cardan, and Copernicus; Galileo as an unsuccessful candidate for a professorship; Galvani; the famous women who taught here—let us come to the augury which Carducci draws for the future:

"We commemorate," he says, "to-day, with the origin of the University of Bologna, the first uprising of the Italian people. . . . 'All roads lead to Rome' is a proverb common to the Latin peoples, and for Italy is history as well as poetry, and the continual sigh of her eternal soul. Italy, mindful and grateful that her fair fame grew with Rome—Italy has always and by every road desired to go to Rome; in the Middle Ages with Law, in the Renaissance with Art, in our times with Politics. She desired to return to Rome, to which, thanks to independence protected and liberty guaranteed by union, she had given the force of her arms and the vigor of her thoughts; to Rome, forgetful of her and of the ancient pact in the cosmopolitanism of imperial despotism and pontifical theocracy. A man, a great man of our fathers, felt more than all others this historical necessity for Italy; in that lofty, austere intellect, in that heart of Italian hearts, the idea of the Gracchi became modern. Giuseppe Mazzini, more than any one else, had the sublime, the radiant, the resplendent vision of the third Rome—not aristocratic, not imperial, not pontifical, but Italian. And from the underground vaults of conspirators, from schools and public squares, from prisons and scaffolds, from fields of battle, from the Parliament, from the Palace, Italy, with the heads of her martyrs, with the books of philosophers and songs of poets, with the essays of diplomacy, with the sword of the Revolution, with the artillery of the King, was so obstinate in knocking at the gates of Rome that she at last reached the Quirinal and the Capitol. Of such worth was a sanctity of daring and devotion incredible in any other history: a monarchical republican, a revolutionary monarch, an obedient dictator—Victor Emmanuel conspiring to the same end with Giuseppe Mazzini and Giuseppe Garibaldi. Whence is it that to-day Bologna, on the 29th anniversary of the 12th of June, 1859, when she saw foreign lordship driven away for the last time and for ever, salutes and acclaims in its republican piazza, between the Palace of the Podestà, where she held prisoner the conquered Alemannic King, and the Church of San Petronio, which she raised in memory of the overthrow of the domestic tyranny of the Visconti, salutes and acclaims a splendid work of art not inferior to the antique, a solemn monument of love of country superior to the antique—the statue of King Victor Emmanuel fighting for the liberty of Italy? Whence is it that to-day the glorious Superga, next to the tomb of the saddest of the Kings of Savoy, waits in vain for the greatest King not only of Savoy, but of our age, the King who was invoked and saluted as the liberator of the Italian people? When Victor had brought his eagle to the fatal hill whence Romulus had looked for auspices for the foundation of the city, Rome, receiving in her divine embrace at his death the King of the Alps, placed him in the temple of all the antique gods of the Fatherland. King of Italy and of Rome. No piety or impiety of man shall ever remove Vittorio from the Pantheon, nor shall any malignity or violence of things lower that flag which from the shame of the gallows has risen to the light of the Capitol. You, Sire, faithful asserter of eight centuries of Italian history; you, august interpreter and maintainer of the wish of the whole Italian people; you, with words that sound high before the world; O, King! you have said 'Rome is an unassailable conquest.' Yes, O, King! an unassailable conquest of the Italian people for itself and for the liberty of all."

EUGENE SCHUYLER.

THE LAST OF ANCIENT FRANCE.—II.

PARIS, June 27, 1888.

THE effect produced by the battle of Fontenoy was very great in Europe; it was a resurrection of the France of the time of Louis XIV. Voltaire improvised in a few days a "Poem of Fontenoy," in which he attempted to name all those who had played a part in the terrible struggle (in 300 verses you will find as many as 57 names). Politically, the battle had not the great consequences which it ought to have had. The great question was this: Was France going to maintain the alliance with Frederick and her influence in Germany? All the effort of Louis XV. had been spent in Flanders; the army of the Prince de Conti, which operated across the Rhine, had been, so to speak, abandoned. While Louis XV. was entering the Low Countries, Prince Charles of Lorraine was entering Silesia. Frederick learned the issue of the battle of Fontenoy at Breslau, where he had concentrated all his troops. He had criticised with his usual irony the French expedition to the Low Countries; he would have preferred the smallest advantage obtained by the Prince of Conti in Germany to the French conquest of Flanders. He opened his heart to Podewils; he was fond of saying that the French were degenerate sons of their ancestors of the seventeenth century. He was rather alarmed on finding that Louis XV. was not quite the man he thought him to be; he was afraid that France would become very intractable. Speaking to Valori, the French Minister, in his tent, he told him that he was charmed with the French victory, but that it was of no use to him:

"I have no fewer enemies on my hands, and the Queen of Hungary does not consider this event as being very detrimental to her. . . . Believe me, there is but one way to reduce her to her senses: it is, to give the Prince of Conti the means of beating. . . . If he were marching on Eger, what good would it not do! Saxony would change her attitude, Hanover would tremble. . . . If you recrossed the Rhine, I should have reason to think myself abandoned, and I might succumb, whatever efforts I might make. . . . I see what it is: you are afraid, my dear friends, to enter into the German oven."

Frederick saw well his danger; what he prophesied happened, but he had first entrapped the Austrians in Silesia. "You cannot get mice," said he to Valori, "without opening the mouse-trap; if I beat the Austrians, I will follow up my victory." He did beat them at Hohenfriedberg, and he wrote at once to Louis XV.: "My armies have obtained a victory over the Austrians and the Saxons; your Majesty will see that I have not been long in following his example; now is the turn of the Prince de Conti."

Though he had promised to follow up his victory, Frederick tarried in the neighborhood of Königgrätz in Bohemia for six weeks, waiting to see what the Prince de Conti would do. Conti remained inactive; D'Argenson did not wish to interfere with Germany during the imperial election, which was to take place at Frankfort. Frederick hesitated long before cutting the last thread of the French alliance. Conti soon had the mortification of seeing two Austrian corps d'armée concentrating before Frankfort, and, fearing to have his line of retreat cut, he crossed the Rhine and abandoned Germany. Frankfort was opened to Austria, and it became evident that the imperial crown would be placed on the head of Maria Theresa.

This was too much for Frederick, and he resolved to expect nothing more from the French ministers and generals; he knew how to act rapidly, and to enter the Saxon territory in arms. "The more vigor we show," said he to the timid Podewils, "the more Hanover will feel the need she has of me, and the more will she be obliged to make efforts to obtain a peace." Podewils held up to him the interference of Russia. "Saxony," replied Frederick, "will be *cuite* (cooked) when they learn at St. Petersburg that war has begun. . . . Be sure that this blow will give us peace." The Duc de Broglie says, in speaking of this sudden resolution: "Once his resolution taken, this marvellous genius straightway found the calm and perspicacity which seemed to fail him often in the worry of deliberations." Frederick immediately made proposals to England; he asked merely for the preservation of Silesia, under the triple guarantee of England, the United Provinces, and the Empire; and, while he sent this ultimatum, he waited with his army at the door of Saxony. This proposal greatly embarrassed the Hanoverian George; he was not an absolute King, he had to count with his English ministers and with English public opinion. The pride of England had been greatly touched by the French invasion of Flanders and by the battle of Fontenoy; the ministers of George represented to him that it was impossible not to pay attention to the overtures of the King of Prussia, and not to intercede with Maria Theresa for the pacification of Germany. The triumphs of Marshal Saxe on the Scheldt and on the Meuse became the best arguments of Frederick. After Tournay, Bruges had fallen before the French arms; then Ghent, Oudenarde, Dendermonde, Ostend, and Nieuwport. England felt really alarmed, and the news from Flanders was awaited with the greatest anxiety. It was said that Louis XV. meditated an invasion of England. Belle-Isle, the prisoner of Windsor, appeared to the popular imagination as a spy. Horace Walpole, in two letters addressed to Horace Mann (July 26 and August 1, 1765), makes himself the echo of these groundless fears: "Marshal Belle-Isle said a few days ago that he thought us incapable of defending ourselves, and that, with five thousand French soldiers, he would undertake to conquer England; and this is the time chosen to set him free." Nothing in the correspondence of Belle-Isle justifies the report of Walpole.

By a strange coincidence, on the day when Belle-Isle left Dover for France, the young Stuart was arriving in Scotland, almost alone. Nobody could believe that the son of the Pretender would do such a bold thing if he had not behind him a French squadron. The peo-

ple of England did not know that D'Argenson had turned a deaf ear to all the solicitations of the Pretender. In the manifesto of Charles Edward, George was represented as considering England as a mere conquest, and as living chiefly in Hanover, and spending in his electorate all the wealth derived from India and the New World. George was so angry with the manifesto that he tore his wig and his lace ruffles. He was obliged to return to England, and to reconcile himself with Prussia, as he could not abandon his electorate to his dangerous neighbor.

The pacification of Germany required not only the reconciliation of Hanover and Prussia, it required also the consent of Maria Theresa and her final abandonment of Silesia. The English Ambassador, Sir Thomas Robinson, announced with fear and trembling to the proud Queen of Hungary the change which had taken place in the feelings and the resolutions of England; and when Charles Edward, having rallied an army round him, marched on Edinburgh, England hastened to conclude with Frederick's envoy a convention which reëstablished the treaty of Breslau, and which left Silesia to Frederick and Bohemia to Maria Theresa. In this convention, England stipulated for her allies. She promised a cessation of hostilities in Germany and a mutual guarantee of the territories of the contending parties, and on these conditions Frederick was to give his vote to the Grand Duke in the imperial election.

This diplomatic act was conceived outside of all the usual rules, but it was dictated by an imperious necessity. England had no more consulted Austria than Frederick had consulted France. Frederick had resolved to act independently of Louis XV. so soon as Conti's army had crossed the Rhine. In a letter which he prepared for the King of France, he said: "Your Majesty has not served the interests of his allies in Germany, so he has lost them one after another. I am mortified at what is going to happen, but I have my conscience clear, for, after all, my first duty is the preservation of my State. I feel that your Majesty will find these truths hard, but they must be told, and princes, however great they may be, must get accustomed to the truth." The secretary who received this piece, with order to copy, was so frightened by it that he sent it to Podewils, and, on second thought, Frederick consented to change it, and he replaced it by another, very different in tone, much more ironical than serious. "What I can tell your Majesty seems very little in comparison with what is going on in Flanders. . . . In so fine a picture there is only one spot which disfigures a part of it. I speak of the retreat of the Prince de Conti; he puts the crown on the head of the Grand Duke and places the allies of your Majesty in a violent and dangerous condition. For the present, the evil is without a remedy, and I take the election of the Grand Duke to be certain."

The irony was felt, and Louis XV. made no answer. The Duc de Broglie admits very extenuating circumstances for what the French historians have sometimes called the treason of Frederick. He condemns the weakness of the French Cabinet and the stupidity of D'Argenson, who did not know how to use his liberty and to treat with Maria Theresa. D'Argenson remained faithful in principle to the Prussian alliance, though he did nothing for Frederick; he had a great repugnance to the Austrian alliance; he lost one ally and would not find another.

Maria Theresa learned at the same moment of the election of her husband, the Grand-Duke, as Emperor, under the name of Francis I., and of the Hanover convention, which had been signed by England and Frederick. Her first feeling was one of great irritation, and she proposed to Louis XV., by the intermediary of the French ministers in Saxony and in Bavaria, to treat with her. She positively refused to adhere to the convention with Hanover. The negotiation with France had no result, chiefly on account of the ill-will of D'Argenson, who could not detach himself from the Prussian alliance even when Prussia had ceased to be an ally. Maria Theresa obstinately refused, notwithstanding the entreaties of the English Government, to treat with Prussia, and, with her usual boldness, she resolved, in concert with Saxony, to attack in a winter campaign the hereditary provinces of Frederick. She concentrated an army on the frontier of Saxony. She negotiated with Russia, who promised to help her with a timely intervention.

Frederick was informed of this plan by an indiscretion of Count Brühl, the Saxon Minister. He lost no time, placed an army of observation at Halle, and watched himself, on the frontier of Silesia and of Lusatia, the army of Prince Charles of Lorraine. The military operations were very ill-conducted on the Austrian side; as soon as Prince Charles moved he was attacked, and he immediately retreated. Frederick promptly ordered the army which was at Halle, under Prince Anhalt, to march on Leipzig and Dresden, and to treat the Saxons as enemies. Meanwhile, he sent a message to Augustus III., and offered him peace on condition of adhering to the Hanover convention. Augustus fled from Dresden and left for Prague, abandoning Saxony. Anhalt arrived before Dresden and gained a victory under its walls. Frederick entered the capital of Saxony and dictated the terms of peace, not only to the unfortunate Augustus, but also, it may be said, to Maria Theresa. She at last felt that she could no longer struggle. Frederick claimed nothing but the conditions of the treaty of Breslau, where he made a triumphant entry. His Saxon campaign won for him the admiration of all Europe. Maurice de Saxe, the conqueror of Fontenoy, wrote to him: "I cannot help, as a Saxon, sympathizing with the sufferings of Saxony; but my admiration for what took place there passes all expression. The learned and judicious manœuvres of your Majesty offer a vast subject for meditation. I cannot sufficiently admire them, and, since Alexander and Cæsar, I know nothing so great or so striking." Coming from such a man, these words were not idle expressions of adulation; the campaign of Frederick in Saxony deserved afterwards the study and the praise of Napoleon I.

Correspondence.

THE NATIONAL WEALTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have before me a paper entitled 'Wealth of the Republic,' by Chas. S. Hill, read before the American Association for the Advancement of Science. In it I note a rather caustic criticism of the census estimate of the national wealth, as published in the volume on Valuation, Debt, and Taxation. Mr. Hill objects to it on the three following grounds: (1) That it does not agree with certain official State figures; (2) that several important industries are not given; and (3) "that the figures of items as specified in different parts of the census do not harmonize."

On the first count little defence can be made. The public must choose between the results of the Federal census, with its resources for information, and those figures given out under State authority. On the second count the defence is more complete. The omissions in the census estimate are presumably supplied by Mr. Hill in his own estimate of our national wealth, which he itemizes as follows:

	Millions of dollars
Real estate, urban property	15,000
Farms, assessed value	10,000
Personal property	6,000
Manufactures	8,000
Railroads	7,500
Stock and farm implements	4,000
Minerals	800
Banking	700
Insurance, life assets	400
Insurance, fire assets	200
Canals	170
Shipping	150
Forest	100
Telegraphs	100
Sundries, floating investments, etc.	2,000
Public property	5,000
	58,120 (*sic*)
From which deduct the national debt	1,700
	56,920 (*sic*)

It appears from a comparison of this table with a similar one accompanying the census estimate, that banking, life and fire insurance, and floating investments were omitted in the latter. Mr. Hill must know that these consist of real estate, mortgages, notes, and specie. The first item he has already included. The second and third have no value from a national standpoint. Specie is included in the census estimate.

The third count is as easily disposed of. Mr. Hill instances in a footnote the fact that the value of real estate, as given in the census estimate of true valuation, is largely in excess of the *assessed* value, as given elsewhere in the census report. He ignores the fact that the assessed valuation is everywhere so specified distinctly. Is it possible that he is not aware that the assessed and true values are seldom the same, and that the latter is usually greatly in excess of the former? Again, he finds a discrepancy between the value of personal property as returned by the assessors and the item of household goods, etc., in the estimate of wealth. It is not surprising that he does. They bear no relation to one another.

Concluding, I would recommend that Mr. Hill read with care the paper on the true valuation of the United States in the census report. He will learn that the national wealth consists entirely of tangible articles, excepting perhaps franchises, good will, and credit, the value of which cannot be estimated. He will learn that paper obligations do not add to the nation's wealth, any more than a note drawn by himself in his own favor increases his assets. He will learn that the national debt, so far as it is held by our own citizens, does not reduce the national wealth, and should not be deducted from it. And possibly he may discover that the estimate of wealth therein presented was made with some care, and not without intelligence.—Very respectfully, Henry Gannett.

U. S. Geological Survey,
Washington, D. C., July 10, 1888.

BEGGING ARTS OF A FAMILY PAPER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some of your readers may perhaps be surprised to learn that your interesting account of the manual of instructions for the use of beggars, with which the members of that fraternity can supply themselves in France, is not without a parallel in our own country, which, though somewhat different in purport, affords equally convincing evidence that "the business of begging has been reduced to an art," and that the means are not wanting for the education of sneaks.

The "instructions" have not indeed been *publicly* issued with us, but for that reason it is all the more important to warn the public against the wiles that are practised to conjure money from their pockets. I venture, therefore, to send you a literal copy of a document of which I accidentally became possessed, issued to their solicitors by the proprietors of a "family paper" in one of our principal cities. The paper had at the time, to my personal knowledge, a very wide circulation in the country, and the means by which it was obtained are made manifest in these instructions.

Each solicitor was provided with a "chromo" for exhibition, a copy of which would be furnished to every subscriber, and here are the directions for trapping the game:

INSTRUCTIONS TO AGENTS.

(Confidential.)

Never say at first that you wish to solicit a subscription.

Attract the attention and excite the interest by showing the chromo which you must always have at hand.

Presuming that you have previously ascertained the name of the party you address, you may use some such words as the following:

"Mr. ——, I have taken the liberty of calling to show you the most pleasing and artistic chromo ever made in America. It is after a painting by Sir Joshua Reynolds, one of England's famous painters. It is printed in sixteen different impressions in oil to get the coloring and shading of the original painting. It sells in the art stores for ten dollars. (This mention of the retail price rarely fails to attract attention.) *But I do not sell them.* The chromo is given to all subscribers to the paper I represent, the largest, cheapest, and most entertaining family paper in the country."

You may then go on to show the points and excellence of the chromo; what people and the press say of it, etc., etc.

Having succeeded in exciting an interest in the picture, the agent should proceed to show that the paper alone is worth the subscription, and the combination is the greatest offer ever made by a publisher to the American people.

The agent should be provided with a small book, an ordinary pass book will do, which at the proper point he should produce and show the names he has secured. Be careful never to do this in a manner that will convey an impression that you *expect* thus to influence the party you are addressing.

Answer all objections with quiet good humor.

Never argue a point. Objections are generally simply excuses for not subscribing. The best way to treat them is to go on with your story till they are forgotten.

Do not be put off by promises to subscribe at a future time. People will often say, "Perhaps I'll subscribe when you call again." This is only an excuse; urge the advantage of subscribing *now*.

Get the names of some of the leading and most influential persons of all sects belonging to the place. You can often accomplish it by frankly confessing your object in securing their names. It has great influence. Many agents keep all their old lists, as they may often secure subscribers by exhibiting them.

The grand secret of obtaining subscribers is *influence*. Get a list properly started, and men and women will subscribe because their neighbors have done so. Go first to the most influential men—clergymen, editors, etc.—and secure their names and written commendation if you can. Never disturb a man when busy. Don't talk too much.

Make a memd. of all who are out when you call, and don't fail to call again.

Study this circular carefully and keep it for future reference. The hints it contains were written by one who has had wide experience, and knows the pleasures and troubles of a canvassing agent.

It is melancholy to reflect that such widespread imbecility exists as is proved by the mere fact of the issuance of a document so obviously the result of experience in dealing with it. Perhaps its publication may have a wholesome effect upon some of those who are its intended victims. H. W. S. C.

MINNEAPOLIS, July 7, 1888.

Notes.

MACMILLAN & Co. will be the American publishers of a cheap edition of Mrs. Humphry Ward's 'Robert Elsmere.'

Our readers have already received such an inkling as we could give them of the extraordinary interest pertaining to the Wagner-Liszt correspondence lately published in Germany. With commendable diligence Dr. Franz Hueffer has completed an English version, likewise in two volumes ('Correspondence of Wagner and Liszt.' New York: Scribner & Welford). The translator's competence for his task is a very comforting assurance, and he has had the good sense to omit nothing, and to cleave closely to the style of the original, even at the expense of fire and flow which might occasionally have been attained by paraphrase. He speaks feelingly in his preface of his wrestling in certain letters with Wagner's grammatical carelessness and obscurity of diction. He promises, if the public will support him, hereafter "to supply notes and a serviceable index, to give a clue to the various persons who are hidden under initials." It is much to be regretted that the index was not prepared for the present edition. Dr. Hueffer would also have honored his aim to produce a "facsimile" by another breach with the German edition. The date-lines of the letters should have been put at the head, not the end, and a running-title or other device should have announced the writer in each case.

A selection of Mendelssohn's letters ('Briefe von F. M. Bartholdy') has been edited by Mr. James Sime for the Pitt Press Series of Cambridge University (New York: Macmillan). Mr. Sime furnishes an introduction and notes. The text is in the German character. It has been derived from the "Reisebriefe" and from the correspondence of the years 1833-1847.

A sixth edition of Mr. Sweetser's 'Maritime Provinces: A Handbook for Travellers' (Boston: Ticknor & Co.) proves that one every other year is the rule, and that the attractiveness of this part of the continent is steadily appreciated. In fact, since the first editions of this guide-book, Eastern fashion has virtually annexed one island, Campobello, adjacent to our shores. Mr. Sweetser is the best companion who has yet presented himself for the excursion tourist in this part of the Dominion.

Miss Charlotte M. Yonge has deserved well of all those who appreciate honest effort, and it is therefore with no desire to be disagreeable that we say of her 'What Books to Lend and What to Give,' recently issued in London, that it is very parochial, and distinctly inferior in breadth and in disinterestedness to Miss C. M. Hewins's 'Books for the Young,' which Miss Yonge seems never to have heard of. Perhaps the limitations of Miss Yonge's lists can best be shown by an extract or two from her pages: "The tales that have any dissenting bias, or which appear to involve false doctrine, are, of course, omitted" (p. 13). "In spite of all its peculiarities," the 'Pilgrim's Progress' "must be admitted; it is not likely that Bunyan's doctrines will do any harm (!), though for these purposes we do regret that Dr. Neale's edition, arranged for Church people, is out of print" (p. 51). Mark Twain's 'Prince and Pauper,' a "most diverting book, . . . has one grievous flaw—it marries a man to his sister-in-law, but only in the last two pages, and with so little preparation that the passages might be extirpated without any one missing them" (p. 61). We approve of the frankness with which Miss Yonge inserts the titles of her own books—an editor who is worth his salt should not be squeamish; Longfellow, who was a model editor, quoted abundantly from himself. But we do not quite see how it is that Miss Yonge omits 'The Prince of the House of David,' 'Ben-Hur,' and 'In His Name.'

Under the title 'Civics for Young Americans' (A. Lovell & Co.) Mr. W. M. Giffin undertakes to explain the forms of government in general, and to expound in particular the Constitution of the United States, with such simplicity as to insure their "easy comprehension by the youngest reader." Such a task is only possible if we use the term "comprehension" in the narrowest way, and it could even then be accomplished only by a writer much more thoroughly acquainted with political history than Mr. Giffin seems to be. He apparently supposes that true patriotism is to be aroused in children by indiscriminate laudation of our own institutions, and ignorant disparagement of those of other countries, especially England. A generation ago this conception prevailed, but we have advanced beyond it. We now have several books upon government that reflect this advance, and are yet elementary enough for such scholars as have attained a proper age for these studies, and this book is in most respects so inferior that it cannot enter into competition with them.

Pertinent to this subject is a little descriptive list of works on civil government constituting "Circular of Information, No. 1," of the Massachusetts Society for Promoting Good Citizenship. Of this organization we hear for the first time. The Rev. E. E. Hale is President; Mr. Edward Atkinson is one of the Vice-Presidents; the Secretary is C. F. Crehore, M.D., whose address is Box 1252, Boston. We owe to its Committee upon Courses of Reading and Study the pamphlet before us, whose aim is to operate directly upon the pupils in the public schools by providing lists of text-books, commentaries, and books of reference. Thus in section 1 we have Andrews's 'Manual of the U. S. Constitution,' Miss Dawes's 'How We Are Governed,' Nordhoff's 'Politics for Young Americans,' etc., etc., analyzed and rated for the teacher. The same helpful scheme is observed throughout. The Committee have in contemplation a similar service to higher institutions—a list of courses in reading, or select libraries, to be had for $10, $25, $50, $100, etc. This is all admirable, and Massachusetts cannot bound the sphere of the Society's influence.

Shakspere's 'Richard II.' and 'Henry V.' (Part I.), Plato's 'Crito and Phædo,' Coventry Patmore's Poems, and Clara Reeve's 'Old English Baron' are the latest additions to "Cassell's National Library."

'La Littérature française au moyen âge,' by M. Gaston Paris (Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof), has just appeared. This is the first of the four volumes of the "Manuel d'ancien français IX^e^—XIV^e^ siècle," which has been in preparation for some years. The three other volumes are to be a 'Grammaire sommaire de l'ancien français,' a 'Choix de textes français au moyen âge,' and a Glossary. These promise to be the most complete and valuable initiation into the old French language and literature that has ever been made. A selection from them, for use as a class-book, was issued last year under the title, 'Extraits de la Chanson de Roland et de la Vie de Saint Louis par Joinville' (Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof). This contained about 300 pages of glossaries and grammatical observations, besides valuable literary and other notes. The first volume of the complete work now published is a sketch of mediæval French literature, which will be at-

tractive, not only to the special student, but to any one interested in the study of literature.

Two years ago M. Octave Uzanne gathered together his lighter essays on books and book-making, and sent them forth as 'Nos Amis les Livres,' and he has now made a second and similar collection, 'Les Zigzags d'un Curieux: causeries sur l'art des livres et la littérature d'art' (Paris: Quantin; New York: F. W. Christern), which is almost uniform, externally and internally, with its pleasant predecessor. Most of the eight chapters have appeared in *Le Livre*, which M. Uzanne edits. There are papers about women book-lovers (of whom Mr. Lang has also written charmingly), about modern French engraving, about autograph collectors, about Balzac, about Baudelaire, and also about trifles, great and small. M. Uzanne's style is precious and yet modern; he has a touch of his own, and looks at life and at literature out of his own eyes. His attack on the papers of Paris for the enormously greater attention paid to plays than is given to books, is lacking neither in piquancy nor in verity, though it is likely to be unprofitable enough, as far as any direct result is concerned. The plea for the reconstruction aud improvement of the Hôtel Drouot, where Parisian sales by auction are chiefly held, is one which we can heartily echo. M. Uzanne's book is admirably printed on Dutch paper, in an edition limited to 665 copies.

For the thirteenth time MM. Noël and Stoullig send forth their solid 'Annales du Théâtre et de la Musique' (Paris: Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern), and to this account of the dramatic doings of 1887 M. Jules Claretie, now the director of the Théâtre-Français, contributes an interesting preface, in which he indirectly answers the charge that the Comédie-Française is in its decadence, by an apt comparison with the stage of a century ago, and an ingenious accumulation of the pessimistic sayings of those who have seen the stage "going to the dogs" regularly every few years. The unique position of the theatre M. Claretie manages is also shown by the fourth appearance of another annual, 'Répertoire de la Comédie-Française,' by M. Charles Gueulette (Paris: Librairie de Bibliophiles; New York: F. W. Christern), a dainty little book, nearly uniform with the beautiful series of the 'Almanach des Spectacles.' The performances of what other theatre in the world would afford material for a volume every year? For M. Gueulette's books M. Abot has etched a series of admirable portraits of the actresses who now adorn the stage of the Théâtre-Français—Mmes. Bartet, Dudlay, Reichemberg, and Baretta. To the volume for 1887 M. Édouard Thierry, one of the most erudite of French dramatic critics, and himself a former manager of the Théâtre-Français, contributes a preface, in which he shows how the recent breaking down of the prejudice against the stage has brought on the boards performers in greater abundance than ever before, and from wholly different classes of society.

Dainty likewise is the *Annuaire des Traditions Populaires* (Paris: Maisonneuve, 25 Quai Voltaire), containing first the constitution and by-laws of the Popular Traditions Society; then a list of its members; then, by way of garnishing, sundry *contes* and *chansons*—one or two broad and broadly illustrated; and, finally, a "bibliothèque folklorique," by M. Loys Brueyre, which speaks for itself. An old engraving of the Temptation of Eve here reproduced is in style manifestly of German origin; and this is confirmed by the serpent's having a woman's form—Mephistopheles's "aunt" (*die berühmte Schlange*).

The American sale of Daudet's 'L'Immortel: Mœurs Parisiennes' has been bespoken by William R. Jenkins, 851 Sixth Avenue, who has ventured upon an order of 1,000 copies for this market.

We duly chronicled, on the appearance of its first issue, the new departure taken by 'Pierer's Konversations-Lexikon' in its seventh edition (Stuttgart: W. Spemann). *Pari passu* and on the same page with the customary cyclopædic matter, an added narrow external column is made to carry twelve linguistic dictionaries under one alphabet. Moreover, equivalents in the same languages are affixed to each German word in the major alphabet. The labor implied in this combination, to insure accuracy, can, as the publisher truly says, not be imagined by one who has not seen a proof-sheet of the work. Nevertheless, the price remains low and within the reach of the ordinary buyer. The first fifteen parts of the 'Lexikon' are now before us, ending with the article on Asia. There are numerous illustrations, particularly under the rubric Architecture, maps of a simple and popular sort, excellent colored plates of fruits and flowers. The engravings have for the most part the stamp of an earlier school and generation, but they are all useful and authentic, and the newest are process work and quite as good as is called for. Of the text it may be said that the new polyglot feature "on Joseph Kürschner's system," as above described, constitutes the chief distinction of the 'Lexikon' over others.

A searching but good-tempered review of Mr. Froude's 'English in the West Indies,' which originally appeared in *Timehri*, the Journal of the Royal Agricultural and Commercial Society of British Guiana, comes to us as a reprint (Demerara: The *Argosy* Press). The writer is Mr. N. Darrell Davis, and his title is sufficiently suggestive: "Mr. Froude's Negrophobia; or, Don Quixote as a Cook's Tourist." Mr. Davis holds that "the future of the West Indies belongs to the Mixed Race." So far from the mulattoes dying out, they number one to every four Africans in Jamaica. Intermarriages are increasingly numerous throughout the archipelago. This year jubilee celebrations will signalize the fiftieth anniversary of (actual) emancipation, and "promise of themselves," says Mr. Davis, "to be a refutation of Mr. Froude's cynical attempt still further to blacken the Black Man." "Froudacity" is a neat word of Mr. Davis's coinage to express the variety of error which habitually distinguishes the historian's utterances.

The imposing form of *Current Literature*, a new monthly just launched at No. 42 W. Twenty-third St., and intended "to deal with current literature in an eclectic way," is all that the projectors have achieved which is worth mentioning. A greater premium on intellectual dissipation, or a more striking example of the confusion of standards of taste, we do not remember. The compilers are most scrupulous in giving credit to the esteemed contemporaries from whom they borrow, and both writers and editors may be flattered by the compliment; but as many crimes are here committed in the name of Literature as ever were in the name of Liberty. The original contributions are very meagre.

Appearances do not belie the *Journal* of the Gypsy Lore Society, printed by the Constables in Edinburgh, and edited by Mr. David MacRitchie, at 4 Archibald Place, in that gray metropolis of the North. The aim of this new publication is to further the solution of the vexed questions relating to the gypsies, as, whence come they? when did they first set foot in England, in America, etc.? No. 1 has articles on Turkish and Catalonian Gypsies, on the Early Annals of the Gypsies in England, a specimen Rumanian-Gypsy Folk-Tale; statistics of the race in Germany; South-Austrian Romany applied to versions of Shakspere and the Bible, etc., etc. Not the least interesting portion is the Notes and Queries. The whole number has a refreshingly authoritative stamp, and is a capital beginning.

Apropos of our correspondence on another page concerning the Bologna festival, we must mention the great beauty of the special edition of the *Illustrazione Italiana* (Milan: Fratelli Treves) relating to this memorable occasion. "Bononia Docet" is its title. In the compilation of its contents and in the choice of subjects for engraving, the greatest judgment and taste have been displayed. The portraits are numerous, and include King Humbert, Rector Capellini, Boselli, Gandino, Carducci, Guerrini, Saffi, etc.; while town and University are depicted in many aspects.

—The twentieth annual meeting of the American Philological Association was held in Amherst July 10, 11, and 12, with an unusually large number of members present. The President, Prof. Isaac H. Hall of New York city, delivered the opening address on Tuesday evening on "The Legacy of the Syrian Scribes." During the session, papers were read on "A New Allegory in the First Book of 'The Faerie Queen,'" by J. Ernest Whitney; on "Changes in the Roman Constitution proposed by Cicero (De Leg. iii, 3, 6-5, 12)," by Prof. William A. Merrill; on "The Cure Inscriptions from Epidaurus," by James R. Wheeler, Ph.D.; on "English Pronunciation, how Learned," and "Volapük and the Law of Least Effort," by Prof. F. A. March; on "Theories of English Verse," by the Rev. James C. Parsons; on "Peculiarities of Affix in Latin and Greek," by Charles S. Halsey; on "A Consideration of the Method Employed in Lighting the Vestal Fire," by Morris H. Morgan, Ph.D.; on "Contamination in Latin Comedy," by Prof. F. D. Allen; on the "Tripods of Hephæstus," in Hom. Il. xiii, by Prof. Thomas D. Seymour; on "Impersonal Verbs," by Julius Goebel, Ph.D.; on "The Authorship of the Cynicus of Lucian," by Josiah Bridge, Ph.D.; on "The Identity of Words," by Prof. L. L. Patwin; on "Observations on the Fourth Eclogue of Vergil," by Prof. W. S. Scarborough; on the "*Lex Curiata de Imperio*" and "On the Locality of the *Saltus Teutoburgiensis*," by Prof. William F. Allen; on "Arbutus," by Prof. F. P. Brewer; on the "Adrasteia in Plato's Republic," by Prof. Seymour; and on "The History of the Medicean Manuscripts of Cicero's Letters," by Robert F. Leighton, Ph.D. The paper on the "Theories of English Verse" called out a spirited discussion on the essential character and beauty of English metre. On Wednesday evening the Association was given a reception by Prof. and Mrs. L. H. Elwell in one of the chapter houses. At a business meeting, Prof. Seymour of Yale University was elected President for the ensuing year.

—Never has there been such a generous output by the English Dialect Society as this year, when four volumes are issued (London: Trübner), of which one alone, Mr. F. T. Elsworthy's 'West Somerset Word-Book,' fills 876 octavo pages. The others are the third and concluding part of Mr. Robert Holland's 'Glossary of Words used in the County of Chester'—a kind of supplement; Mr. Thomas Darlington's 'Folk Speech of South Cheshire'; and Messrs. Parish and Shaw's 'Dictionary of the Kentish Dialect, and Provincialisms in use in the County of Kent.' Mr. Elsworthy's performance is almost as near to being first in quality as in bulk, and

will be found extremely readable. Thus, under the word *dowse*, 'to use the divining-rod for the purpose of finding springs of water,' we have an account of this much debated operation, beginning with the positive statement, "The faculty possessed by some individuals is truly marvellous." The editor tells of three "professional dowsers" who independently located the same spot on a high and apparently very dry spot where a sanatorium was to be built; and inasmuch as one of his daughters has the power to some extent, and asserts that she cannot twist the rod by any conscious effort, Mr. Elsworthy concludes against chicanery. Of the sixth letter of the alphabet he tells us that

"it will usually be found that words beginning with *f* which have come to us from the Latin, whether through French or not, and all imported words in *f*, keep their initial letter sharp and distinct, while archaic and Teutonic words, though written with *f*, are sounded as *v*. It is the neglect of this rule, and of the cognate one as to *s* and *z*, which has made Western dialect writers ridiculous to native ears—from Ben Jonson and Shakspere down to *Punch* and the local newspapers. Even Peter Pindar and Nathan Hogg have transgressed very frequently. On the other hand, it often happens that words in initial *v*, especially when emphasized, are pronounced as in sharp *f*."

From the side of its phonetics, we have been struck with the many resemblances of the West Somerset dialect to our own negro speech, and there is one emphatic word, *inty*, rendered 'not I,' and used after a negative assertion, curiously like the Sea Island *enty?* an interrogation of surprise. "Indeed" could be substituted for either locution. Yankeeisms also abound in this dialect. The *Athenæum* having called "*riding* in a gig" an Americanism, Mr. Elsworthy retorts that "no other phrase would be used by a Somerset native." Our very colloquial and rather vulgar "So long!" is also a familiar valediction in England. "'Well then, *zo long!*' is a very common form of saying *good bye*." It "is mostly used in West Somerset, especially about Bruton, but is heard occasionally in the West."

—The Kentish dialect is, we are told, peculiar rather in its phraseology and pronunciation than its words, yet some of these, as collected by Messrs. Parish and Shaw, are very singular. That after an elaborate glossary of the dialect of Cheshire County there should still be room for a good-sized one for South Cheshire, is proof of the wonderful wealth of the mine worked by the Society. Mr. Darlington has had the benefit of Mr. Holland's labors, and occasionally offers a criticism, as in discrediting a specimen of dialect poetry admitted by the latter to his Part III. Notable in this supplementary issue is *enoo*, a plural form of *enuf*, as "muck *enuf* for my graind, an' pratas *enoo* for set it"; but most valuable are the several lists showing the pronunciation of place and family names, the collection of proverbs, colloquial sayings, weather lore, etc., the tales, poems, and customs. We subjoin some samples of phonetic abrasion in place names: Altrincham (pronounced Awtojum, Awtridgum, Thrutchum), Cholmondeley (Chumly), Davenport (Dainpurt), Eardswick (Yarzic), Gawsworth (Gōzuth), Hough (Uf), Hough's Bank (Aoof's Bonk), Hurdsfield (Utsfilt), Macclesfield (Maxfilt, Maxilt, Max'l't), Piemondstall or Plemstall (Plimston, Plimsta), Ringway (Runja, Runjy), Tiverton (Teert'n), Wildboarclough (Wilbertluf). In personal names, take Bancroft (Banky), Greenhalgh (Grinna), Heald (Yeld), Mainwaring (Mannering), Schofield (Scowsel), Woolstencroft (Oos'ncroft). Cheshire seems also to be the home of a proverbial comparison probably losing ground in this country, though well known to the last generation. Mr. Holland gives it—"As queer as Dick's hatband, as went nine times round and would na tee at last." In South Cheshire, according to Mr. Darlington, they say—"it went nine times raind, an' wudna reach the tie"; and he declares he can make nothing of this expression. Mr. Darlington's glossary deserves very high praise for its execution. He gives the pronunciation, with outlines of the grammar, of the South Cheshire speech, which is very exclusive, so that only three per cent. of Romance words are to be found in it.

—The Society's fourteenth annual report is prefixed to Mr. Darlington's volume. Of chief interest is the part which relates to the projected English Dialect Dictionary, to be edited by the Rev. A. Smythe Palmer. Nearly one hundred workers, one-fourth being ladies, are pledged to read books for quotations, or to contribute word-lists or oral specimens. Only about one-twentieth of the sum deemed necessary for the publication ($25,000) has been raised, but the Rev. W. W. Skeat, who is acting as Treasurer of the fund, is so eager for the fruition of this great enterprise, that he assumes the burden of any deficiency on the 31st of December, 1888. But it would not be just to allow him to make this sacrifice out of his own pocket.

—The mails bring the news of the sudden and accidental death, at barely two-score years, of Edmund Gurney of London, whose essays, 'Tertium Quid,' were reviewed in our pages not many weeks ago. Mr. Gurney gave all who knew him such a sense of intellectual power that what he had already published seemed but a prelude to some certainly exceptional future philosophical achievement. As it is, his reputation will depend largely on the development of "Psychical Research." If that proves a sound movement, he will of course have the celebrity which falls to successful forerunners and founders. Pending that, he has by that monument of patience and fairness, the 'Phantasms of the Living,' at least forced a new present branch of study on the unwilling scientific world. His experiments on certain post-hypnotic states have broken ground in what promises to be an extraordinarily fruitful direction. His 'Power of Sound' is the freshest and truest book on æsthetics in English, and possibly in any language. His personal graces were rare; and such were the keenness of his demands on life, the depth of his aims, the subtlety of his intellect, and his capacity for work, that one cannot but feel as if the destroying angel had outdone even himself in heartlessness, by cutting such a man off ere he had fairly begun, as it were, to show his hand.

—A certain amount of opposition to international copyright is due to the ignorant notions of many people as to what is secured when a copyright is taken out for a book. The belief is prevalent that it is the *idea* of the book, or some novel conception of the subject-matter of the work, or some discovery that is set out in it which it is intended to protect. This confusion is no doubt partly due to the unfortunate mixing up of copyright and patent-right, due in its turn to the linking together of these two subjects in the section of the Constitution which authorizes Congress to legislate concerning them. It doubtless also partly arises from the difficulty experienced by persons who have never written a book, in realizing that to discover or think out the ideas which it is intended to illustrate in a projected work, is but the first and often the easiest step in its production. They know nothing about the difficult art of expression, and have no conception of the labor involved in properly presenting to the reader the thought in the mind of the writer, and therefore find it hard to understand that it is the product of this latter kind of labor, and this only, which is protected by the law of copyright. Mr. Henry George, in the *Standard* for June 23, in answer to a correspondent who declares that he has no belief in "any natural property in the creations of one's brains," says some pertinent things upon this point. Concerning the difference between the patent for an invention and the copyright of a book, his contention is that the former, granting rights of property in an idea, "rests on no natural right, but can only be upheld as a matter of policy," whereas the latter gives no property in ideas, but "merely recognizes the right of property in a particular form, itself a product of labor, in which ideas are made tangible; a right which, irrespective of questions of policy, is a natural right—resting on the same ground as the right of the fisherman to the fish he catches, of the farmer to the crop he raises, of the builder to the house he constructs." The true basis of the right of property in anything is that it "was produced—*i. e.*, brought forth—by human exertion." But discovery can give no right of ownership, even though "this discovery may be the result of labor," Mr. George argues, for "no man can discover anything which, so to speak, was not put there to be discovered, and which some one else might not in time have discovered"; therefore, "the expenditure of labor in the invention or discovery of the idea of a machine gives no natural right of ownership in the idea," the natural reward of labor so expended being in the "use that can be made of the discovery without interference with the right of any one else to use it."

—Coming to the protection of literary property, Mr. George says:

"Now a book—I do not mean the printed and bound volume which is the result of the labor of printers, bookbinders, and subsidiary industries, but the succession of words which is the result of the labor of the author—if not a material thing, is quite as tangible a thing as a machine. And in the labor that goes to its production there are the same two separable parts. There is what I have called the 'labor of discovery,' which goes to the idea of the book, and as to which, as in the case of the inventor of the machine, the author must draw on those who have gone before. . . . There is also the labor of production—labor of essentially the same kind, though it deals not with matter, but with immaterial things, as that which in the case of a machine is expended in bringing wood, steel, brass, etc., into certain proportions and relations. It is this labor of production, which results in a tangible identity, that gives ownership to the author as a matter of natural right. And it is this right of ownership not in ideas, but in the tangible result of labor expended in production, that copyright secures."

Mr. George enlarges upon the non-appreciation by persons not authors of the labor involved in "writing out" a book (to which we have referred above), and concludes by expressing the hope that his correspondent will, upon reflection, come to the conclusion that the recognition of the right of property in literary productions, "instead of being like that system of spoliation called protection, an impairment and denial of natural right, is but the securing to the author of the natural reward of his labor."

—*La Réforme Sociale*, the fortnightly organ of the "Société d'Économie Sociale" founded by Le Play in 1856, contains, in its number for June 16, an article by M. Henri Duquaire, on the law of inheritance in France, and its relation to the birth-rate. The subject is not a new one, having been discussed by Le Play himself in his 'L'Organisation de la Famille,' published in 1871, and, in the same year, in a

volume by M. Claudio Jannet. In another column we notice a French statistical work in which the subject recurs. M. Duquaire can hardly be said to have proved his thesis, or to have added anything novel to the discussion. He deals too much in rhetorical phrases about the true, the beautiful, and the good. The picture he draws of the rural population of France, however, has curious points of resemblance to that presented in Zola's 'La Terre,' and this corroboration from an unexpected quarter constitutes, perhaps, the chief strength of his argument. That the French laws limiting the right of bequest have worked great moral injury, and should be considerably modified, if not repealed, we are firmly persuaded. The interest of this fact for us lies in its application to the current reaction in favor of Government interference and over-legislation. The a-priori arguments in favor of the existing French laws of inheritance are as strong as can be desired, and the principal argument against them is the general contention, so forcibly put in the writings of Herbert Spencer, that the State should not meddle.

—As bearing on this general topic, another article in the same journal may be mentioned, namely, that on compulsory insurance of workingmen, and its leanings to State socialism. Here again, while the doctrine is sound and clear, the method of treatment is confused and vague. Correct economic reasoning is weakened by an incongruous admixture of religious considerations which appeal to a different class of minds. The same question is handled in a strictly scientific manner in the last two numbers of Schmoller's *Jahrbuch*, but the German writers are inclined to uphold the doctrine of State interference which the French writer attacks. A third article, on the causes of the fall of Poland, suffers from the same defects as the other two. The writer, S. Fudakowski, examines and rejects various theories that have been advanced, but when he comes to substitute one of his own, he loses himself in a cloud of rhetoric and glittering generalities. A question like this is not to be dismissed in a paragraph, but it may be said that historical authorities agree that the ancient kingdom or republic of Poland carried the seeds of destruction in its vitals. Its inherent weakness was so evident that, in a speech made to the Diet in 1661, John Casimir predicted the dismemberment of the country by Brandenburg, Austria, and Russia.

LEA'S HISTORY OF THE INQUISITION.—II.

A History of the Inquisition of the Middle Ages. By Henry Charles Lea. 3 vols. Harper & Bros. 1888.

In a former notice we spoke of the first volume of Mr. Henry C. Lea's 'History of the Inquisition of the Middle Ages.' In the first half of that volume he described the peculiar conditions of European life and thought which produced the Inquisition, and in the second he gave an account of the origin of the institution and its methods of procedure. In the two volumes now before us we have what might with more propriety be called a 'History of Religious Persecution in the Middle Ages' than a 'History of the Inquisition.'

The second volume is devoted to an account of persecution in the several countries of Europe, and also to the organization of the Inquisition as the instrument in that persecution. In many cases, however, the part played by the Holy Office was so small, or so wholly secondary to the action of local authorities, that one finds it difficult to discover the exact thread of connection. Notably is this the case in the account of heresy in Bohemia, occupying a quarter of the volume, and culminating in the recital of the trial and condemnation of John Hus by the Council of Constance. Hus, up to the time of his appearance at Constance, had been dealt with wholly by the episcopal authority in Bohemia, partly on its own account, partly as agent for the papacy. At Constance he was in the hands of the Council and its agents. The only connection of his trial and that of Jerome with the Inquisition lay in the fact that the methods employed were those which the frequent persecutions for heresy had made familiar to all Europe.

The third volume treats of special fields of inquisitorial activity, and includes under that heading the dealings of the Church with spiritual heretics, political heretics, and such as showed their heresy by pretending to practise any form of sorcery or occult art. The story of spiritual heresy is especially harrowing. The Christian world was full of ardent souls who were struggling after perfection through ways very similar to those which the orthodox Church itself had, over and over again, made use of. Their crime was, that they believed they could do better outside the Catholic fold than within it. If they succeeded in living holy lives of sacrifice and devotion, so much the worse for the institution which claimed for itself the only true source of all holy living. It must at all hazards prevent the scandal of successful rivalry. The all-sufficient excuse for action was found in the charge of heresy, and the all-powerful weapon was ready in the beautifully organized inquisitorial process. Thus the over-zealous Franciscans, the fanatical Flagellants, the pious Beghards and Beguines were all, upon one ground or another, swept into the common accusation of heresy, and the cruel machinery of inquisition set in motion.

Mr. Lea's conclusion is, that trial for heresy was invariably a mere formality. If vigorously managed, it left absolutely no loophole for escape. The only chance for the alleged criminal was in some defect in the trial. If Mr. Lea is right, the essential element in the process was, after all, the use of torture, with its inevitable effect upon the mind of the victim. No matter what resistance the inquisitor might meet in the early stages, there seems to have been scarcely ever a case in which the desired result was not reached by the use, or even by the threat, of physical torment. Thus the whole volume of evidence preserved from the inquisitorial trials loses every particle of value as an accurate record of fact.

Horrible as this view of the trial is, its awfulness becomes almost insignificant by comparison with that larger madness of the community which suffered such perversions of justice, and accepted their results as decisive of the truth in the case. This aspect of the matter becomes especially clear in the account of trial for heresy as a political weapon. Under this head we have detailed sketches of the trials of the Templars, of Joan of Arc, and of Jean Petit, as cases in which the State authority profited by the use of the Inquisition, and of Savonarola, Rienzi, and various other political offenders, as cases in which the profit came to the Church.

In all these trials the Inquisition as such does not play the leading part. It acts merely as the tool of powers anxious for their own safety, and unscrupulous as to the means of maintaining it. A hundred pages are given to "the great crime of the Middle Ages," the destruction of the Temple order, a tale often told, but never with a more careful attention to the legal points involved and a more cautious verdict. Not with any wavering, however. Mr. Lea leaves it quite clear that in his judgment the affair was a gigantic conspiracy against a body of men who, no matter how far they might have fallen from their early purity, were by no possibility guilty of the disgusting and foolish practices alleged against them. They would probably have escaped if Philip of France had not enlisted the papal interest on his side, and thus procured the use of the inquisitorial machinery. There remains but one real mystery in this case: if the papacy was really "bulldozed" into its action by the greed of the King of France, why should it have insisted upon the annihilation of the order in other lands? Again, one has to fall back upon that universal madness, begotten of ignorance and superstition, which made even the preferring of such charges possible.

We can only refer to that chapter of the book which treats of the part taken by the Inquisition in trials for sorcery and other occult arts. If the Holy Office had ever a shadow of justification, it was here. All that hideous swarm of delusions which appear under the names of magic, witchcraft, and dealings with the devil, was at least diminished in extent and violence by the action of the Church. Not that the Church took any really higher ground in these matters than any other part of the community. It believed as much as any one in the delusions which underlay the legal charges. But it was worth something that the Church insisted upon a monopoly of relations with the unknown. There should be no magic but its magic, no dealing with Satan but such as might properly be undertaken under its direction. Thus, for a time, the Church seemed to be almost on the side of reason and light. That it was not really so we know from its attitude towards every searcher after truth who ventured out of its prescribed ways.

We close our notice of this most valuable and imposing contribution to our literature with one criticism as to method. That Mr. Lea has read enormously and in the right books, no reader in his senses can for a moment doubt, but it is to be regretted that he has chosen to give us no systematic account of his sources. We have at the close of every paragraph a fatally abbreviated reference to the books upon which its statements are based, but it is seldom that we can find a full statement even of a title. Still less is there anything like criticism of the sources. In dealing with a subject so open to violent controversy as this, the author is bound to give account of himself. We do not imply that Mr. Lea has not satisfied himself as to the authenticity and value of the mass of very slippery evidence upon which such a story, for instance, as that of Joan of Arc is based. We should, however, have felt in reading his narrative a far greater sense of solidity if we could have been told, however briefly, just the process by which his conclusions were reached. If the question were wholly one of space, we could have better spared a great deal of detailed narration of matters easily found in other books, for the sake of a sounder judgment of the institution which is the nominal subject of this one.

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

Charles Dickens and the Stage; a Record of his connection with the Drama as Playwright, Actor, and Critic. By T. Edgar Pemberton. London: George Redway; New York: Scribner & Welford.

Mr. and Mrs. Bancroft on and off the Stage. Written by themselves. London: Richard Bentley & Son; New York: Scribner & Welford. 2 vols.

Cinq Anniversaires de Molière: 1874, 1875, 1877, 1881, 1886. Par Ernest d'Hervilly. Paris: Frinzine; New York: F. W. Christern.

La Vie au Théâtre. Par Pierre Giffard. Paris: Librairie Illustrée; New York: F. W. Christern.

Le Cirque à pied et à cheval. Par A. J. Dalsème. Paris: Librairie Illustrée; New York: F. W. Christern.

Pantomimes de Paul Legrand. Par Félix et Eugène Larcher. Paris: Librairie Théâtrale; New York: F. W. Christern.

It is impossible to pronounce Mr. Pemberton's book about Dickens's connection with the stage "a felt want filled," as the English advertisement put it. The subject had been well handled and at quite sufficient length by the late Dutton Cook in an article in *Longman's Magazine;* and Mr. Pemberton has been able to do little more than dilute Dutton Cook's essay. He is an extreme Dickens enthusiast, and has prepared his book for those like himself. Accordingly, it is full of remote allusions to Dickens's works, some of which might fitly have found their place in the examination paper on Dickens which the late C. S. Calverley once set, and which Mr. Walter Besant most successfully answered. Mr. Pemberton is a slovenly writer (he stumbles over many an "and which"), and he has read his proof carelessly. It is possible that the stage lost a great actor when Dickens became a novelist. His novels show his fondness for the melodramatic, and his readings revealed his powers as an impersonator. Perhaps the most interesting chapter of Mr. Pemberton's book is that describing the splendid strolling of the Guild of Literature and Art.

From Dickens's letters Mr. Pemberton fails to quote a passage of hearty and discriminating praise which the novelist bestowed on Miss Marie Wilton when she was playing in cheap burlesque at the Strand Theatre. But the letter is not omitted from the two stout volumes which Miss Wilton and her husband have recently published as a joint autobiography. Mr. and Mrs. Bancroft were the originators of the so-called school of Robertsonian comedy. For their acting Mr. T. W. Robertson wrote the chief parts in "Ours" and "Caste" and "School." After his death, the bereaved managers of the little Prince of Wales's Theatre cast about for new plays in vain, and revived old comedies most sumptuously decorated. Then they fell back on the French drama, and produced those twin marvels of inartistic insularity, the adaptations of "Nos Intimes" and "Dora," called "Peril" and "Diplomacy." All that they did was most carefully and conscientiously done. They always engaged as good a company as they could get, willingly playing small parts themselves; and, in spite of a dead failure or two—a feeble play of Mr. Edmund Yates, "Tame Cats," falling very flat, for instance—they made money. In time they took the Haymarket Theatre, redecorated it, and brought out M. Sardou's "Fédora" and Mr. Pinero's interesting "Lords and Commons." Then they retired to an honorable rest. Their influence on the English stage was good, on the whole: they improved the theatres of London both before and behind the curtain; but they raised the price of seats, and they carried to extremes the pestilent practice of overelaborate stage setting. Mr. Bancroft speaks of the extraordinary pains they took to secure exact scenic accuracy in their reproduction of the "Merchant of Venice," in which everything was excellent—scenery, costumes, music, supernumeraries—and only the acting was inferior. Since then, Mr. Irving has taken his company up to West Point, and has acted the "Merchant of Venice" before the cadets on an improvised stage, absolutely without scenery—and never more effectively. The play is the thing, and all else is of very little importance. For the rest, Mr. and Mrs. Bancroft's volumes contain much kindly and harmless gossip about themselves and others; and the student of the stage will find in them much to interest and to amuse him.

The Théâtre-Français and the Odéon Theatre in Paris have the honorable habit of keeping the birthdays of the three great French dramatists, Corneille, Molière, and Racine, by special performances of certain of their masterpieces, and by the recital of occasional poems by the younger poets of the day. Sometimes these occasional poems have the amplitude of a little play, in which some incident in the life of the great dramatist is set on the stage more or less adroitly. M. Ernest d'Hervilly is one of the most fervent of Molière's admirers, and one of the most ingenious of latter-day French lyrists, and on five anniversaries of Molière's birthday he has come forward with an original play in one act, in which the author of the "Précieuses Ridicules" took a chief part. The five little comedies are of unequal merit, of course, but even the slightest is far above the ordinary level of an occasional piece. They are all lively little plays, and they may be recommended to amateur actors who are sufficiently certain of their French accent and of their ability to deliver French verse—no easy task. There is a portrait of M. d'Hervilly by M. Félix Régamey, and there is also a little preface by M. Auguste Vitu, quite needless, but pleasantly complimentary to the French dramatist of our time, and to the French dramatist of all time.

M. Pierre Giffard, who is the special correspondent of the Paris *Figaro*, and who has written a play or two, having prepared a book about "La Vie en chemin de fer" for M. Robida to illustrate, has now followed it with a book on 'La Vie en Théâtre,' pending the production of 'La Vie aux Bains de Mer.' The present book is a piece of machine-made newspaper work, accurate enough, no doubt, but lacking in savor and in any special insight into the tendencies of the stage in France. M. Giffard's 'Tournée du Père Thomas,' which we noticed not long ago, was a superficial study of theatrical life "on the road" in France, and this is a study equally superficial of theatrical life in Paris. Both works give one a sorry idea of the joys of a histrionic career in France. As Thackeray found that the rollicking Irish stories of Lever, which seemed jolly enough externally, were at bottom profoundly melancholy, so most of the lively tales of theatrical life we read every year or two are imbued with a sadness as undeniable as it is no doubt unconscious. This book of M. Giffard's is painful rather than pleasant, for all its factitious gayety. Of the illustrations by M. Robida we do not know exactly what to say. They are rather "comic cuts" than humorous sketches. If vigorous at times, they are always hasty. On the whole, they seem to us to be distinctly unworthy of the illustrator of Rabelais.

M. Dalsème's book about the circus is not unlike M. Giffard's book about the theatre, but it is not as good. M. Giffard has been careful, and his book was conscientiously planned, whereas M. Dalsème is careless, and his pages follow one another haphazard and with numberless digressions. There is, for example, a long excursus on scene-painting in France which has no place here at all. A really well-informed account of the contemporary circus as it flourishes in Germany, in Paris, and in America would be interesting and not without value. And even more useful, perhaps, would be an historical summary of the circus through the changing centuries, from the Olympic games, the combats of the arena, the jongleurs of the Middle Ages, down to the advent of Astley and Franconi and Renz and Barnum. A book of this kind, modelled on Mr. Parton's somewhat similar sketch of the history of caricature, ought to be abundantly illustrated. M. Dalsème has given us neither of these desiderata; his sketch is very slight indeed, and it is padded with not a little irrelevant matter. It will be remembered that when the German retired to his own room and proceeded to evolve the camel out of his inner consciousness, the Frenchman went to the Jardin des Plantes and described the animal as he appeared there in its enclosure. This, it strikes us, is very much what M. Dalsème has done. He has gone to the four circuses of Paris, and he has asked a few questions; and he has inflated this personal observation and this meagre information into a book of three hundred pages.

Just now there seem to be signs of a revival of interest in France in the pantomimic art. M. Raoul de Najac, whose bright 'Retour d'Arlequin' we noticed a year or so ago, and M. Paul Marguerrite, who has succeeded in making Pierrot take part in tragedy, have organized a club for the production of their pantomimes. Thus it is that this collection of the mimic plays of M. Paul Legrand, who was for years the only surviving Pierrot, is most welcome. They are simple scenarios, for the most part, and, as might be expected, many of the incidents are familiar—"La Statue," for example, is almost exactly the same as the one we have been familiar with since the days of the Ravels. The French Pierrot is naïf and cunning; he is wholly free from the vulgar brutality of the British clown. The late George L. Fox, the best mimic of our generation, acted clown as though it were Pierrot—another instance of the American preference for a French tradition over an English. Fox gave his clown the pure white head of Pierrot, not disfigured with the red blotches of the ordinary British clown; and he played the part with a sobriety and a breadth and a recognition of the exact limits of his art, worthy of the highest praise.

THE RURAL ECONOMY OF FRANCE.

Statistique Agricole de la France: Résultats généraux de l'enquête de 1882. Paris.

Les Populations Agricoles de la France. Par H. Baudrillart. Paris. 2 vols. 1886 and 1888.

THESE two publications constitute a very complete and detailed account of the condition of the rural population of France. The official statistics are supplemented by Baudrillart's careful personal inquiry into the moral and material condition of the peasantry—an inquiry which is of a semi-official character, inasmuch as the work, of which two volumes have now been published, is being carried on under the auspices of the Académie des Sciences Morales et Politiques. The long delay in publishing the results of the decennial inquiry, which began in 1882, detracts from the interest of that part which relates to produce and prices; but the information disclosed as to the more slowly changing facts of rural economy, the distribu-

tion of property, methods of occupation, and the comparison of the condition of the people with their condition in 1862, are matters of more enduring interest. The events of 1870-71 prevented the usual inquiry from being made in 1872; the results of the present inquiry are therefore contrasted with one made twenty years before.

The sketch given by M. Tisserand, the Director of Agriculture, of attempts made before this century to collect information as to the condition of farms and farmers, and of the inquiries made in 1840, 1852, and 1862, shows that the present is, as it should be, the most complete and exact account ever taken of the state of agriculture in France. Early inquiries were necessarily inaccurate; the knowledge of necessary precedent facts did not exist, as did not the administrative organization required for the collection of facts and information. It is far more difficult to investigate the condition of a rural than of a city population: they are more widely dispersed; there are infinite varieties of condition, habit, and occupation; their lives are less open to observation, and they are less ready to give information. To obtain it, they must be disarmed of those suspicions which inquiries are sure to arouse.

The earlier reports on agricultural France were to a large extent conjectural statistics. From the examination of a small district, the inquirer extended his reasoning and conclusions to the whole country, with the result that most erroneous ideas were disseminated. This was the case even with so acute an observer as Arthur Young. A cadastral survey must be the basis of any exact inquiry into rural economy. The French survey was only commenced in 1808; nominally finished in 1847, it has only of recent years been fully availed of for statistical purposes.

The characteristic of the French land system is the great division of land ownership. Arthur Young prophesied that France would become the rabbit warren of Europe; English economists have generally followed his lead, and assumed that the division of property in France was carried to excess. The upholders of the old régime in France have done the same; and most erroneous and exaggerated ideas prevailed on this subject among well-informed but biassed Frenchmen. Not many years ago it was confidently asserted in the Senate that there were fourteen million landowners in France. Recent inquiries conducted on more scientific lines indicate that the number of landowners is about eight million. 'Le Morcellement,' by Alfred de Foville, published in 1885, is the most complete examination of this particular question; and his conclusions are confirmed—mathematical precision in such matters being, of course, unattainable—by the present official inquiry.

Statistics must not only be read, but understood, and for this the methods of compilation should be examined. The agricultural population of France is now estimated to be 18,249,209 souls; showing a diminution of nearly 5 per cent. since 1862. The method of classification places villages (*populations agglomérées*) containing over 2,000 inhabitants, among the urban population; the mere increase of a village from just below to just above 2,000 inhabitants would therefore transfer it from one class to the other. A distinct diminution, however, of the rural population is established, and is attributed to these among other less evident causes:

(1.) The increase of wages, which varies from 26 per cent. for farm laborers to 80 per cent. for women servants.

(2.) Enforced military service, during which many men acquire a dislike to the drudgery of farm labor.

(3.) The low birth-rate, which is most marked in the richest agricultural districts, where the fecundity of man appears to be in inverse ratio to the fertility of the soil. "Stérilité systématique" is an admitted fact in some of the wealthiest departments.

The great diminution in the number of women agriculturists is partly due to the frequent establishment of factories in rural districts. The number of farm laborers has diminished (allowance being made in all calculations for the loss of Alsace-Lorraine) by 25 per cent., being 1,500,000 in 1882 against 2,000,000 in 1862. Some of these have migrated into the towns. The fall in the farm profits has compelled farmers to use as little hired labor as possible, and the increased use of machinery of all kinds has enabled them to do the same work with fewer hands.

The following are the relative number of farms of different sizes in proportion to the total number:

Farms less than 2½ acres.....38 per cent.
Farms from 2½ to 25 acres....46 " "
Farms from 25 to 125 acres.... 6 " "
Farms above 125 acres.....10 " "

In Belgium the division of the soil is very much greater, for the farms containing less than 2½ acres are there 64 per cent. of the whole number.

The total number of rural proprietors is 4,035,246; but one person may own several properties, for there are no less than 12,000,000 separately rated properties (*côtes agraires*). These comprise 125,000,000 parcels, each separately described, measured, and numbered for the purposes of taxation and transfer on the communal *cadastres*, or registers of ownership. Farmers are classed according to their tenure as follows:

Owners farming their own land.79.76 per cent.
Farmers paying a money rent...13.82 " "
Métayers..... 6.42 " "

Since 1862 there has been a diminution of the two latter classes, many tenants and métayers having become proprietors, and the tendency being towards occupying ownership.

Statements of the average prices of land and of labor must not be misunderstood. The variation between different districts is very great, but as the French real-estate market differs from the English in being a retail market, and as simple ownership is the rule in France, quotations of prices rest on a more intelligible basis than in England. The prices obtained in all cases of sale are officially recorded, one object being a contemplated revision of the assessment for the land tax. The following are the average prices per acre of rural land of different qualities:

Description.	Quality.		
	1st.	2d.	3d.
Arable	$204	$168	$120
Meadow and pasture	284	256	160
Vineyard	244	172	144

Since 1852 there has been a very large increase in the letting and selling value of land, but it has not been so marked since 1862.

The average quotations for daily wages in summer of farm hands are as follows:

	With Food.	Without Food.
Men	1.98 francs.	3.11 francs.
Women	1.14 "	1.87 "
Children	74 "	1.31 "

For farm hands hired by the year, lodged, and fed, the comparative wages in 1862 and 1882 were:

	1862. Francs.	1882. Francs.	Increase since 1862.
Foremen	361	465	28.18 per ct.
Laborers and carters	256	324	26.56 "
Herdsmen	230	290	26.02 "
Women	130	235	80.00 "

Is the division of the soil among owners excessive? Does it amount to such a "pulverization" of the land as to make cultivation unprofitable? These questions have been for years hotly debated, but are satisfactorily answered by the statistics now published, as well as by De Foville in the work above mentioned. The usually accepted classification of properties is this:

Less than 5 acres.....Very small.
5 acres to 15 acres.....Small.
15 acres to 125 acres .....Medium.
125 acres to 500 acres.....Large.
Over 500 acres.....Very large.

Generally, there has been an increase in the number of properties of "medium" size. The division of agricultural lands tends to cease when it becomes unprofitable. There are parts of France where unexplained statistics indicate an excessive "morcellement," but it is not of agricultural land; it is the multiplication of house sites, and, as De Foville says, so far as it means that every man sleeps under his own rooftree, the more of such division the better. That phase of *morcellement* which is distinctly bad, viz., the existence of properties in very small and detached parcels, is shown to be diminishing.

Baudrillart's work is the result of a personal examination into the moral and material condition of the peasantry, into their habits, customs, religious and educational condition. His method has been a preliminary study of all official and statistical information bearing on the several districts, followed by thorough examination, generally travelling on foot, of the different types of families and farms. His first volume, published in 1886, deals exclusively with Normandy and Brittany, the second with some of the central departments. He is a stanch approver of "la petite propriété" as the basis of society. "Thank Heaven," he says, "there is no land question in France, nor any social question such as there is in the towns." Excessive individualism is the characteristic fault, he thinks, of the French peasant, so far as any general description is applicable.

His description of the iron-workers of Conches, and the lace-makers about Caen, who combine industrial with agricultural occupations, presents an almost ideal condition of society. The foundries of Conches provide occupation not only for the men, but also for women in the lighter work of finishing agricultural implements. Men's wages are from six to eight francs a day; nearly all own land, which they cultivate; in harvest, and at other seasons when the land requires attention, they desert the factories for their farms. Near Caen, 70,000 women are said to find employment, chiefly in their own homes, at lace-making. The men are farmers and fishermen. In Brittany, poor as the population still is in places, the present condition is far better than the past. Wrecking on the coast and faction fights between villages were once common. There are places where a man's wage, with food, is still not more than seventy-five centimes a day, and mendicancy is followed as a profession in families. Nevertheless, there is everywhere observed a distinct improvement in the material

condition of the people. In the second volume, treating of some of the wealthiest and most prosperous parts of France, Baudrillart comes to the conclusion that in morals improvement has lagged behind that made in wealth. He points out faults, but, on the whole, concludes that many of the pictures drawn of the French peasantry make them out far worse than they really are. The twenty million souls in rural France are the mainstay of the country—"Ce sont de bonnes populations."

The Ristigouche and its Salmon Fishing. With a chapter on Angling Literature. By Dean Sage. Edinburgh: David Douglas; New York: Scribner & Welford. 4to, pp. 275.

This book has every mark of being "offered on the insatiate altar of friendship," to use an expression of Joseph Crawhall's cited on page 266, rather than destined for the commercial struggle for existence. Extraordinary pains have been bestowed upon it by author and publisher, to make it the lovely thing it is externally. The page is of noble proportions, the margins broad, the print large, the paper of the solidest Holland texture. Illustrations abound—for ornament and for use: exquisite wood-engravings of flies; full-page etchings of scenery and adventure, many very charming; portraits; maps; facsimiles of old prints; vignettes, head and tail-pieces, initial letters, etc., etc. In spite of the various styles employed, good taste has prevailed to maintain a high level of excellence.

With all this luxuriousness, Mr. Sage's narrative is direct and business-like, and it is clear that he brings neither to his friends nor to the collector an unsubstantial show of apparel, conceived in mere vanity. We have, in fact, a very practical monograph on the river that forms the boundary between Lower Canada and New Brunswick, in which the discourse proceeds in this orderly fashion: The River; Canoes and Indians; Camp Harmony; The Salmon; Tackle and How to Use It; The Salmon of the Matapedia Bridge (a notable experience); Hours for Angling; The Waugan *et infra;* The Season of 1885; The Adventures of 1886; Angling Literature. The titles are suggestive of the kind of information conveyed and entertainment afforded by the several chapters. Any one desirous to know the fishing localities of this particular stream, or the habits of the salmon which frequent it (p. 70), or to settle his doubt whether salmon rise to the fly for food or for fun (p. 79), or what flies are best, the light or dark-colored ones (p. 99), will be satisfied by Mr. Sage without the necessity of his going to the spot, or of diving down under the water, like the enthusiast mentioned on p. 103, to put himself in the fish's place when viewing a fly.

All that is told on these heads, however, can be read by the layman without fatigue, and the text as a whole has the decided merit of recommending itself hardly less to those who care nothing for the sport than to its votaries. Mr. Sage's humor and love of anecdote, and an exceptional descriptive power, furnish great attractions for any one capable of appreciating these qualities, whatever the theme. His characterization of the Indians of the river is very droll—their innocent rhetorical profanity, mere flowers or lubricants of speech; their dependence upon positive orders even for routine work, etc. It is worth while quoting what is said of this trace of savage improvidence and shiftlessness:

"We had, as an example, for several years as cook, one Jim Pole. To him the knowledge never came that we expected to have three meals on any particular day simply because we had been in the habit of having them. He was always cheerful, and perfectly willing to cook a dozen dinners daily—which I do not doubt he often did for the men; but if, before going to bed, we omitted to tell him that we wanted breakfast the next morning, and to specify the hour and every item of food for the meal, he would fail to furnish anything.

"He never came for orders, nor did he ever practise his art without explicit directions. On one occasion, when we expected certain of the white natives, with their female relatives, to dinner, and wished to prepare a somewhat elaborate feast, after the menu had been settled I remembered we had some canned green corn, and, summoning the cook, said, 'Jim, you may give us some of that corn for dinner.' 'Yes, sir,' was the smiling response. But little did I think that he considered this order a constructive cancellation of the previous labored ones, and great was my dismay when, on leading a blooming girl to the table, the only dish displayed was a huge one of canned corn. Jim was standing by highly pleased with his success, and when, with a horrible suspicion of the truth, I demanded the production of the rest of the dinner, his cheerful answer was, 'Well, you say git corn, an' so I git corn an' stop make tudder dinner.' There was no use in scolding him, as the fault was mine, and the banquet was apologetically postponed for an hour.

"This necessity of giving the plainest and most definite instructions to get anything done, applies to most Indians, and has to be recognized in order to get along well with them. You can have one wake you at six every morning for a month, and the first time you omit telling him specifically to do so, you can sleep your head off without his interference, though he may know you have made every arrangement to go out half an hour later."

For specimens of Mr. Sage's graphic faculty, we will take this (p. 188):

"I hear the low talk of the Indians back of the camp, and their steps as they descend to the river, and soon the sound of the falling axe denotes their preparations for the everlasting 'bile de kittle.' Then Nat the cook audibly dons his heavy boots on the back stoop, and with yawns and grunts prepares for the labors of the day. The sun is now full on the tent, making my two heavy blankets uncomfortably warm, and gradually banishing the delicious sense of drowsy consciousness, until I begin to wonder what time it is, and, after long hesitation, rouse up enough to look at my watch, and find it half-past five. Another few moments, passed mostly in pluming myself on not being fool enough to be fishing at that time, and I crawl out of my tent to see such a morning as I believe can only be found in northern latitudes: a blue sky of unclouded brightness, the air warm and balmy, yet with a spicy undertone of freshness that makes every breath of it a luxury; the grass sparkling with the heavy dew, and, in some places yet untouched by the sun, showing the whiteness of the hoar-frost of the night; and the noble river before me, hastening along so fast and foolishly to lose its identity in the waters of the great Gulf of St. Lawrence."

And this (pp. 138, 139):

"I sometimes think the love of nature that the sportsman has is of a different order from that felt by the average mortal. Perhaps it is a lower sentiment, in that it cannot find its highest gratification in the smaller details of scenery—in one beautiful view, one rude mass of rocks, one stately tree, or one brilliant flower—but needs the entire effect. He is not moved half so much by the serene beauties of Lake George, only here and there showing the absence of man's hand, as by the sunset on some wood-surrounded, clear, and lonely lake, with the trout breaking at the edge of the lily-pads near the mouth of the cold stream which feeds it, the loon calling mournfully in the distance, the startled sheldrake and her brood half flying, half swimming at his approach, the croaking bittern, with his labored flight—the whole combination of water, forest, and animal life joining to produce a subtle charm which no frequented place, however beautiful, can yield.

"When the native animal life has been destroyed, or forced, through the proximity of man, to seek homes less disturbed, there is always a lack of that completeness of natural surrounding which makes one feel that here is a spot just as it was centuries ago. Before the memory of man, deer sought the water by this well-marked runway—not stealthily by night, but mornings and evenings; and in the warm July and August weather the heat of the day found them up to their backs in the cool stream, lazily cropping now and then a tempting full-blown water-lily close at hand, and slowly retreating before the first rare human intruder. The mud about the salt-lick at the foot of the lake has for hundreds of successive seasons been marked with their footprints, as it now is. That mink stealing along the shore to his hole in the heaped-up rocks is one of a long line which lived and fished there before him. The great owl—which begins his wild serenade shortly after the last sweet notes of the wood-pewee cease, answering the melancholy and long-drawn call of the bear from the other shore—is of a most ancient ancestry of that ilk, which has from time immemorial used yonder great beech tree, now in the last stage of decrepitude, as its nocturnal concert-hall."

In connection with the foregoing we ought, perhaps, to cite Mr. Sage's apology for the destructiveness of his craft (p. 141):

"It doubtless seems to a great many an anomaly that there should exist a love in the breast of the destroyer for the creatures he destroys; but it is a fact that the preservation of fish and game, which is due almost entirely to the efforts of sportsmen, is not by any means owing to a selfish desire for increasing their own amusement, nor to the more important economic reasons they urge, but very largely to a genuine love for the wild creatures of the woods and waters as a necessary element in the whole scheme of nature, the absence of which bereaves her, to them, of an essential part of her charm."

Notoriously, the art, whether censurable or not, has been a favorite with clergymen, whose "vocation has contributed more than any other to angling literature," and has helped latterly, we infer, to give it that scientific turn which Mr. Sage remarks (p. 261) in the books issued since 1835 and 1840. These "have been written by men who look at the amusement quite as much from the standpoint of the naturalist as that of the angler; and to these, more than to the purely scientific authors who have pursued their investigations in houses and museums, is due the greater part of what is now known about anadromous and fresh-water fishes" (p. 261).

The last chapter of this volume is consecrated to a summary bibliography of the subject, with another apology for the collector in a line not obviously useful. Mr. Sage finds fishing itself an emblem of the collector's pursuit, and justifies the one by the other. He writes pleasantly and humorously, and we are sure modestly, about the pleasures and privations and hazards of collecting; and those who are touched by a like mania in any direction will follow him sympathetically.

One might fancy that a feeling of indebtedness for sport in what were once British waters led Mr. Sage to have his book manufactured abroad. If this were so, it must have been a costly tribute, for, apart from the printer's and binder's bills, a paternal government stood ready at our Custom-house to inflict a penalty upon "the return of the native." Rather, as we perceive, a friendship between author and publisher determined a choice which the result abundantly justifies, even if the national surplus has been still further exaggerated by the tax upon American industry. In the division of the illustrations, Mr. Douglas appears to have procured the engraving of the flies by John Adam, of which we have already spoken, and which could hardly have been better done by any artist on wood. The graceful emblematic head-pieces and other ornaments by Burn-Murdoch, reproduced by phototype, are also to be set down to the credit of the fastidious publisher.

In Castle and Cabin; or, Talks in Ireland in 1887. By George Pellew, A.M., LL.B., of the Suffolk Bar. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

MR. PELLEW, armed with letters of introduction to persons of all shades of opinion, spent four months in Ireland in the fall of last year. This book chronicles his experiences. It is for the most part taken up with excerpts from records he preserved of "talks with over two hundred people, including officials, landlords, land agents, priests, farmers, professional men, merchants, shopkeepers, commercial travellers, and laborers." We do not believe the book will help readers to much clearer views than they already possess regarding the general bearings of the Irish problem; but it is an admirable exposition of the difficulty and complexity of the situation, and would be likely to have a moderating influence upon those inclined to entertain extreme views upon one side or the other. He holds the scales evenly as between his different informants. Of all the visitors to Ireland within the past few years who have recorded their experiences, he appears to us to have best kept his head and most used his own judgment.

There can be no better proof of the honesty with which he has reported the conversation of those with whom he was brought in contact than the fact that, while he is judiciously reserved in the giving of names, the personality of his informants, in the districts with which we are best acquainted, is clear. In Kerry he visited the widow of Mr. Curtin, whose case is so well known. (Her husband, President of a National League branch, was murdered in defending his house against moonlighters who sought arms. She and her family were subjected to bitter persecution, and, since Mr. Pellew's visit, have been obliged to leave the district, because one of the moonlighters was shot in the mêlée, and the Misses Curtin gave evidence upon the trial of the others.) The peasants' bitter, distorted, and wild view of the case is shown in an interview with the mothers of some of those condemned to penal servitude for complicity in the transaction.

"In the centre of a large, untidy farmyard is the high thatched hut of Mrs. Casey. She looked like an old chieftain, with pale, delicate face surrounded by the stiff frill of her white cap, as she sat by the peat fire watching the bubbles rising in an immense iron pot hanging from the crane. 'For the death of Curtin,' she said in a clear, strong voice, 'three Sullivans, two Caseys, Darley, Spring, MacMahon, Clifford, and others were arrested. The Curtins swore black, brown, and white against Darley and my sons, and laid low one of widow Sullivan's. Curtin's people had got blood-money before; his grandfather in '98 was an informer.' [This was not true.] 'If those boys did that thing, they merely went for arms; a foolish thing, but it has been done throughout Ireland, and is done to-day. As long as I am alive, and my children and their children live, we will try to root the Curtins out of the land. Now, I will, I will do it. Wasn't a young man more than equal to that old codger? Yet I am better off than she [Mrs. Curtin] is. I can go out to-day, and I won't have peelers about me, and I won't be hooted and booed. My oldest boy went insane, and I am sick, so, as long as I live, the Curtins shall have my good wishes.'"

The author's conclusions regarding the difficulties of home rule are, upon the whole, just. He, however, too much leaves out of view the sentimental side of the question, the impossibility of continuing to govern Ireland upon present lines, and the apparent necessity for immediate and radical change. We doubt whether the Irish people will, as the author expects, by the extension of local government such as that now being enacted for England, be taught "to blame themselves rather than the English Government for local discomforts." He brings out the almost universal desire in Ireland for protection, and its difficulty under any system of home rule, but he does not sufficiently dwell upon the practical abandonment of the idea by the representatives of Irish opinion in their acceptance of Mr. Gladstone's bill.

The book is not without mistakes. To a certain extent the interpretation of the courts has set aside the clause of the Land Act which enacted that "in fixing the rent, no rent is [to be] charged on improvements by him [the tenant] or his predecessors" (p. 15). We do not believe that the author's (the Government's) version of the Mitchelstown mêlée, as given at p. 95, is borne out by the testimony of independent witnesses. Nor is it correct to say (p. 297) "the proportion of paupers to the population is from three to four times greater than in England." Ireland has gone wofully behind in this matter within the last decade, but she is still, according to the Poor Law statistics, considerably before England. Upon the whole, 'In Castle and in Cabin' is an admirable work, and we desire for it a wide circulation among those who are anxious to inform themselves regarding the state of feeling among different classes in Ireland.

Roman Literature in Relation to Roman Art. By the Rev. Robert Burn, M.A., LL.D., Glas. Macmillan & Co. 1888.

THIS is a wofully dreary and empty book, upon a most interesting and fertile subject. Dreary, because of the uniformly dry and heavy style in which it is written, burdened with quotations, most of which illustrate only the author's pedantry; and empty, because, so far as we have been able to discover, its 315 pages do not contain one suggestion upon its fascinating theme which has not become a platitude by repetition on the part of every writer who has ever dealt with Roman literature or Roman art. Who, for example, does not know that Roman poetry was largely influenced by patronage, that Roman sculpture was realistic, and concerned itself more with men than with gods, that Roman architecture was stupendous when it occupied itself with the arch, and conglomerate and vulgar in its decorative features, and that a chief characteristic of both the poetry and the art of the Empire was their display of technical virtuosity? Yet these are stated as new ideas, and proved, especially on the literary side, with which the author seems to be most familiar, by quotation after quotation from the writers of the time. This is especially noticeable in the chapter on Roman Portrait Sculpture, almost the whole of which is taken up with extracts from Roman authors illustrative of their interest in the human countenance and the power of the features to express mental conditions and characteristics. This Dr. Burn apparently regards as in strong contrast to Greek feeling, and, when combined with the realistic tendencies of their portrait sculpture, as a decided and lamentable degradation of art. "Therefore it may be said that the idea underlying Roman Portrait Sculpture was the degradation of the divine to the human form, and, when further developed, would have generated a fondness for such exhibitions as Madame Tussaud's."

Another instance of this realism which is apparently noted by way of contrast to the Greek, is that Suetonius, in his 'Lives of the Cæsars,' usually gives a particular description of the Emperor whose life he is relating. "In several cases the shape of the nose and the appearance of the hair is noticed," which we confess ourselves unable to regard either as extraordinary or as in contrast with Greek writers —even the best—when we recall the vivid portraits of Teiresias, Odysseus, and the other principal performers in the 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey.' Certainly, no Roman literary portraits are more real than they.

If the book has any claim to originality, it is in the author's deductions from his comparisons between Greek and Roman art and literature, some of which strike us as masterpieces of logic in their way. We give a few specimens:

"We gather, then, that the principal influences of Roman character and circumstances upon their art may be roughly stated as follows: First, their innate *severitas* and realism produced satire in poetry, biographic tendencies in history, caricature, technical finish and excessive exactitude in art; while, secondly, their world-wide empire and wealth enlarged and confused both poetry and art, giving rise to a composite style in both, and a preference of quantity to quality, and of crowds to groups" (p. 29).

This is the close of the introduction, and it may also be considered the keynote of the book. Architecture bends to his argument as follows:

"Athena was 'full of ideas' in Homer; and we find Minerva in Ovid 'called the goddess of thousands of works.' So in like manner the Corinthian capital is the ideal of simply beautiful ornament, while the composite is rich and complicated. The Greek Ionic is simple, while the Roman Ionic is architecturally adapted in form" (p. 112).

Finally, the superiority of Homer to Virgil, in one respect, and the degrading influence of wealth upon Roman poetry, are thus summed up:

"Homer, in *Il.* ix, 213, gives a long description of the cooking of the heroes' meal, beginning with the killing of the animals, the lighting of the fire, and the spitting of the joints, while Virgil only applies, in *Æn.* v, 100, two or three lines to the cooking of the meal. This indicates the desire of the poet not to shock his patrons' aristocratic notions of a meal by going too far into particulars. Again, in the tenth book of the *Æneid*, Virgil has three lines describing the treasures offered to Æneas of works of silver and ingots of gold, while Homer, speaking of a similar offer, enumerates bronze, gold, and wrought iron generally" (p. 173).

The last, and by far the longest, chapter in the book is upon the general subject of Romano-Greek architecture, and may be of some service to those who know little about it. The illustrations, with which the book is bountifully supplied, are "process" reproductions of familiar photographs, and are of material service in filling out the volume and giving it an attractive appearance.

Practical Statistics: A Handbook for the Use of the Statistician at Work, Students in Colleges and Academies, Agents, Census Enumerators, etc. By Charles T. Pidgin. Boston: The William E. Smythe Co. 1888.

THE author of the book before us has been for fifteen years, as he tells us in his preface, engaged in statistical work, and for a large part of that time has been connected with the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor, of which he is now the chief clerk. His duties have made him familiar with every detail of the methods employed by that bureau in the collection and compilation of statistical information. It is only natural that, when he sets out to tell how in practice statistical data can be most easily, cheaply, and accurately gathered and tabulated, he should give an account of the way in which the Massachusetts Bureau gathers and tabulates them. This he does, and for practical purposes this is all he does. We are not disposed to find fault with him for doing this and this alone.

As he remarks in his preface: "Many works

have been written relating to statistics, but, to the author's knowledge, none have been devoted exclusively to the explanation of the practical part of statistical work." The only person who is qualified to write a good book upon a new subject of an exclusively practical nature, is a man who has had a large and successful experience in dealing in practice with the problems with which the book concerns itself. When he has clearly and accurately told us the way in which his experience has convinced him that the work can be best done, he has said all he can say on the subject.

Mr. Pidgin, of course, employs, in performing his duties in connection with the Massachusetts Bureau, those methods which he thinks are most likely to yield the best results. We do not suppose that he thinks that these methods cannot be improved, but as he knows that the Massachusetts Bureau does the best statistical work in this country, he is justified in taking that Bureau as a model. Practical instruction can usually be better conveyed in the concrete than in the abstract, and accordingly the author, instead of formulating a set of rules and maxims, selects the most extensive undertaking in which the Massachusetts Bureau has ever been engaged, viz., the taking of the State census of 1885, and tells us just how the work of that census was done. He shows us how the schedules were prepared. The instructions, general and special, to enumerators and agents are reproduced. We are told how the schedules when returned were examined and tested, and the quickest and best methods of tabulating and presenting the results are considered.

To reprint a number of old schedules and instructions, and accompany them with some notes and explanations, may not appear to be either a very difficult thing to do or a very valuable thing when done. But to select from among the blanks and forms of the Bureau those which would be of use to persons engaged in other sorts of statistical work, was probably not as easy as it seems to be, and the result is a book that a person who proposes to undertake any considerable statistical investigation cannot afford to be without. It will be practically indispensable to statisticians, not because of the new or original suggestions it contains, although these are neither few nor unimportant, but because it will save them from the necessity of taxing their brains to anticipate all the contigencies which, if not anticipated and provided for in advance, will add much to the cost or detract greatly from the accuracy of the work. The amount of time and money which will be saved by a book like this, in which all the more probable of such contingencies are referred to, would not be easy to calculate.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Althaus, F. Theodor Althaus: ein Lebensbild. Bonn: Emil Strauss; New York: Westermann.
Black, W. Strange Adventures of a House-Boat. Harper & Bros.
Bottone, S. R. Electrical Instrument-Making for Amateurs. D. Van Nostrand.
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Correspondence of Wagner and Liszt. Translated by Franz Hueffer. Scribner & Welford. 2 vols.
Crawford, F. M. With the Immortals. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Curtis, W. E. Russia: its People, its Palaces, its Politics. Belford, Clarke & Co.
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Flagg, W. J. Woman the Stronger. Belford, Clarke & Co.
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Gaspary, Prof. A. Die Italienische Literatur der Renaissancezeit. Berlin: R. Oppenheim; New York: Westermann.
Hark, Rev. J. M. The Unity of the Truth in Christianity and Evolution. J. B. Alden.
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Holls, F. W. Sancta Sophia and Troitza. New York: Martin Luther Society.
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Nobody Knows; or, Facts that are not Fictions. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.25.
Overland Monthly. Vol. XI.—Second Series. San Francisco.
Pendleton, L. Bewitched: A Tale. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Platt, Donn. The Lone Grave of the Shenandoah. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Prothero, R. E. The Pioneers and Progress of English Farming. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Richard Chenevix Trench, Archbishop: Letters and Memorials. Macmillan & Co. 2 vols. $6.
Richepin, Jean. Césarine. Paris: Maurice Dreyfous. Boston: Schoenhof.
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Salomons, Sir D. Management of Accumulators and Private Electric Light Installations. 4th ed. D. Van Nostrand.
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Shepard, E. M. Martin Van Buren. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Social Life and Literature Fifty Years Ago. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $1.
Southworth, Mrs. E. D. E. N. The Family Doom. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 25 cents.
Staël, Madame de. Corinne; or, Italy. Scribner & Welford.
Stedman, E. C., and Hutchinson, Ellen M. Library of American Literature. Vol. 4. Chas. L. Webster & Co. $3.
Stockham, Dr. G. H. Temperance and Prohibition. Oakland, Cal.: The Author. $1.
Street, A. E. Memoir of Geo. Edmund Street, R.A. 1824—1881. London: John Murray; Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

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Married.

LANMAN—HINCKLEY.—On Wednesday, July 18, by the Rev. Edward H. Hall of the First Parish Church, Charles R. Lanman to Mary B. Hinckley, both of Cambridge, Mass.

Schools.

Alphabetized, first, by States; second, by Towns.

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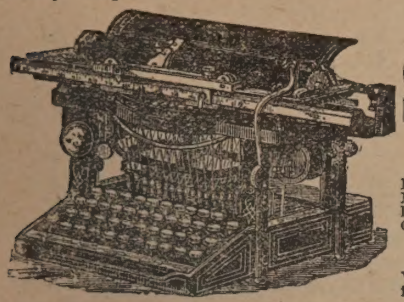

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 26, 1888.

The Week.

THE vote on the Mills bill in the House on Saturday will serve as the historical record of the transformation of the Democratic party which President Cleveland has accomplished. There could be no more forcible illustration of the value of civic courage to a nation than has been afforded by him since December last. At that time his tariff-reform message, by its boldness and utter disregard of political expediency, filled his own party with consternation and his opponents with delight. But the step, having once been taken, could not be retraced. To the surprise of Democratic leaders, who had for years been afraid to avow manfully their opinions upon the tariff question, the country recognized the force and truth of the President's position, and recognized also, as the American people have never failed to do, the honesty and patriotic courage which prompted their expression. Slowly but surely the Democratic leaders have pulled themselves up to the President's advanced position; and, after less than eight months of argument and agitation, the vote is taken which shows that the party is practically a unit behind the first leader which it has had for a quarter of a century. Only four Democrats out of a total of 169 voted against the bill and the President's policy, while two Republicans of unvarying party loyalty and three Independents joined with the Democrats in supporting it, thus more than counterbalancing the Democratic defections.

The Republicans in the Senate are in visible alarm over the presence of the Mills bill. Notwithstanding the fact that they are committed in their national platform against the surrender of "any part of the protective system," it is known that several Republican Senators not only are in favor of surrendering some part of it, but are convinced that unless they bring in a bill to that effect, they cannot hope to carry the country in November. This belief is so strong in some of their minds that there is said to be a fear that if the Mills bill were to come before the Senate, it might receive enough Republican votes to pass. Mr. Riddleberger is said to have given notice that he would vote for it, and if one other Republican Senator were to join him, the bill would pass. In view of these facts, the efforts of the *Tribune* to get up a free-trade scare by means of a *Punch* cartoon are extremely funny. The patriotic notion that this is a nation of fools seems to have taken complete possession of the "American" *Tribune*, if we may judge from its *Punch* "extra," and the following wonderful passage in its description of the scene in the House on Saturday when the Mills bill was on its final passage:

> "Of course, the gallery reserved for members and attachés of the Diplomatic Corps contained representatives of the British Embassy, and of other foreign legations from countries which stand ready to pounce upon the richest market in the world if the free-traders succeed in their schemes."

The amount of misinformation displayed in the Senate in the course of the debate on the subsidy amendment to the Post-office Appropriation Bill, will surprise only those who do not know how ignorant of the actual operations of foreign commerce many of our legislators are. Senator Platt put forward the interesting assertion, which was allowed to go uncontradicted, that England subsidizes steamers carrying the mails to South America "to the extent of something more than $3,000,000 a year." These figures are only thirty times too great, the sum actually paid by England for the year ending March 31, 1887, being a trifle over $100,000—an amount, be it remarked, proportionately less than that paid for the same service by our Government. The exaggeration is not so strange as that it should have been offered in good faith and permitted to pass without question. The great feature of the debate, however, was the final exploding of that pestiferous "barter" theory of international trade which political economists have been so stupidly teaching. This was accomplished in the Senate by Senator Chace of Rhode Island, and in the House, two days later, by Mr. Dingley of Maine. The figures of our trade with Brazil did the fatal work. Last year we imported from that country products to the value of $52,955,591, and exported in return but $8,137,794. Senator Chace took this exhibit to be a complete refutation of that "favorite theory of free-traders," and Mr. Dingley was moved by it to inquire, "What becomes of the 'barter' theory in face of the actual facts of our foreign trade?" The *Tribune* dutifully takes up the cry, and proclaims a new discomfiture of *a-priori* philosophers by remorseless facts.

Are we to infer, then, that we have been sending $40,000,000 a year in hard cash to Brazil to settle the balance against us? It would be very easy to find that out if it were a fact, and the money market would soon hear of it if it were so. Yet who but such a stickler for "facts" as the advocate of protection and subsidies imagines that this is done? What become of the "barter" theory? It stands just where it always has. We pay for the coffee we import from Brazil with the flour and cotton and meat we export to England. These reasoners seem never to have heard about what our importers call the three-cornered trade with Brazil—coffee from Rio to New Orleans or New York, cotton or wheat to Liverpool, English manufactures from Liverpool to Rio. Our importers of coffee pay for it in exchange on London, and that they buy in return for our exports of farm products to England. New York exchange, we are informed, is not even quoted in Rio. The great bulk of our trade with Brazil is done precisely in the way we have described, and the same is true, in less degree, in the case of our whole South American commerce. How else, do the protectionists suppose, does England settle her enormous adverse balance of $250,000,000 to $300,000,000 a year in her trade with the United States? She simply sets off against this her immense favorable balances in her trade with South America and elsewhere, and so squares the account. We think the "barter" theory will be able to hold its own for a while yet.

The *Tribune's* midsummer efforts at political economy continue to be very amusing. On one page on Tuesday it printed a special despatch from San Francisco saying, in connection with the Coleman failure: "The Mills bill killed the borax works, which Coleman valued at two millions." This is given as one of the reasons why Mr. Coleman can offer only 40 cents on the dollar, and of course it materially lessens the chances of Mr. Cleveland's reëlection. But on another page another special despatch, under the heading, "Confidence of the Right Sort," announces the giving out of a contract for a new Bessemer-steel plant in Pennsylvania that will give employment to 400 men, and the explanation is made: "The contract was let on the strength of Harrison being elected." Now the *Tribune* has a solemn duty to perform in this matter: either it should telegraph Mr. Coleman to hold on to his borax with the certainty of a bull market in November, or it should telegraph the Pennsylvania iron men not to give out any contracts for new works so long as there is a Democrat in the country to assert that the tariff ought to be revised.

The *Tribune* has a reporter who, when base-ball matters are dull and there are not many fires, is allowed to try his hand on the tariff. A few months ago he took up buttons, but he afforded the revenue reformers such a stock of amusement that we thought he certainly would be confined to his own field in the future. On Monday morning, however, he was allowed to discuss the tariff in connection with quinine. Now, if there is one subject in regard to which the high-tariff men ought to be more anxious to keep quiet than they are about the free-whiskey plank, it is that duty on quinine. The idea of "protecting" a product manufactured by only three or four firms in this country and used almost universally, is on its face so ridiculous that when the matter was brought to a vote in Congress in 1879, quinine was put on the free list by a vote of 125 ayes to 33 nays in the House, and without a call for a division in the Senate; of 52 Republican Representatives voting, 21 voted yea. It is a good illustration of the character of the Republican attitude on the tariff this year to find the *Tribune*

allowing a reporter to criticise the placing of this article on the free list. Some of his criticisms are very funny. What, for instance, shall be said of a writer who, in arguing that freeing quinine from the duty has destroyed the "industry" in this country, says: "To-day the article is no cheaper than it would have been if the duty of 20 per cent. had not been taken off"? This remarkable "argument" is coupled with the equally remarkable statement that quinine "has become so low as only to pay for growing (*sic*) in such countries as Java, India, and Ceylon, where laborers are paid from twelve to eighteen cents a day." Of course it is cheap labor that is ruining the home market. It always is, even when the article is "no cheaper than it would have been" with the duty retained. "Manufacturers and dealers who have given information to the *Tribune* reporter on the subject were averse to having their names mentioned," says this writer. We should think they would be. Public association with an ass is never agreeable.

The Legislature has passed the so-called Yates Prison Bill, which retains some of the minor features of the original Yates bill of last winter, without the chief and altogether objectionable provision of that measure. It is not proposed by this modified bill to relegate to the counties convicts now liable to sentence in the State prisons, as the original bill did. The pending measure provides simply the manner in which convicts shall be employed under the laws for sentencing as they now exist; the intention being, as we understand it, to reduce the competition of prison labor with outside labor to the minimum. It forbids the use of machinery altogether in all prisons in the State, whether they be under State or local control, and renews the existing prohibition of contract labor, with the further provision that no labor shall be required of convicts on which a profit shall accrue to any individual, firm, or association. In fact, the only labor allowed in these penal institutions under this bill is such as will produce articles of consumption within the institutions themselves, or within other State institutions not of a penal character, like asylums, reformatory schools, houses of refuge, and so forth. Clothing for inmates and other such necessaries which are provided by the State are included among the articles that may be manufactured in the prisons. The distribution of the products of this sort of labor is placed in control of a Board consisting of the Comptroller, the Superintendent of State Prisons, and the Chairman of the State Board of Charities. The purchasing of articles in the open market for consumption in State institutions is forbidden, except in case they cannot be had from this Board upon requisition. It is clear from the provisions of this bill that the maintenance of prisoners must be provided out of the State Treasury, except as to articles they may produce within the terms of the bill. It is a demagogic makeshift and a disgraceful avoidance of public duty. It places a heavy burden upon the taxpayers for no other reason than that the weak-kneed politicians of both parties may angle for the "labor vote."

Gov. Hill's message in reference to the amendment of the Penal Code in such a way as to legalize boycotting and other forms of trade-union tyranny, is the most audacious piece of demagogism that even he has ever perpetrated. He took the step in the hope of counteracting thereby the hostility among the laboring men which his veto of the Ballot-Reform Bill caused. The bill which Senator Reilly introduced as carrying out the Governor's suggestions, erased from the conspiracy laws the word "intimidation," which would make it impossible for the courts to punish such offences as were recently committed against the foreman, Hartt, for whose benefit the Mayor is receiving subscriptions. The Legislature was proof against this temptation, but, acting upon another of the Governor's recommendations, and taking him at his word when he least expected to be so taken, it has removed from office an Aqueduct Commission which never ought to have existed and which has failed to fulfil the trust confided to it. It has given us a plan for a new Commission which will at least be constructed on a proper basis. and which we have confidence enough in Mayor Hewitt to believe will be composed of the best material that can be found among our citizens. For this invaluable and unexpected achievement we are indebted primarily to the work of the Fassett Investigating Committee. There could be no stronger evidence of the value of public investigations than is thus afforded. Through the revelations made we have forced a Governor and a Legislature, who entered into a shameful "combine" to plunder this city in the interest of politics, to confess that they did wrong, and to unite for the undoing of that wrong. We say unite, for, however unwilling the Governor may be to sign the bill, he cannot refuse to approve it.

When one reads, as we did on Tuesday morning in the Chicago despatches, that the Brotherhood of Engineers are determined not to declare "off" the strike against the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad, but that the strikers are to keep on striking; and when we remember that striking, after the places of the strikers have been satisfactorily filled, means simply the maintenance of a system of annoyance and mischief against the persons and property of a lawful business, one naturally asks whether it is not about time for the law of the land to declare how long a strike may last. The strike against the C., B. & Q., which is now kept up at Chicago, in no respect differs from the ordinary boycott by which Hartt was prevented from earning a living. It is simply a system of organized intimidation, with occasional strokes of violence, practised on persons engaged in a legal calling. When a parcel of criminal loafers persist in such a game, under pretence that they are "on strike," should the judges or police magistrates not be empowered to declare a strike "off" themselves, and treat further persistence in it as evidence of designs against the public peace? We think they should. The present state of things is simply a modified form of the modern Greek brigandage, under which loafers were allowed to capture and hold to ransom travellers and people of property as the lawful prizes of poor men.

The *Press* the other day stated that it had received "private advices" which represented that "the Mugwumps of Massachusetts have almost entirely abandoned their organization and returned to the Republican fold"; that "men like Charles R. Codman and George Fred. Williams are now in full sympathy with the Republicans on civil-service reform, and disgusted with Democratic hypocrisy." Mr. Williams is abroad, but a letter from him has been published showing that he will heartily support Mr. Cleveland. As for Col. Codman, we can assure the *Press* that, being a tariff-reformer, he expects to support the Democratic party as long as it maintains its present attitude. As for civil-service reform, he is, of course, opposed to the spoilsmen wherever found, but he is also of the opinion that they abound among the managers of both parties, and that nothing would be gained for the cause of civil-service reform by supporting Gen. Harrison. It is true that the Mugwumps of Massachusetts have abandoned, or rather have not thought it necessary to revive, their organization, but they have by no means "returned to the Republican fold." On the contrary, it is the opinion of Col. Codman that the greater number of them will openly and aggressively support Cleveland, as they are not only civil-service reformers, but revenue reformers as well. The *Press* has evidently been the victim of some deceiver.

"Z. L. W.," a man who we once thought was sensible and careful, sends the *Press* from Washington a beautiful campaign story of a young man named Curtis, "fortunate enough to be a nephew of George William Curtis, formerly Mugwump, but now Democratic editor of *Harper's Weekly*." The young man was sent by President Cleveland—so runs the tale—to the Assistant Attorney-General, who was directed to employ Curtis at $2,000 a year, "whether he was competent or not." He proved incompetent, of course, but could not be dismissed, being a Presidential appointee, so they made a place for him in the Board of Pension Appeals, where he now is, as incompetent as ever. Perhaps, says the thoughtful and candid "Z. L. W."—

> "perhaps Mr. George William Curtis had no hand in securing his nephew's appointment, but the young man is very fortunate in having so eminent a civil-service reformer for an uncle, and it is even more fortunate for him that consistency is not one of President Cleveland's attributes."

"Z. L. W." has surely had journalistic experience enough to know that no story of this kind ought to be as perfect as this one is.

A really good campaign story ought to have flecks, flaws, or gaps in it, showing the compiler to have been careful and scrupulous. Alas for poor "Z. L. W."! Mr. G. W. Curtis has only one nephew, who is a boy at school. This being so, the other "facts" in the story are of course left in mid-air. We hope, for "Z. L. W.'s" sake, there is at least one little one that can be relied on.

We were greatly amused, but of course also pleased, on Sunday, by the announcement from our old friend, the Norfolk Squire, Mr. George Washington Smalley, that Mr. and Mrs. Cornelius Vanderbilt had passed through the ordeal of a short visit to London in the season without damage. All doors were open to them, the Squire says:

> "But they entered them under conditions so peculiar that by a little want of tact or good sense they might easily have made shipwreck of their social career. This they have omitted to do. Their London experiences have been an unbroken series of social successes. They have won the good will of those whose good will is best worth having, and I cannot hear that from the beginning to the end of their London summer they have made a single mistake."

The news that the Vanderbilts "omitted to make shipwreck of their social career," and failed "to make a single mistake" in the course of a "London summer," conceals, it is right to add, a great deal of modesty on the Squire's part. We intend no depreciation of Mr. and Mrs. Vanderbilt's social tact when we assume that they owed their salvation to the Squire's presence in London and his daily supply of house-to-house cackle. This is undoubtedly what pulled them through. Which of us likes to think of what would have happened had the Squire been detained in Norfolk by the cares of his estates, by Quarter Sessions business, or by the preparation of his preserves for the shooting season?

An amusing picture is presented by the relations of the several parts of the Austro-Hungarian empire which have followed in the train of the high-tariff legislation of the last few years. Hungary is not only the chief grain-producing region, but has also naturally developed flour-milling to the greatest degree. Nevertheless, there was a large milling industry in other parts of the empire, and especially in Bohemia, the grain which came to these mills having been imported from Russia. The duties upon grain, which were introduced in 1882, greatly checked this importation, and the raising of these duties last year cut it off altogether. The whole empire is thus almost entirely restricted to the consumption of Hungarian grain. One would think this might have satisfied the Hungarians, but it seems they have succeeded in having special features introduced into the tariff, with a view to favoring Hungarian millers at the expense of those in other divisions of the empire. The millers of Bohemia, Moravia, and Upper Austria have made an effort to get the tariff adjusted so as to enable them to hold their own, namely, by making the difference of duty between grain and flour sufficient to permit the importation of the former. The Hungarian Government has met this move in the game by lowering the rates of transportation for flour on the Hungarian railways. The Constitution of the empire forbids duties on importation from one division of the empire to another; so it seems the rest of the Austrians are at their wits' end to find indirect means of counteracting this action of the Hungarians, which, it must be admitted, seems to show uncommon greed and want of consideration for their neighbors. An immense amount of ill-feeling has been engendered, not to speak of economic disturbance and loss; and the game will probably go on until the country gets disgusted with the notion that people cannot find out for themselves whether they had better grind their own flour or make something else and buy their flour ready ground.

The suicide of Ole Richter, the Norwegian Minister Resident in Stockholm, has made a great sensation in Scandinavian politics. Next to the Premier, John Sverdrup, he held the highest position in the Ministry, and was the most conspicuous man. He had a long and honorable career behind him as a publicist and a parliamentary leader. The circumstances which led to his self-destruction are somewhat complicated. Mr. Richter, as a strict parliamentarian, had long been dissatisfied with his chief, and had criticised him somewhat recklessly in his letters to friends. He foresaw plainly that the Sverdrup Ministry, by splitting the Liberal party into the Moderate and the Extreme Left, would soon be without a working majority in the Storthing; and he desired to save himself from the wreck, by creating the impression that he disapproved of Mr. Sverdrup's opportunism. With this view he began a correspondence with Björnstjerne Björnson, with whom he had long been acquainted, furnishing him with the most tremendous ammunition for the destruction of the Ministry of which he was a member. He obviously anticipated a contingency in which he should be called upon, with M. Daae (an earlier seceder from the Sverdrup Ministry), to form a new Cabinet; nothing would, indeed, have been more probable if his underhanded proceeding could have been kept secret. But to expect Björnson, the chief opponent of Sverdrup, to refrain from availing himself of the information with which Richter voluntarily had provided him, was certainly the height of fatuity. Björnson had a long score to settle with Sverdrup, and he eagerly seized the opportunity to expose his moral obliquity. Being challenged as to the authenticity of his information, he unhesitatingly gave the name of Ole Richter, and justified himself by saying that he had made no promise of secrecy, nor had his correspondent dropped any hint that the information was confidential. It would seem, however, that, as to the use of the Minister's name, no such hint should have been needed. Of course, from the moment Richter's manœuvres were exposed, he was a discredited man, equally distrusted by both groups of his party. He went immediately, in the absence of the King, to the Crown Prince, who was acting as Regent, and offered his resignation, which was promptly accepted. It is told that afterwards he wavered, and made an attempt to induce the Crown Prince to hold his resignation in abeyance, but received a curt refusal. He then realized that he was hopelessly ruined, and, going home, shot himself in the head.

Ole Richter was born in 1829. He gained his high position in Norwegian politics by the moderation of his opinions, the clear logic of his speech, and his devotion to English parliamentarism. He had been partly educated in England, married an English wife, and was a close student of English politics. He displayed a deeper knowledge of political economy than is common with Norwegian statesmen, and was looked upon as a man uniting in a rare degree theoretical science with practical insight and ability. His wealth, his amiability, and courteous demeanor tended to increase his prestige and popularity; and he was successively elected President of the lower and the upper chamber of the Norwegian Storthing, occupying the former position from 1871 to 1876, and the latter from 1877 to 1878. He was no orator, but was regarded as an eminently safe man, and a bulwark against the radicalism of his party associates. While acting with the Left or Liberal party he formed really, with M. Daae and a few others, a group by itself, corresponding to the French group of the Centre. Nothing was, therefore, more natural than that the King, who dreads all kinds of extremism, should have turned to him and made him the representative of the Norwegian Government in Stockholm.

The cause of ballot reform has reached the Sandwich Islands, and a bill instituting changes somewhat similar to those proposed in many States in this country has been submitted to the Hawaiian Legislature. It was prepared by a special commission in whose report it is interesting to note that much space is devoted to detailing the efforts which Mr. Ivins and others have made in behalf of the reform in this city. The radical changes in the Hawaiian measure are: (1) doing away with the present tax-receipt system, which requires the exhibition of a tax receipt at the polls as the condition of voting, and the substitution of a uniform registration in its place; (2) providing for a uniform ballot, printed and distributed at the public expense; (3) providing careful methods to secure freedom and secrecy in voting; (4) giving the Supreme Court jurisdiction over all questions of fraud and corruption in elections. These changes are based largely upon the English system, which was followed in the excellent law for New York which Gov. Hill vetoed, and the equally excellent Massachusetts law which Gov. Ames signed, and which goes into effect in 1889.

WHAT IT COSTS.

PERHAPS the most extraordinary feature of the situation concerning the tariff lies in the circumstance that few people have any idea of the amount of its burden, even tariff-reformers usually confining themselves to mere generalities concerning it. We know what our military and naval establishments cost, what we pay for pensions, and what we appropriate for the improvement of rivers and harbors. It is always open to any citizen, in or out of Congress, to object to the amounts expended for any of these purposes. But the amount which we expend for the support of certain favored industries in this country is an absolutely unknown quantity. Not only are the great majority of intelligent persons utterly ignorant of this amount, but it frequently happens that writers for the press, whose special business it is to treat these questions, proceed upon an entirely false basis in estimating it.

The customs duties collected in the year ending June 30, 1887, amounted to $214,000,000. But this does not in any way measure the cost which the nation incurs in supporting its protected industries. It does not, indeed, form any part of that cost. These $214,000,000—if, for the sake of simplicity in the argument, we ignore the existence of a surplus—are expended for the general purposes of the Government. They have to be collected somehow, and whether customs duties are the best way or not, is a question of general fiscal policy. It is true that protective duties are apt to bear more heavily on the poor than on the rich, unless chiefly confined to articles of luxury; it is true, also, that they are open to the objection of being difficult to alter without disturbance to industry and trade, which is a serious objection to a tax; but these points have nothing to do—at least directly—with the question we are now considering, viz., How much is the country paying to encourage the protected industries?

It is the money which never reaches the Treasury, but is paid out by consumers in the high prices of domestic articles, that constitutes the expense of protection. Though it would be impossible to estimate the amount of this tax with any degree of accuracy, a clear recognition of its nature is sufficient to show that the aggregate must be stupendous. Let us take a single item, that of steel rails; the simplicity and uniformity of this article rendering comparison of prices and quantities comparatively easy and reliable.

The Statistical Abstract of the United States for 1887 gives the following figures of importation and of home production of steel rails for the last twelve months covered by it: importation (year ending June 30, 1887), 77,000 tons; home production (year ending December 31, 1886), 1,579,000 tons. The duty on steel rails was (and is) $17 per ton, so that the customs revenue from this article was about $1,300,000. Inasmuch as a respectable quantity of foreign rails was imported, upon which it was possible to pay the duty and still to sell them in competition with domestic rails, it is plain that the price here must have been something like $17 higher than what we should have had to pay for foreign rails in the absence of the duty. Reckoning the excess at only $15, however—and a comparison of British and American prices-current for the year shows that this is well within the mark—we have in this single item a bounty of about twenty-four million dollars paid in a single year to the steel-rail manufacturers alone. Something over a million dollars has been paid into the Treasury for the expenses of the people's Government; twenty times as much has been given away to the steel-rail men, and has entered into the cost of our railways, to be a permanent charge on farmers and merchants and the community generally.

The same item of steel rails happens to furnish opportunity for another striking commentary, and at the same time to bring out the magnitude of the bounty in a glaring light. A recent article in Mr. Robert P. Porter's organ, the *Press*, undertook to state the amount paid out in wages in the production of a ton of steel rails. The amount intended is not simply the wages paid at the steel works; the editor had undertaken to "trace back all the supplies for the steel works to their original sources, and to classify the outlays so as to show the portion that goes to the remuneration of labor from start to finish," and all that he is able to figure up is $14.85; while the duty, be it remembered, is $17. We shall take the *Press's* word for it; and the result is, that in the last twelve months recorded in the United States Statistical Abstract, we paid more in bounties to steel manufacturers than the aggregate amount of wages received for all the labor which was employed, directly or indirectly, in the making of steel rails. We do not pretend to determine how much of this bounty was profit to the manufacturers, how much was tribute paid by them to mine-owners, how much was sheer waste, or how much was used in "politics"—the fact remains that the bounty received by the manufacturers on the pretext of helping the workingmen was actually greater than the total amount the workingmen received in wages.

It must be plain from this single instance—as, indeed, it must be plain without it to any one who will look the matter straight in the face—that the expense of our protective system is many hundreds of millions annually. The peculiarity of the case lies, however, not so much in the magnitude of the expense, nor even in its indefiniteness, as in the fact that the advocates of protection have absolutely taken the ground that it does not concern us in the least how much it costs. Everything else is a matter of degree: national defences are good, grand public buildings are good, art galleries, libraries, schools, colleges — all these things are good, but for none of them has it been claimed that their friends should be permitted to draw upon the public purse to an absolutely unlimited extent. And even as regards protection, it was reserved for this last convention of the Republican party to place it alone among all the objects of human endeavor and human devotion by declaring that no consideration, either of economy or of morals, shall prevail to lighten by a feather's weight the burden we carry for its sake, however heavy that burden may become.

MANUFACTURERS AND FARMERS.

THE supporters of tariff reform are under great obligations to Mr. James P. Foster, President of the Republican League of the United States, for his invaluable services in bringing out the real issue involved in the present canvass, which is the issue between the classes and the masses; between the protected interests on the one side, and the body of the American people on the other. Nobody has ever put this quite so clearly and bluntly as Mr. Foster has done in his famous "confidential" circular.

It will be remembered that Mr. Foster declares it to be "a fact that the manufacturers of the United States are most benefited by our tariff laws." With all due respect to him, however, we must say that this statement would not carry great weight if it stood only as the opinion of the President of the Republican League of the United States. What lends importance to the circular is the quotation of the well-considered opinion on this point of Senator Edmunds or Senator Morrill of Vermont—the description of Mr. Foster's authority as "a Republican United States Senator from a State which never had a Democratic representative in either house of Congress or a Democratic State officer," rendering it certain that either Mr. Edmunds or Mr. Morrill is the man. Both are Republicans of such prominence and such familiarity with the subject of which they treat that it would be hard to decide whose words would carry the more weight.

Senator Edmunds or Senator Morrill used these "strong words and bitter, but true," as quoted by Mr. Foster: "I was solicited to contribute to a protective-tariff league, and I replied that *if the manufacturers of the United States in their associated capacity were an eleemosynary institution, I would vote to give them a pension, but that I did not propose myself to contribute money to advance the interests of men who were getting practically the sole benefit, or at least the most directly important benefits, of the tariff laws.*" Again, he spoke of "the manufacturers" as "reaping the fruits of the tariff policy." Still again, he referred to "*the manufacturers of Pennsylvania, who are more highly protected than anybody else, and who make large fortunes every year when times are prosperous.*" All of this was preliminary to the Senator's declaration that "*if I had my way about it, I would put the manufacturers of Pennsylvania under the fire and fry all the fat out of them*"; and he added in conclusion: "If the Mills Tariff Bill comes to the Senate, there will be some votes cast there which will open the eyes of some of these people who have, *while gathering their millions*, treated the Republican party as their humble servant."

In the face of such testimony from such a

source, nobody will question that the high-tariff policy is a policy in the interest of the manufacturers, who get "practically the sole benefit" of it, and who in consequence "make large fortunes every year when times are prosperous," and that the masses are taxed by this policy for the advantage of a class. It is notorious that protected manufacturers themselves admit the truth of all this when they are "talking not for publication," and it is equally notorious that the hope of Republican success in the pending campaign is based upon the theory that the manufacturers can frighten and force their employees into voting more "fat" to the employers. The yell of "Free trade!" and the threat of loss of employment are the weapons upon which most reliance is placed.

But there is another class of the American people who are left out of the account in these calculations—the farmers. The census of 1880 showed that the entire number of manufacturing establishments in the United States was but 253,852; and it is a remarkable fact that, although the population had increased during the previous decade nearly one-third, the number of manufacturing establishments had increased only 1,704, owing to the tendency towards the concentration of such industries in the hands of a few men, who "make large fortunes every year." On the other hand, the number of persons engaged in agriculture was 7,670,493. In many States more than half the whole number engaged in all occupations were employed in farming, the percentage being 51 per cent. in Minnesota, 52 per cent. in Indiana, 57 per cent. in Iowa, and 60 per cent. in Nebraska.

These farmers have been doing a good deal of thinking the past few months. President Cleveland made his message last December so short that the country papers could print it, and their subscribers could thus read the whole of it. It seems to have affected a great many of them as it did the Republican farmer in Marion County, Ind., who says: "I have read very carefully the message of Mr. Cleveland that my Republican friends are making such an 'ado' about, and I cannot for the life of me find anything wrong about it"; and the Republican farmer in Iroquois County, Ill., who says: "I read Cleveland's message last winter; it struck me favorably; I've been thinking it over ever since."

For years past these farmers have been seeking a reduction in the tariff upon the necessaries of life. They want the tax upon lumber removed, a tax of which Mr. Blaine once said in Congress, when protesting against the very idea of such a levy: "As to the article of lumber, I again remind the House that there has never been a tax upon this article. The gentleman from Ohio may talk of this question as he pleases; but I say that wherever the Western frontiersman undertakes to make for himself a home, to till the soil, to carry on the business of life, he needs lumber for his cabin, he needs lumber for his fence, he needs lumber for his wagon or cart, he needs lumber for his plough, he needs lumber for almost every purpose in his daily life." The farmers want the tax upon salt removed, agreeing with the view once expressed by Senator Hale of Maine in Congress, when he said: "I believe there is no one question about which the reflection of millions of people day by day is so decided as it is in declaring that there should be no tax upon this article of salt. I believe this article should go upon the free list; that the monopoly which has obtained heretofore for the Onondaga Salt Works—as great and complete as any monopoly ever granted by the Tudors in England's most despotic times—ought to cease."

At the same time these farmers accept the doctrine, which the Republican party used to teach so strongly, that hurtful luxuries like whiskey are the things which ought to be most heavily taxed. They agree with the Senator Edmunds of twenty years ago, who then said that "the principle of taxation has been, and always must be, that luxuries of this description ought to bear the highest possible rate of taxation." They are of the same mind with the Senator Hawley of six years ago, who then said: "Whiskey and tobacco are the legitimate plunder of the tax-collector, the legitimate plunder of the exchequer in every government of the world. They all get a large part of their revenues from them. We should be immeasurably and insufferably foolish if we abolished those taxes."

What does the Republican party in 1888 offer this class of voters? "Rather," it says, "than the surrender of any part of our protective system"—in other words, rather than the surrender of the unjust tax upon lumber or salt—"we favor the entire repeal of internal taxes," in other words, the freeing of whiskey from tax and the reduction of its price to the cheap rates which ruled before the war. To suppose that the farmers were going to swallow such doctrine as this on the ground that anything else meant "free trade," was to set them down for a pack of fools. The managers who thus "insulted their intelligence" are finding out that they made a mistake. The brief interviews with dozens of Republican farmers in Indiana and Illinois, which the *Evening Post* has recently published, furnish evidence of a revolt among the agricultural population which will give the Republican managers in more than one Western State, commonly rated as surely Republican, enough to keep them busy during the campaign.

SIGNS OF NATIONAL PROGRESS.

When Gen. Harrison was nominated, a number of Republican papers began printing reminiscences of the "Tippecanoe and Tyler too" campaign, and making predictions that we should have "1840 over again." But this sort of talk was soon found to fall flat, and has been pretty much dropped. In some places, especially out West, survivors of the Whig era who voted for Harrison the grandfather, are organizing to vote for Harrison the grandson, and occasionally an effort is made to revive the log-cabin business; but it is too evidently an effort to meet with much success.

The truth is, that another campaign of the 1840 style is impossible in this country. The Republicans suffer in the present canvass from having lost, by reason of their free-whiskey platform, the moral impulse which has always been so important to their party; but even if they had a policy which appealed to the moral sense, they could not utilize in Benjamin Harrison's behalf the methods which were all the rage when William Henry Harrison was a candidate. The reason is that the nation has grown older and wiser, and now recognizes the puerility of what in our grandfathers' day was held fit business for grown-up men.

The log-cabin and hard-cider campaign was greatly promoted by exceptional conditions due to the panic of 1837, which operated to the advantage of the Whigs, but there was a real philosophy of national development underlying it. Mr. Schurz, in his 'Life of Henry Clay,' has brought out very clearly the significance of Andrew Jackson's advent upon the national stage as illustrating a change in the condition of the public mind. "There always comes," says Mr. Schurz, "a time in the life of a democracy—and it is a critical period—when the masses grow impatient of all pretensions or admissions of superiority; when a vague distrust of professional statesmanship, of trained skill in the conduct of the Government, seizes upon them, and makes them easily believe that those who possess such trained skill will, if constantly intrusted with the management of public affairs, take some sort of advantage of those less trained; that, after all, the business of governing is no more difficult than other business; and that it would be safer to put into the highest places men more like themselves, not skilled statesmen, but 'men of the people.'" Mr. Schurz holds that this was the real strength of the Jackson movement.

The campaign of 1840 represented the same popular feeling which Mr. Schurz has so well described, and gave it even better expression than it had found in the Jackson contests. Never before had there been, and never since has there been seen, a Presidential campaign of more enthusiasm and less thought. The Whig convention adopted no platform, passed no resolutions, issued no address, put forth no programme of policy; but simply nominated a plain, blunt old man, whose "record" fitted him equally well for a Democratic candidacy. The canvass suited the absent platform and colorless candidate. It was really nothing but a prolonged popular frolic, with monster mass-meetings, genuine raccoons, actual log cabins, real hard cider. It has been said that one-half of the American people seemed to have stopped work to march in processions behind brass bands or drum and fife, to attend huge picnics, and to sing campaign doggerel about "Tippecanoe and Tyler too."

It is safe to say that there has never been a time in our history when the average man felt so sure both that he was capable of being President, and that some man like him ought to be President in a Government like ours, as when it was found that Harrison had been elected. The idea that it was a great re-

commendation for a candidate that he had been a poor, hard-working, ill-educated man in early life, was seen to have great weight twenty years later, when Abraham Lincoln was nominated, and much was made of the fact that he had been a rail-splitter in his youth. When the Illinois Republican State Convention met in May, 1860, and presented Lincoln as a "favorite son," his old associate in the days of his poverty brought in "two rails from a lot made by Abraham Lincoln and John Hanks, in the Sangamon bottom, in the year 1830," and, the historian says, "was met with wild and tumultuous cheers, prolonged through several minutes." Thereafter through the campaign "the rail-splitter" was one of the most familiar catch-words.

But by 1880 it was evident that a change for the better had come over the public mind in respect to this matter. Garfield had been a tow-boy on a canal in his youth, and, according to the Harrison and Lincoln precedents, great stress should have been laid upon this fact, as somehow furnishing evidence that he was exceptionally qualified to occupy the White House. Some efforts were made to start what might be called a tow-boy boom, and, if we remember rightly, soon after the nomination a club was formed in Washington which carried a canal-boat transparency in a procession. But the thing fell very flat, and Garfield, who was quick to discern the drift of sentiment, immediately caused it to be understood that he was running for the Presidency on his record as an adult Congressman, and not as a youthful mule-driver. Eight years have only served to strengthen the feeling which was seen to exist in 1880, and we confidently assert that such a performance as the rail incident of 1860 could not occur to-day without seriously, if not fatally, injuring the candidacy of the man in whose behalf it should be tried.

The spectacular methods of campaigning which flowered in the campaign of 1840, still survive, but are evidently steadily losing strength. The great political meetings, which once gathered the people from forty miles around at the county seat, grow rarer every four years, and in some quarters are no longer held at all. The barbecue, with its unlimited supply of roast ox for the multitude, is now unknown in many States, and grows less frequent even in such a commonwealth as Kentucky. The ridiculous torchlight procession has fewer and fewer attractions for reasoning creatures. It is no longer composed of men who eagerly embrace the supposed opportunity to "do something for the cause" by marching and carrying torches, and catching pneumonia, but is either a perfunctory sort of thing, or else represents only mercenaries who "holler" for cash, and equally loud for either side. In exceptional cases, like the business men's parades in this city four years ago, there is something of the old spirit, but probably the larger proportion of the participants in them on both sides in 1884 would have confessed that they thought both sides might better have omitted that style of argument. Indeed, we observe with much satisfaction that one party in Racine, Wis., has just made the excellent suggestion to the other that both of them give up the absurd business of torchlight processions, and substitute an intelligent discussion of the tariff. The log-cabin idea, which it is proposed to revive in some cases, will be regarded solely as a reminiscence. As for the doggerel which some Republican organs have brought out, "it won't do," to use one of Mr. Thurman's favorite expressions in the Senate. Respect for gray hairs may induce us to keep silence about the campaign poetry of 1840 when survivors of 1840 are within hearing, but the public is ready to shoot on the spot anybody who indulges the rhyming idiocy in 1888.

All these are healthy signs. They betoken national progress. They show that we have outgrown some of the weaknesses of youth—for surely every candid person must consider it a weakness to behave as though a man were qualified for the Presidency *because* he had lived in a log cabin, or split rails, or driven a canal-boat mule. We are getting beyond the point where it is vaunted as a recommendation for a candidate that he did not have a chance to get a good education. Even Indiana would hardly, we may hope, elect a man Governor in 1888, as in 1876, whose strongest claim to the office appeared to be his suit of blue jeans. We are coming, too, to see that it is no less absurd for intelligent men in a civilized country to tramp around carrying torches o' nights, than such men themselves would consider the spectacle if they saw a lot of savages in some heathen land going through the performance. No, we shall not have "1840 over again" this year, or any other year. The nomination of a Harrison for President in 1888 shows that the nation has made a long advance since another Harrison ran for the same office half-a-century ago.

THE MISSIONS CENTENARY.

The World's Conference of Missionaries, recently held in London to mark the completion of a hundred years of Protestant foreign missions, was a gathering well fitted to appeal to the imagination of Christendom. The great enlargement of missionary enterprises during the century was strikingly revealed in the reports, which showed that in place of the single pioneer, William Carey, upwards of 6,000 missionaries are now supported by Protestant churches, who are assisted by 30,000 native helpers, the whole work costing annually no less than $12,500,000. Aside, too, from the direct work of winning converts, the great results achieved by missionaries as explorers, scientists, linguists, teachers, and physicians were duly set forth, not only in written accounts, but in the living presence of men who have gained distinction in these ways. The public debates were of a high order, and altogether the Conference was really successful in vindicating for the work of missions a place among the important movements of the past hundred years, and in presenting a strong appeal for future effort.

Yet this centennial meeting did not fail to leave the same impression as that made by most missionary gatherings and a large part of missionary literature—the impression, namely, that the whole of the case is not stated. This is vividly reflected in an article by Sir W. W. Hunter, published in the last *Nineteenth Century*. He speaks in the highest terms of missions and missionaries. He gives testimony which is of the strongest sort, from his residence of twenty-five years in India, as to the work of missionaries in the East. He believes, it is true, that no Englishman will ever become the religious awakener of India, saying, "To the natives, the missionary seems to be a charitable Englishman who keeps an excellent cheap school, speaks the language well, preaches a European form of their old incarnations, and drives out his wife and little ones in a pony-carriage"; such a character, of course, being far from the Oriental idea of a religious leader. It is on this ground that he pronounces the little companies of Cambridge and Oxford High Church ascetics, in Delhi and Calcutta, to be the really most effective missionaries known to him.

What concerns him most, however, is the way missionary affairs are conducted and represented at home. He says of such conferences as the one just held: "In their eagerness to intensify enthusiasm and to prove their case, they are liable to lapse into methods not calculated to carry conviction to minds which are simply desirous to get at the facts." He instances the debate in the Conference on the moral influence of Islam, a question made unusually prominent by recent discussions. Delegates were present able to speak intelligently on all sides of this matter, but the time assigned the debate was very limited, speakers qualifiedly in favor of Mohammedanism were coldly received, and the debate was cut short by a demand, not to be resisted in Exeter Hall, that a season of prayer should take the place of discussion.

On the point of one-sidedness, Sir William says: "The really noble work done by the missionaries abroad often suffers, in the opinion of serious and candid men, from the methods employed at home. It suffers also from a vague but general impression that only a part of the evidence appears." He instances the case of Prof. Legge of Oxford, for thirty-four years a missionary, and now Professor of Chinese in the University. Prof. Legge holds positive convictions to the effect that not much is to be expected from Christian missions in the Orient, as long as missionaries carry their sectarian differences with them, and especially as long as they are known to come from nations where drunkenness and the social evil prevail. "When Prof. Legge was asked to take part in the Conference, he explained that he would have to clearly put forward his convictions—with the result that he did not take part in it at all."

This is a typical case. Undoubtedly the promoters of missions fail fully to trust the intelligence of those to whom their appeals are directed. The public, so far as it derives its knowledge from missionary addresses

and periodicals, gets only partial, and so misleading, information. The returned missionary soon finds that he is expected to speak only of the things which will "encourage" the home churches. The parts of missionary correspondence which get into print are, as a rule, only the parts which the editor can refer to as "cheering news." These practices have become the established custom with no conscious purpose of misleading—usually, we have no doubt, without a passing thought that there is anything unfair in them. But, after all, it is like feeding sugar-plums to the churches. We are far from arguing that missionary scandals should be made public. With perfect propriety they may be hushed up, as they are. But the policy of presenting only one side of the matter is certain to prove itself, in the end, a short-sighted policy. Unfavorable reports that leak out, as they are coming more and more to do, are far more disastrous than if there had been no attempt to withhold them. One frank and conscientious missionary, like Prof. Legge, is worth, in the long run, a dozen who tell but half the tale. It is absurd to suppose that intelligent supporters of missions need to be coddled with half-truths. To a thoughtful Christian, in fact, a full and fair statement of the situation, even if it revealed to him unsuspected and unpleasant facts, would really prove an argument for renewed zeal and generosity. We hope yet to see a missionary periodical conducted on the principle of giving all the information to be had on all sides of all missionary questions.

JOHN MITCHEL.

DUBLIN, July 7, 1888.

FROM towards the close of the last century, dominant British statesmen have conceived and acted upon the theory that liberty in Ireland was incompatible with the stability of the British empire; and, until Mr. Gladstone's recent overtures, large numbers of the Irish people desired the humiliation and downfall of the British empire. From time to time, devoted leading Irishmen have given vigorous expression to that reciprocal sentiment. They have entered upon the wildest emprises, thrown calculation to the winds, deluded themselves as to their resources, and blindly dashed against superior force, to the destruction of their lives and those of their followers, but to their own immortal honor in the eyes of the masses of their fellow-countrymen, who, living under intolerable conditions, always take to their heart of hearts such exponents of popular wrongs and needs. Wolfe Tone, in the coolness, mastery, and extent of his combinations, perhaps rises above the class of mind I have indicated. Lord Edward Fitzgerald and Robert Emmet are enshrined in the nation's affections as the brightest examples of such leaders in the times of the United Irishmen; and fifty years later William Smith O'Brien and John Mitchel. Let us hope the bead-roll is complete; but that is unlikely if Lord Salisbury's and Mr. Balfour's policy be carried out much longer.

'The Life of John Mitchel' has just appeared, and has created deep interest in National circles, wherein some of his nearest relatives still move. It is in two volumes, compiled and written on a Colorado ranch by William Dillon, brother of John Dillon. The brothers are sons of John Blake Dillon, one of Mitchel's coadjutors and most intimate friends in 1848. The style, at least in the early pages, is at times defective, but the reader forgets this in the admirable balance and construction of the volumes, and in the uncompromising truthfulness with which Mitchel is delineated. The memoir is that of a Unitarian who held on to doctrinal Christianity by the slightest threads; few would suppose it to be the work of a stanch Catholic. When present political passions and prejudices subside, John Mitchel will, I believe, be recognized as one of the most vigorous masters of the English language since the days of Swift. Meanwhile, it may perhaps be interesting to many who have not seen the biography, to know something of its contents.

John Mitchel, the son of a Presbyterian minister, was born in County Derry in 1815. He passed through college and entered upon the profession of a solicitor. That ungovernable impetuosity which always characterized him, was shown when he was only twenty-one by his eloping with a schoolgirl of sixteen. We are glad to know that the marriage proved a blessing through all the vicissitudes of his life. He was gradually attracted towards public affairs, became more and more interested in O'Connell's repeal agitation, and at length put aside his professional prospects for an editorial chair in the office of the *Nation*, removed with his family to Dublin, and threw himself into the then seething cauldron of Irish politics. John Mitchel's Irish political career, that which made him so beloved by his fellow-countrymen, was comprised within a period of two years and eight months. He took up his residence in Dublin in October, 1845, and in June, 1848, he left it in chains, a convicted felon. We are given delightful glimpses of his domestic and social life during that interval. With a devoted wife and children, to whom he was tenderly attached, he belonged to a charming literary circle, to whose members he was united by political sympathy; his habits were frugal —all combined to render his private life eminently happy.

Far different was it, however, outside, amidst the storms of political passion. O'Connell had raised hopes that he was unable to fulfil, his energy and power waned, and he was broken down in spirit by age and by imprisonment, almost regal though its conditions were. He was inclined to temporize with the Government and secure places for his followers. The public mind was inflamed by political disturbances on the Continent. Starvation and fever brooded over Ireland, which yet exported vast quantities of the necessaries of life. Under these circumstances, any measures hitherto considered allowable by communities in desperate emergencies were held lawful by the leaders of the Young Ireland party. Mitchel soon found even the *Nation* too moderate for the expression of his opinions, and started the short-lived *United Irishman*, which, in burning language, declared the abasement of the British empire essential for the welfare of Ireland, and inculcated the duty of armed insurrection. Mr. Dillon endeavors to show that Mitchel recommended preparation for revolt rather than immediate revolt. His actual words may not express the latter, but their undoubted drift when written was to that effect.

To understand this period in Mitchel's life and in Irish history, the reader should turn to the accurate and sober narrative contained in Jonathan Pim's 'Transactions of the Central Relief Committee of the Society of Friends during the Famine in Ireland.' Things were indeed then at an awful pass—thousands dying of fever, many of starvation, emigrants crowding into "coffin ships," at one time nearly half the population in receipt of relief. Mitchel and his friends believed the decimation of the Irish people was deliberately favored by the Government. Many bitter passages (never forgotten by Irishmen) in the *Times* and other papers favored such an impression. At least, such measures were not taken as would have been if a similar calamity had fallen upon England. Looking back, however, we must remember that the rights of the masses were not as fully acknowledged as they are at present, and in no country did their cry then press so immediately upon Government. And of the very time when the Young Irelanders deemed the Government most to blame, the above report says :

"The Legislature had made sufficient provision against actual starvation, and the energy and skill of the Executive had brought this enactment into operation. The untiring liberality of America had furnished us with surplus funds to a considerable amount. The continuation of an extensive system of alms-giving was not only in itself objectionable, but, by interfering with the legal arrangements for the support of the poor, was likely to defeat its own object."

If the Friends' Report may be taken as a corrective to the bitter feelings likely to be aroused by John Mitchel's writings and biography, its neglected warnings and suggestions regarding the Irish land system are in themselves an explanation and justification of subsequent disturbances here. British statesmen of the time hoped to degrade Irish agitation by treating as felons, instead of honorable opponents guilty of high treason, those Irishmen who resisted the law. The Treason-Felony Act was accordingly passed, and John Mitchel left Ireland a felon in chains. Conviction had been impossible with a fairly constituted jury, and for his trial a jury had been shamelessly packed. Britons were, however, new at such work. No sooner was he on board the *Shearwater* than his fetters were removed, and he was asked down to the cabin by the captain to take a glass of wine. Mitchel and others convicted in 1848 were in the main treated as honorable opponents—felons only in name. Through the horrors of the Fenian imprisonment the contest has since then considerably hardened. At one end of the chain we have John Mitchel in 1848, tried by the pretence, at least, of a jury, and invited by his jailer to a friendly chat over a bottle of wine; at the other we have his associate's son, John Dillon, in 1888, tried without judge or jury by police-magistrates, and dressed in prison clothes and herded with common malefactors in jail.

Would that we could close the life of Mitchel on his own farm, amid the lovely scenery of Tasmania, surrounded by his wife and family, and in the congenial society of brother exiles! Hitherto it had been consistent, at least in the eyes of the majority of his fellow-countrymen. It had been, if not always wise, uniformly actuated by a lofty purpose which led him to sacrifice himself for the good of others. It is interesting all through—varied, full of striking incidents, lit by brilliant thought. If unhappy to him in its unrest (in a letter he says that wherever he is, is perhaps the most miserable place in the world), it is deeply interesting in his overmastering love for Ireland, and in his family affections and power of acquiring and keeping friends. But with his departure from Tasmania the interest flags. His escape was secured by what most readers would consider a breach of parole, and, chafing under captivity in its most lenient form ("disguise itself as it will, slavery is a bitter draught," he writes to a friend), he freed himself to assist in extend-

ing and consolidating the most execrable system of bondage that the modern world has seen. John Mitchel was an honorable man. Some of those who endorsed his plan of evading parole were among the most honorable men I have known. None the less will that plan be condemned by most unbiassed readers. Intense desire for freedom, friendship, above all political friendship, led men to actions and approval of actions which cannot be condoned by those outside the circle of their influence. If John Mitchel's ethics regarding parole were generally accepted, parole would have little weight or significance.

Again, we cannot excuse his action regarding slavery and the slave trade. His love for the classics and classic models, his friendship with Carlyle and sympathy with most sides of his character except that turned to Ireland, may be pleaded. One cause may have been that at that period England was, in name at least, anti-slavery. Hatred of "cant" is dwelt upon as a cause—the intolerable cant of the abolitionists and good people generally. But we think the cant was entirely on the other side. To his vehement and narrow nature no wrongs signified which did not come within the immediate circle of his sympathy, and all denunciation of injustice that lay outside of it was contemptible and canting.

John Mitchel suffered for his principles in the United States as in Ireland. He lost two sons in the war, his means of living were destroyed, his family broken up. The severity with which he was treated in Fortress Monroe appears unjustifiable.

Let us turn from all this to his last days in his beloved Ireland in 1875, in sight of the familiar Mourne Mountains, with their ferny dells and clear, rushing brooks, to which he had turned with an aching longing during twenty-six years of exile. He died far away from wife and surviving children, but among near relatives, and, above all, with his comrade, John Martin, and he was buried in Irish soil. The touching friendship between Mitchel and Martin, such different men, is fully recorded in Mr. Dillon's work. Companions in youth, they were together in imprisonment and exile, and continued the closest friends, although Martin did not share his friend's views of slavery, and Mitchel affected to despise the home-rule principles and constitutional methods of Martin's later life. They died in the same house, and within a few days of each other.

This 'Life of John Mitchel' will, I believe, take and hold a place in Irish literature beside Wolfe Tone's autobiography. D. B.

DAUDET'S "IMMORTAL."

PARIS, July 12.

ALPHONSE DAUDET'S 'L'Immortel' appeared in numbers in an illustrated paper called the *Illustration*. It is now before me in the shape of a volume, and I read on its cover "quarantième mille"—for we no longer say first, second, third edition, but first, second, third, etc., thousand; and our authors in renown are not satisfied if the sale does not go as high as 100,000, just as our dramatists are not contented if they have not their hundred representations.

'L'Immortel' attracts much curiosity; it is a satire on the famous company of the "Immortals," the French Academy, and everybody is trying to place the real names under the names of the persons who appear in the novel. The same thing was done when La Bruyère published his 'Characters,' and I have several copies which bear the names (written in the margins) of the various persons who were supposed to have been the models of the great moralist. It is hardly necessary to say that Alphonse Daudet is a marvellous photographer, that his memory is very retentive, that his powers of description are extraordinary. He can bring life into any subject, he is never dull. His heroes and heroines seem really to move before our eyes, they have life, and they carry us with them into the turmoil of their agitated existence. In the case of this new book, I must, however, make immediately a remark: Daudet has deprived himself (and he has done so voluntarily) of one of the greatest elements of success in an artistic work. Afraid of being libellous, he borrowed traits from various characters and combined them in one. Every one of his Academical heroes is really a collection of several characters, and for this very reason they are wanting in unity, and therefore are not real creatures. Daudet himself said to a journalist who interviewed him, and asked if he was right in recognizing in Desminières M. Camille Doucet, the present perpetual secretary of the Academy: "No, you can say that there is only one man whom I have remembered completely in painting Védrine (the artist who despises all conventionalities, all the Academic coteries, who is thoroughly independent, and lives only for his art and for his family), and that is the sculptor, Zacharie Astruc." (I must confess here, incidentally, that this Zacharie Astruc was unknown to me.)

The conversation between Daudet and the journalist proceeds, and the journalist says: "You must confess that your Danjou resembles Pailleron in his turn of mind and even in his person." "Evidently," answers Daudet, "as I said to you, there are reflections more or less strong. But, in reality, you cannot give a precise name, in an absolute manner, to a single one of my personages." It is true that whoever should amuse himself by taking all the personages of the story and making a list of them, and then writing opposite the names of the living models, would give an inexact account of the reality; what ought to be done is to write against each name of the novel two, if not three, names of real persons. But is not this a severe criticism of 'L'Immortel'? Can you make living people out of pieces? And is not a novel composed in this fashion a mere collection of anecdotes, thrown together without any order? The impression left on the mind is a sort of confusion; there is no unity in the design, and no logic in the development of the story.

Strangely enough, the real hero, if there is one, of 'L'Immortel,' in which you might have expected an Academician to be the central figure, is not an "Immortal." He is, to be sure, the son of one; a man who has the most utter contempt for all the vanities of the Academical world, a young architect, called Paul Astier, who believes in nothing but money, and all that money can give. Paul Astier is not a bad type. Daudet calls him amusingly a "struggle-for-lifer," in one word; he intends under this name a new race of ferocious young men, for whom the Darwinian invention of the struggle for existence becomes a sort of a scientific excuse for all sorts of infamies, great and small. Daudet says that their name has become legion. These precocious monsters have completely abolished all the old notions of duty; they consider that they have duties only towards themselves, and enter on life like young gladiators, believing that they have a right to cut their way across our civilization as they would across armed legions.

Paul Astier is a rising architect; he can build a fine hôtel for you, he began by building one for himself. He lives in great style and has got into debt; from time to time, he remembers that he has a father, Léonard Astier, an "Immortal" who spends all his money in collecting historical autographs, and a mother who is willing to do anything for him. Madame Astier deprives herself of everything for her son; she has been very handsome, and still has traces of beauty, but she wears old gowns. All her ambitions, all her hopes, are centred in the wicked and egoistical Paul. She despises her husband, who married her merely because her father was an Academician. Her beauty, her grace, were to him a stepping-stone; now she has become a stepping-stone for her son.

The young and embarrassed "struggle-for-lifer" wants to marry the rich Colette de Rosen. Readers of the 'Rois en exil' know Colette: she is the wicked young woman who married Herbert, the son of the devoted Rosen. Herbert was killed in an insurrection in Illyria, and Colette is the inconsolable widow, who parades her widowhood. She has a magnificent monument built at Père-Lachaise for Herbert, for the hero whom she has lost. But she thinks of marrying again, and Madame Astier suggests to her the Prince d'Athis, an old beau, devoted for many years to the Duchess Padovani (one of the great Egerias of the Academical world). The Prince is tired of the Duchess; he has accepted a post as Ambassador, and the world learns that he is going to marry Colette. Paul learns it from his mother, who was ignorant of his own designs on Colette; she did not know that the latter had once taken him to the mausoleum, on a fine evening, on the hill overhanging Paris—a scene not very dissimilar to the famous scene in the 'Matron of Ephesus.'

Paul Astier hears of the impending marriage of Colette with the Prince, and he goes to join his mother, who is at the Théâtre-Français in the box of a lady who is one of the stars of the Academical society. He takes his mother a moment aside. "'Speak quick,' he begins. 'Is Samy going to marry?' [Samy is the familiar name of the Prince]. 'Yes, the Duchess has known it since yesterday; but she has come here nevertheless. They are so proud, these Corsicans.' 'And the name of the woman, can you tell it now?' 'Colette. Of course you must have suspected it.' 'Not in the least. . . . What are you going to get for that?' Triumphantly she whispered: 'Two hundred thousand—' 'Your intrigues cost me twenty millions—twenty millions and the woman,' and, wringing her wrists with rage, he threw in her face the word 'Gaffeuse!'" (*Faire une gaffe* is a slang term for making a mistake.)

Nice manners, nice people! Young Astier, who calls his mother "gaffeuse" (a mother who has just taken autographs from her husband's collection and sold them secretly to pay one of her son's bills), is not a man to submit at once to the decision of the wicked Colette. He will struggle first. He picks a quarrel with the Prince of Athis, with the full determination to kill him if he can. The scene of the duel is among the best in the book. The Prince ought to be killed. Paul is a good swordsman, and he feels that he owes it to himself to get rid of his enemy; but fate will not have it so—he is badly wounded himself. For a moment he gives up the struggle, and then remembers the Duchess Padovani, whom the Prince has left with great *éclat*, and from his bed he sends her a card, telling her that he has fought the duel in order to avenge her. The Duchess, who

is thought to be inconsolable for the loss of the Prince, is in her country-house. As usual, she extends her hospitality to many Academical celebrities. They all come, and we hear their conversations, and are let into the secret of their intrigues. One room is empty, the room which used to be occupied by the Prince; but it remains not always empty, for the young architect, still pale, and hardly recovered from his wound, arrives, and is lodged in it, and becomes the shining star of the place.

The love scenes between the young man and the Duchess are very well drawn; they are a struggle, indeed, for the young and calculating Astier is determined to force the Duchess to marry him. He will not be contented with less; and we see the combat between her pride and the passion which she feels for the first time with a degree of violence she has not known before. She succumbs, pride is vanquished by love, and the young architect becomes Count Astier. He has no prejudices; the woman whom he marries is much older than he. When the new Roman Count informs his father of his marriage, the father says: "'You are going to marry? Whom?' 'The Duchess Padovani.' 'You are mad. The Duchess is twenty-five years older than you—and then—and then.' He hesitated, trying to find a respectful formula, and then brutally ejaculated, 'One does not marry a woman who, to everybody's knowledge, has belonged to another man for years.' 'This has never hindered us from dining regularly with her and incurring a thousand obligations to her,' said Mme. Astier." The father interferes too late; the marriage of his son is the last blow to his pride, and he has received already so many other blows: all his autographs have been found to be forgeries. He has been for years the prey of an impostor, and now all the world knows it and laughs at his credulity. The river is not far from the Institute; he has only a few steps to take to throw himself in the Seine—a very tragical end for a ridiculous "Immortal," and for which nothing has prepared us.

Léonard Astier-Réhu, Perpetual Secretary of the French Academy, who ends in this way, is a very improbable character. The incident of the spurious autographs was taken by Daudet from the life of the famous Chasles, the mathematician, who never belonged to the French Academy. He has also borrowed another of his heroes from the Academy of Sciences. If Léonard Astier-Réhu is really M. Chasles, who has acquired a high renown by his 'Higher Geometry,' Réhu, the centenarian, the grandfather of Mme. Astier, is no other than our Chevreul, who celebrated two years ago his centenary, and who is now 102 years old. Chevreul is not an "Immortal"; he is only the oldest member of the Academy of Sciences. It seems as if Daudet had been afraid to enter the holy precincts of the forty "Immortals"; and though he desired to describe the vanities and follies of the literary Olympus, he takes us constantly out of it. Daudet has only alluded in the most distant manner to the great majority of the present members of the French Academy. Some of them are even intentionally ignored. The "Dukes" are only mentioned once or twice; in short, 'L'Immortel' has only the Academy as a sort of *cadre;* and the reader who expects to be taken into all the mysteries of Academical life will be somewhat disappointed.

LOCAL COLOR IN SEVILLE.

GRANADA, June 19.

SPAIN is doubtless the only country in the world where one can on the same day—within six hours—admire and study two of the greatest masterpieces of Christian and Mohammedan architecture. I left the Cordovan Mosque one morning at ten o'clock for the railway station, and at four o'clock I was in the Seville Cathedral, thus having an excellent opportunity for comparison. In speaking of the Cordovan Mosque I ventured to question the appositeness of Gautier's comparison of the interior of that building to a marble forest. The *coro* which was stupidly built in the centre of the old mosque in 1523, militates against such an impression, and the red and yellow arches which were put up in 1713 in place of the original ornamented Moorish ceiling, are extremely unsuggestive of forest trees and their branches. To my mind this comparison to a forest seemed much more natural in the Seville Cathedral. Vast height, dim light, gloom and awe are the characteristics of a primitive forest, and all these, absent in Cordova, are to be found in the Cathedral of Seville. But if this Cathedral be compared to a petrified forest, it must be to a forest of giant trees, such as those in the Yosemite Valley. There is something supremely massive, colossal, mammoth, in the huge high pillars of this building — something which makes one wonder, as do the pyramids of Egypt, that human might should have sufficed to place these monstrous stones in an upright position and in symmetrical rows. The Cordovan pillars are mere walking-sticks in comparison, and the ceiling which they support only one-quarter as high as that in the Seville Cathedral, which is the largest—and its tower the highest—in Spain. So vast is its interior space that, notwithstanding its 93 windows, a dim, mysterious twilight pervades every part all day long. Yet, although Seville is the warmest and sunniest place in Spain, and this Cathedral its coolest spot, the flock of worshippers is very small indeed. The number of priests who officiate at the 30 chapels and 82 altars has been reduced from 133 to 97; but it seems as if to-day one-quarter that number would suffice for all needful purposes.

After seeing the Cathedral, the most important thing to do is to ascend its tower, the famous Giralda, and get a bird's-eye view of the city and its surroundings. A glance suffices to show why Seville is such a warm place. The immediate surroundings are flat and marshy, and the encircling mountains, although they make a fine picture, are too far off to benefit the city with their breezes. But, as the roofs of the houses are mostly flat and of a Moorish character, the inhabitants can, on warm nights, wrap themselves in sheets and sleep in the open air. The belfry, near the top of the Giralda, has 22 bells, of which Ford remarks that "they are almost treated as persons, being all duly baptized, before they are suspended, with a peculiar oil, and they are christened after saints." Nevertheless they are subjected to the undignified treatment of being tied bottom side up—a somewhat risky arrangement, for if one of the ropes should break, a visitor standing underneath might suddenly find himself reduced to the alternative of following his head down into the street, or doing without one. The Spaniards have a peculiar way of ringing their church bells. They not only ring them as fast as fire bells, but, instead of moving them simply to and fro, they make them turn complete somersaults. The bell-ringers have to look out for their heads, under these circumstances, and I was told that a few years ago one of them was fatally injured.

Although the Giralda is 350 feet in height, it is so easy to ascend that one arrives at the top before one is aware, and without the slightest fatigue or necessity of pausing. The ascent has even been made with horses, for there are no steps, but a series of moderately inclined planes winding along the sides of the tower—an arrangement which ought to be adopted in other towers. It is not till one leaves Seville, and notes how the Cathedral, with its tower, looms up more and more above the houses, that one realizes the height of the Giralda. In the city itself the streets are so tortuous and narrow that one constantly loses sight of it, so that it does not serve so much as a useful guide-post as one might imagine and hope. Nevertheless, after Toledo and Cordova, some of the streets of Seville appear neither narrow nor labyrinthian, but almost modern and metropolitan. The most interesting of them is the Calle de Sierpes, which no wagon is allowed to enter, and which is lined with cafés, club-houses, and elegant shops. Many of the shops are semi-Moorish; for although you do not see a turbaned Mohammedan squatting on his hind legs in a small booth open to the street, where customers, without leaving the street, bargain for the goods stored round about him, you *do* see no end of shops which are practically in the street, the whole front wall (consisting of doors) being removed in the daytime, so that the clerks can look up and down the street without getting from behind the counters. To the clerks, no less than the customers, it is a great boon to be thus all day long in the open air, instead of being cooped up, as elsewhere, in close, hot, stuffy rooms. Additional comfort and coolness is provided by stretching awnings across some of the streets, so that one can walk comfortably even in the early afternoon. But as this is done only in the principal streets, few of the natives go out at that hour. Everybody takes his *siesta* either in the house or in the street, and one has to take care in turning a corner not to stumble across men, or sometimes even women, fast asleep in a shady spot. Even the street-cars, which were built some months ago—by foreign enterprise, of course—are empty at that hour, though otherwise a paying investment. To an American it is difficult to realize that a city which once had 400,000 inhabitants, and still has 135,000, covering a very large territory, only just making up its mind to have means of cheap and rapid transit. But time is not money in Spain. If it were, the Spaniards would all be rich, for they have plenty of it.

What surprised me most in the streets of Seville was that even towards evening and at night they were by no means as crowded as I had been led to expect, nor was the evening promenade at all well attended, except on Sunday. Yet it is the orthodox thing for tourists who come to Seville from Cordova to contrast the bustle and animation of the first-named city with the tomb-like solitude of Cordova. I appealed to a resident Englishman for an explanation, and he said that the writers had not misrepresented the state of affairs, but that Seville was for the moment in an apathetic, comatose condition, because quite recently two leading banks, containing the savings of thousands, had failed. "However," he added, "the Andalusian never indulges long in any feeling, whether depressed or joyous, and in a few weeks Seville will probably be as gay as ever." Nevertheless, various indications led me to believe that Seville will never again be what it was in the times of the famous "Barber," even though its commercial activity is said to have been greatly stimulated by the improvements in the Guadalquivir which have made Seville accessible to the largest steamers.

My attention having been attracted by some

peculiarly lugubrious music, I followed it to its source and came across a funeral procession. Its head was formed by a dozen boys bearing long candles. Then came the coffin, carried by four men whose heads and bodies were buried under the cloth which covered the coffin, leaving only their legs visible, so that at the first moment I actually mistook the group for a huge animal. Priests followed, arrayed in black robes with red stripes, and the rear was brought up by the music, consisting of an oboe and two bassoons—a peculiarly melancholy combination—accompanying the solemn chant of the priests. The procession stopped in front of a house, and, with the bystanders, formed a group around the coffin, which was opened and the features of the corpse once more exposed to daylight. The crowd then dispersed, and the ecclesiastics returned to their haunts.

Half an hour later I came across a different procession, but quite as characteristic of the city and the country. A cow, gayly decked with flowers, was slowly led along the street by a girl, the rear being brought up by a blind man blowing a flageolet and beating a drum incessantly. A crowd of children followed, of course, and on inquiry I discovered that the cow was to be raffled for, any one paying a trifle and taking his chances. In the course of ten days I saw several of these processions in Seville. The lottery is, next to bull-fights, the great passion of the Spaniards.

The public lotteries are innumerable and on a large scale. If you sit in a café near a window, you will be annoyed every five minutes by a man or woman offering lottery tickets. They sell them at cost price, but expect a small gratuity. As Spaniards, at least the lower classes, rarely read a newspaper, the prizes are not printed in them, but are loudly proclaimed in the street by men who make a business of it, and who also expect a gratuity if they give you welcome news. But perhaps the most peculiar thing about Spanish lotteries is that the numbers immediately preceding or following the great prizes are also winning numbers. For instance, in one case where the highest prize was 200,000 francs, and five others were 40,000 each, the contiguous numbers above and below were worth 5,000 each. This is shrewd philosophy, for it is well known that the bitterest disappointment comes to those who get within one number of winning.

The lottery tickets are not sold in cigar-stores, as in most other countries, but in special shops which are almost as numerous as wine houses. To atone for this, the cigar-stores have a monopoly of a kind which strikes every foreigner as by far the oddest thing in Spain: the sale of postage stamps. You cannot get a stamp at a Spanish post-office for love or money. You get it at the nearest cigar-store, where also you will find a letter-box, and nowhere else except at the post-office. A strange story was told me by an English chaplain at Malaga. Casually strolling into a café one day, he noticed a number of letters stuck up on the wall, and to his supreme astonishment found that several of them were for him. On investigating the matter, he discovered that a postal clerk had entered into an arrangement with the cafetier to send him letters addressed to foreigners, the understanding being that the latter probably would pay him a fee for his trouble, or, at any rate, frequent the café! The chaplain referred the matter to the Consul, and the little game was stopped. Among the letters in the café were several addressed to parties, known to the chaplain, who had left weeks before. The moral would seem to be, don't address your letters *poste restante*, but send them to the Consul or the banker named in your letter of credit.

Registered letters appear to be safe, on the other hand, but the extraordinary precautions taken to make them safe appear like an accusation of general dishonesty. If you receive a registered letter, you have to return the envelope with the signature of your receipt. This is simple enough. The difficulty lies in knowing how to send off a registered letter. I shall never forget my first experience in that line. When I handed in my letter it was returned, with the remark that it must be sealed. I took it to a cigar-store and had a seal put on it, but again it was handed back. "There must be *five* seals," said the clerk. Not wishing to expose my ignorance to the black-eyed beauty in the cigar-store, I went to a stationer's and bought a bar of sealing-wax, but, having no stamp, used a coin instead. Once more the letter was returned: "The stamps on the sealing-wax must be all the same." In despair I took it back to the black-eyed girl and explained my difficulties. She put on the five seals, and then at last the letter was accepted. The most absurd part of the story is, that although Seville swarms with foreigners in spring, there are no directions regarding this matter posted up anywhere. Indeed, not even the time (three or four hours a day) when the post-office is open, is announced at the window. Obviously, the Spaniards are not much in need of postal facilities, and for a very good reason, since not much more than 25 per cent. of the population can write and read.

However, one can afford to put up with such little annoyances at Seville, which richly compensates them by its novel sights and inexhaustible art treasures. Seville is a city of historic contrasts. Having been successively a Phœnician, Greek, Roman, Gothic, Moorish, and Catholic city, it preserves traces and monuments of almost all these dynasties. At the suburb Italica, the birthplace of three Roman emperors, the ruins of an ancient amphitheatre, with the various subterranean divisions for the gladiators and the wild beasts, may still be seen. The city itself is Moorish in the arrangement of the streets and the houses, and the Alcazar is the best preserved specimen of Moorish architecture in Spain. Adjoining it is the Christian Cathedral. In the streets the mediæval donkey grazes the modern horse-car. In the windows of the book-stores the latest French novels, and photographs of pictures from the last Salon, are exposed side by side with the omnipresent Murillos; and at the hotel sits an Englishman in a Moorish patio reading the last number of the London *Times*. These Moorish patios are, of all the sights in Seville, the most interesting. One finds imperfect specimens of them further north, at Cordova and even Toledo, and a few also at Malaga and Granada and elsewhere, but Seville is the place where the delightful Moorish courtyard is seen at its best. There are patios of all sizes and degrees of splendor, but always patios, in every house, and one never tires of peeping into them on walking along the streets. This is easily done, for even if the iron gate which leads to the patio is not open, one can look through the interstices left by its elegantly wrought and painted configurations. In the finest of these square courtyards the floor is of marble, and the walls inlaid with elegant mosaic. In the centre is a flower plot, or a fountain surrounded with flowers, or statuary. Marble columns on each side support the inside projection of the upper story, which is sometimes provided with windows, while the patio itself is open above to the sky at night, and covered in the daytime with an awning, so that it serves at all hours as a refrigerator for the house and its inhabitants. Here the Sevillans hold their morning and afternoon receptions, and here they breathe the fresh air, which accounts for the plump figures and the sparkling eyes of the women. On warm afternoons it is 8 to 10 degrees cooler in the patio and the adjoining rooms than in the upper story of the house; a fact which tourists will do well to remember. I see no reason why these patios should not be universally introduced in warm climates, and I believe they will be as soon as some one sets the fashion. I met a California millionaire who vowed he was going to build a house in the Moorish style, and who was busy at the time getting the prices of some elegant tiles, which he pronounced very cheap.

By far the most sumptuous patios are of course to be found in the Alcazar. I must confess that I was more impressed and thrilled by the marvels of this palace than subsequently by the Alhambra itself, for the simple reason that the Alcazar, having so long been used as a royal residence, is in a better state of preservation. The charms of this palace are bewildering, and can no more be described in words than the love-duo from "Tristan und Isolde." I always thought the comparison of architecture to "frozen music" (attributed sometimes to Goethe, sometimes to Mme. de Staël) rather far-fetched, until the moment I saw this Alcazar. Here, as in an opera, one can yield himself merely to the general impression of the situation, or else one can pursue the details attentively, and ever discover new beauties and unsuspected relationships. The variety of patterns on the walls and ceilings is incredible, and more than kaleidoscopic. There are geometric figures, stars, leaves, flowers, lions, birds, and creatures half fish, half plant, besides Arabic letters and proverbs, and all these as subtly interwoven and endlessly varied as the harmonies in a modern orchestral score. And the instrumentation of all this—the coloring—is truly Wagnerian. No two rooms are alike, a different tint prevailing in each—red in one, blue, green, or gold in others. And most beautiful of all are the black squares, whose glazed surface is iridescent, reflecting all the colors of the rainbow. At the moment I felt as if I would rather be the creator or owner of this building than of all the Gothic cathedrals I had ever seen. A delightful solitude reigns throughout the Alcazar. I saw no living being except an artist copying a ceiling. The wind was whistling dismally through the empty spaces, and I could not help thinking how these sounds, so romantic to a modern visitor, must have harassed and haunted Don Pedro the Cruel after he had caused his brother to be murdered in one of these apartments.

The Sevillans are obviously proud of their Moorish patios and their belongings, for they still build their new houses in the same style. The leading hotel has two fine patios, with a fish-pond, flowers, and fountain, where one can always find a comfortable temperature. At night the perfume in this patio is so rich and overpowering that one almost hesitates to admit the air from it into one's bedroom. But it must be done, for to open the window looking on the street is to bid good-bye to all chances of sleep, not only on account of the belated revellers who wend their way home noisily at intervals till four or five o'clock, but chiefly on account of the watchman, the *sereno*. This lugubrious individual, armed with a spear and a lantern, perambulates the streets all night long, endowed with a threefold function, his first duty being to preserve order, his second to open doors, his third to sing out the hour of the night. As in Berlin, so in Spanish

cities, persons living in apartment-houses carry no keys, but are dependent at night for admission on the watchman, who appears with his bunch of keys and unlocks the door, after he has heard them yell "Sereno" at the top of their voice. This is bad enough, but his song is worse. Every half-hour he sings his Ave Maria at every corner, *fortissimo*, winding up by stating the condition of the weather. As this is almost always "serene" in Spain, his name is plausibly accounted for. Possibly an audacious philologist might also trace the word serenade to this source.

Notwithstanding the *sereno* nuisance, I prolonged my stay in Seville three days in order to see what is considered its most interesting festival, the Corpus Christi procession. Great preparations are made for this, and thousands flock to see it from the country and neighboring towns. Five days before the great day, workmen began to put awnings over all the streets and squares along which the procession was to pass, and chairs were placed in every available corner, with flowers in the background. In the cathedral the columns were wrapped in gorgeous velvet cloths, and in every part of the town, even in the remotest suburbs, women and children were busy the day before the festival in sweeping the streets clean. The procession itself was hardly worth seeing, its principal feature being a number of images of saints carried along by priests on their shoulders. Much more interesting was it, after seeing the slow procession, to get ahead of it some distance and observe the Andalusians, in all their glory, who lined the whole way, sitting on rows of chairs on both sides, and occupying all the windows and balconies, some of which were gayly draped like opera boxes. It was a beauty show such as I had never before seen; and hardly less interesting was the sight of the soldiers who were placed along the whole route in two lines, either on foot or mounted on Andalusian steeds, proud as their masters and graceful as the señoritas who looked on them with their big black eyes.

Before the procession had formed, I witnessed the most unique incident of the Festival—the *ballet in the Cathedral*. This was not so startling as its name implies. A dozen beautiful boys went through various simple evolutions, singing an air which sounded like a Mozart minuet, and accompanied by flutes and violins. Twice, in the concluding measures, the castanets were used, and these, associated with dance halls, did have an odd effect in the echoing cathedral. The musical effect of the performance was delicious, and none but the most bigoted could have taken offence at the dancing, which was, after all, but a slight exaggeration of the processions that can be witnessed in other cathedrals.

In the evening another and quite unexpected musical treat awaited me, which was also a delightful bit of local color. As we were at dinner, at the Hôtel de Madrid, enter suddenly a dozen students in the old-fashioned Salamanca costume, with picturesque cloaks and hats. They marched around the table twice, playing a gay march, and then took seats arranged for them on one side, where they played for us over an hour. The band comprised violins, flutes, a 'cello, tambourine, and several guitars, and the effect was very Spanish and very enjoyable. When dessert came on the table, they marched out again, and subsequently played another hour in the picturesque patio, being assisted by a lovely young girl, who played the castanets and danced with bewitching grace. And, strange to say, no collection was taken up. The host had evidently arranged all this as a treat for his guests. Was there ever host so generous? After all, Spain remains the land of romance.

HENRY T. FINCK.

Correspondence.

DR. VON HOLST AND HIS CRITICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Although I think that, in the opinion of every fair-minded person, I might claim as my right to be heard once more in self-defence, since I am exposed to a regular onset from correspondents of the *Nation*, yet I would keep silent if I was but personally concerned in these attacks. The fact that my writings have been for a number of years pretty extensively used in several American colleges forbids this course, because silence might be interpreted as a confession of having been proved to be such an utterly unreliable and worthless guide as those correspondents assert. To refute their general and sweeping statements in a few lines is, in the nature of the case, impossible. All I can do is, to show that anybody who cares to know what Dr. von Holst says and thinks, has to take the trouble to read his writings, and not to go to "N. Z.," "G. B.," or Wm. M. Meigs. For this purpose two exemplifications are sufficient.

Is it fair of "N. Z." (*Nation*, June 14) to prove the injustice of my complaint, that he has misstated my assertion, by referring the reader to a letter of "A. B. H." published several weeks before in the *Nation*? What he ought to have done I shall do now, viz., put "N. Z.'s" statement and "A. B. H.'s" translation side by side. According to "N. Z.'s" first letter, I said in the incriminated article, "that Senators rather than members of the lower house are regarded by the masses of the people as their genuine representatives." "A. B. H." translates the decisive sentence of the original thus: "The people of a State *as a whole* (*Gesammtbevoelkerung*) recognize the Senators as their representatives rather than the Congressional delegation of the State, *taken as a whole* (*die Gesammtheit der Repraesentanten*)." I do not deem it necessary to add a single word to point out the enormous difference between this assertion and the idea conveyed by "N. Z.'s" version; but I cannot help declaring that it is beyond my power of conception how any thinking person, having read the whole preceding argument, of which this sentence is but the culmination, *can* fail to grasp this difference.

What I said in my former letter about distinguishing between a *fact* and *the theory of the law* may not have been sufficiently clear to those who have not read the article; but "N. Z." ought to have had no difficulty in understanding what I meant. I have tried to prove in my article that, although the President exercises a great INFLUENCE *on* legislation—*as a fact* AND *by right*—yet the Constitution does not give him any SHARE *in the legislative power* ("*Einfluss auf* die Gesetzgebung, aber nicht ANTHEIL *an der gesetzgebenden Gewalt*"). How much the arguments adduced for this opinion may be worth, everybody has to decide for himself; but it rests on *arguments*, and arguments require refutation by arguments. Neither the fact that I have been inconsistent with regard to some other question—as Mr. Meigs asserts, but I flatly deny, so far as the example adduced by him is concerned—nor that I am a foreigner and my opponent, "N. Z.," "to the manner born," nor, finally, "G. B.'s" accusation that I am an enemy of republican institutions, or even a broad hint that I might be a bought tool of Bismarck, can I acknowledge to be such arguments.

That is my last word in this controversy. So far as depends upon myself, everybody shall have henceforth a perfectly unencumbered field to tear to pieces not only the scholar, but also the man who has proved his hatred of and contempt for the United States in the singular way of making the study of their history and institutions his life-task, and who, in his own country, is at every opportunity run down on account of the taints his mind has received by contact with transatlantic republicanism. Whenever my critics—I beg to assure them—attack me with facts or arguments from which I can derive some instruction (as I have done from many a letter of "G. B.'s" to the *Nation*), I shall thank them most sincerely, no matter how much my vanity may have to suffer by it. But for such wounds as they have inflicted this time, a plaster is furnished by such a generous letter as that of my former pupil, "A. B. H.," and the encouragement just received from another younger American scholar of acknowledged ability and promise: "Though many Americans wince under your criticism of our vanity and sentimentality, I hope you will long continue to tell us what 999 of every 1,000 are too vain to recognize of their own account."

Very respectfully, H. VON HOLST.

FREIBURG IM BR., July 8, 1888.

THE PEOPLE'S PALACE AGAIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Walter Besant writes to the *Nation* that, in my paper on the People's Palace, I made a grave mistake in supposing that the audience at the Sunday organ recital is not an audience of genuine workmen. But the mistake I really made was to suppose that the Palace, opened by the Queen, patronized by the Drapers' Company—a title for its clerk being the price of their patronage—and managed by a select committee from the West End, was designed for the class of workpeople who figure in Mr. Besant's novels, and who certainly cannot afford to wear broadcloth and a white collar on Sunday, to waste much money on drink, or, for that matter, to pay even the smallest initiation fee at the Palace. According to Mr. Besant's letter, the great majority with whose misery he has elsewhere asked us to sympathize, have no right to whatever amusements and privileges the Palace affords. The well-to-do workman who, in East End language, wears a 'igh 'at on a Sunday, is provided with another club and library; the men and women who starve on from four to thirteen shillings a week can, as heretofore, seek their recreation and improvement on the streets. But I find there is a great difference between the American and the English idea of a workman. School-teachers, small tradesmen, and clerks, who at home establish their own institutes and clubs, are here included in the working class, and become objects of benevolence for St. Jude's Church missions and People's Palaces.

N. N.

LONDON, July 10, 1888.

PROF. LE CONTE'S EVOLUTION AND THEOLOGY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the interesting notice of Prof. Le Conte's 'Evolution, and its Relations to Religious Thought,' in the *Nation* of July 12, it is stated that, according to the author, the spirit of man was developed out of the anima or conscious principle of animals, and that this again was developed out of the lower forms

of life force, and this in its turn out of the chemical and physical forces of nature. This appears sufficiently clear and emphatic. But, in a subsequent paragraph, Prof. Le Conte is credited with maintaining that between the different planes of existence there is "a very distinct break." The passage from one plane to another is said to be "not a gradual passage by sliding scale, but at one bound." An "irruption of the Universal Energy into a higher plane" is spoken of. May I ask what consistent scientific meaning the word development (or evolution) can have when it is no longer antithetical to "distinct breaks," "bounds," and "irruptions"? The whole effort of the evolutionary theory is to do away with breaks and leaps. To the extent that one admits them, does not one practically go into the old camp? I ask simply in the interest of clear thinking and honest expression.

"Old things need not be therefore true,
O brother men, nor yet the new;
Ah! still awhile the old thought retain,
And yet consider it again."

To one reader it looks as if Prof. Le Conte's scheme were simply one more "repetition of the nauseating incongruities which have so often been put forward under the guise of a 'reconciliation of science and religion.'"

W. M. S.

CHICAGO, ILL., July 19, 1888.

THE WIRE-ROD INDUSTRY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of June 28, p. 519, you published that the ad-valorem duty on the raw material of fence wire is about 70 per cent., when it is exactly 45 per cent. You published that there were less than six rod mills here, whereas there are 33 in all. You published that there were less in the aggregate than 100 men employed. I am far within the mark when I say there are more than 1,500 men on rod-mill pay-rolls, and more than 10,000 men, besides, making iron and steel for these rod mills. Last year the domestic rod mills made fully 180,000 gross tons (2,240 lbs.) of rods. This year we know the ten leading manufacturers will make 273,000 gross tons. The money value of these 273,000 tons will, at least, be $11,193,000. A minute's reflection will satisfy you that more than ten thousand men are needed to make eleven million dollars' worth of rods, although not all directly rolling them. The cause of the large increase in American production is, that nearly all the foreign rods are made in Germany, and are marketed by a pool at about £5 12s. 0d., f.o.b. Antwerp, while they sell to their home consumers at from £5 17s. 6d., to £6 0s. 0d.

JOHN STEVENSON, JR.,
President New Castle Wire Nail Co.

NEW CASTLE, PA., July 11, 1888.

[We have abridged our correspondent's communication, deeming the censure with which he accompanied his correction quite uncalled for. We simply summarized a letter to the protectionist *Iron Age* which passed the scrutiny of the editor of that journal, and in which the writer pleaded for a lower duty on steel-wire rods as an aid to American industry engaged in the manufacture of fence wire. We did not adopt his statistics, or base any conclusions upon them.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

A SERIES entitled "Romantic Tales" is projected by Brentano, embracing "the best works of the day," and such as have never before been translated. Balzac, Féval, and Sardou will furnish the material of the first volume.

'Almost,' a novel by John S. Shriver of the Baltimore *American*, is in the press of Lombard, Druid & Co., Baltimore.

The Semitic Seminary of the Johns Hopkins University, under the lead of Prof. Paul Haupt and with foreign coöperation, intends to publish a complete edition of the works of Edward Hincks, "the greatest of all cuneiformists." Dr. Cyrus Adler communicated this purpose to the American Oriental Society, with a tentative list of Hincks's writings, which is printed in the May volume of the Society's Proceedings. The earliest dates back to 1838; the latest to 1866. This undertaking will be an important preparation for the Seminary's proposed Assyrian-English glossary.

Two volumes of correspondence of the historian Motley are announced to be published in London by John Murray.

The Plays of Wycherley have been added to the "Mermaid Series" (London: Vizetelly & Co., 1888), under the editorial care of W. C. Ward. Macaulay's fragment upon the dramatist, from the essay upon the 'Comic Dramatists of the Restoration,' is reprinted, with notes to correct its inaccuracies, and a few footnotes to the text appear at the bottom of the pages. Mr. Ward's Introduction enters into a somewhat labored defence of Wycherley's literary immoralities, which had perhaps better be accepted as a part of the inevitable of history, without too much remark. The edition is a very convenient one, unexpurgated, and supplies a want of the libraries.

Routledge & Sons have published a translation of Alphonse Daudet's 'Trente ans de Paris,' with the original illustrations. 'Thirty Years of Paris' gives a very fair impression of the fragmentary but interesting volume which this popular writer made up last winter from scattered articles, in which he had formerly related some of the experiences of his first hard years in Paris, when he was serving his apprenticeship to the trade of writing. These articles originally saw the light in various periodicals and newspapers, not only of Paris, but of places as foreign to the writer as St. Petersburg and New York. Most of them appeared eight or ten years ago, and none are new, which makes the title something of a misnomer, for when the latest of the articles were written it was but little more than twenty years from the day, in 1857, when Daudet, then a boy of seventeen, first went up to Paris, with a prospective volume of poems in his pocket, to conquer a place, which he has since made so large, in the literary world of the capital.

The eleventh volume of the *Overland Monthly* (Jan.–June, 1888) is before us. This California magazine has always preserved a local flavor, and the recent resort to illustrations has intensified this quality. As memoranda at least, the "process" cuts from photographs will grow in value with time. There are many of them in this volume. Akin in interest are such facsimiles as accompany the article on "Pioneer Illustration in California," and sundry antiquarian tail-pieces.

It seems odd, with the first volume of the *Legislative Record* for the State of New York before us, to be told that the publication is absolutely new. The wisely drawn statute ordering it prescribed that the stenographers should set down everything pertaining to the course of business, except the debates. We have here, therefore, the actual proceedings of the Senate and Assembly during the one-hundred-and-eleventh session, from day to day. At the end of the volume are lists of members, of committees, of laws passed, of Senators and Assemblymen, 1872–1888 (by district), and of "Assemblymen who have become prominent, 1872–1888" (it is enough to have been promoted to the upper chamber to become "prominent"). The General Index is scanty, and indeed an index to such a document presents great difficulties. The publishers are James B. Lyon & Co., Albany.

'John Greenleaf, Minister; or, the Full Stature of a Man,' by Julian Warth, just published by the D. Lothrop Co. of Boston, in their "Lothrop's Summer Series," is an old book with a new name. It was first published in 1886 with the title, 'The Full Stature of a Man.' No notice of this change of name is given in the book.

Mr. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings in England," in the July number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, concern an Ames family of Massachusetts, of which an early member is commemorated in Sibley's 'Harvard Graduates,' and collaterally the posterity of Ezekiel Cheever, the famous master of the Boston Latin School; the Fawkner family, and collaterally Hancocks and Buckleys; and Rogerses, in the John Harvard connection. Elizabeth Fawkner, whose will is given, bequeathed in 1720 the remainder of her books to "some public place or library either in New England or where else they [her executors] shall think most proper."

We observe that Mr. S. S. Rider, in his *Book-Notes* (Providence, R. I.), thinks he has identified the book referred to in the will of Dr. John Clarke, one of the early Rhode Island worthies, when he speaks of "my Concordance, and Lexicon to it belonging, written by myself, being the fruit of several years' study." The library of Harvard University possesses two copies of "Holy Oyle for the Lampes of the Sanctuaries; or, Scripture Phrases Alphabetically Disposed for the Use and Benefit of such as desire to speake the Language of Canaan, more especially the sonnes of the prophets who would attain elegancie and sublimity of expressions, by John Clarke, Master of Arts" (London, 1630). The author says of it that "I never hitherto sawe or heard of any of this nature in any language now extant"; *i. e.*, a concordance, commentary, and well-spring of Scriptural phraseology. The work implies a classical training which the Rhode Islander is not known to have had.

In the July number of the Lincolnshire *Notes and Queries* (Horncastle, Eng.), inquiry is made concerning Roger Williams in a rather slighting way. "This erratic person may, possibly, in some respects, have little claim to remembrance"—the invention of "soul liberty" notwithstanding. The writer, "A. C.," intimates that an authentic life of Williams is likely to be forthcoming, and asks what evidence there is of him in Lincolnshire, where notoriously he spent some portion of the years 1625–1631, at Sempringham, though, so far as known, not as vicar or curate.

Prof. A. S. Packard contributes an interesting historical sketch on "The Geographical Evolution of Labrador" to the June *Bulletin* of the American Geographical Society. The ordinary knowledge of this land, he says, is as vague and indefinite as in the times of Cabot." Its shores are very imperfectly charted, its po-

pulation is dying out; yet "its unexplored bays and rivers will always remain full of interest to our adventurous yachtsmen, as well as to the naturalist and traveller." Mr. William Butler Ogden's "Four Days in Petra" is illustrated in an interesting manner from photographs. Mr. George C. Hurlbut, in his "Origin of the Name America," shows little mercy to Prof. Jules Marcou's theory.

A very lucid address to the American Institute of Mining Engineers on the "Geological History of the Yellowstone National Park," by Arnold Hague, of the United States Geological Survey, is printed in the Transactions of the Institute. Mr. Hague is the highest authority on the subject of the Park, has interceded with Congress to give it more exact and natural boundaries, and will in time produce a survey of this great reservation which will leave nothing to be desired. He establishes very clearly its volcanic character, eruptions having ceased at a remote period; describes the all-covering flow of rhyolite which glacial, atmospheric, and aqueous erosion has been at work upon ever since without laying bare the underlying rock; shows how the ice-sheets from the western and eastern mountain-rims made joint deposit of their freight of bowlders in the Lower Yellowstone Valley; discusses the cause of the geysers and the rate of deposit, from which a period of at least 25,000 years is determinable; intimates that the arsenical waters may yet vie in curative attractiveness with those of La Bourboule in France. "No hot springs with which I am acquainted," says Mr. Hague, "prove so delightful for bathing purposes and so agreeable in their action upon the skin."

A subject of much complexity and no little political significance is dealt with by Mr. Reuben G. Thwaites in his essay on the "Boundaries of Wisconsin," printed in vol. xi of the Wisconsin Historical Collections. Step by step, and with the aid of maps, the breaking up of the Northwest Territory into Territories and States is described, and due emphasis is laid on the indifference paid by Congress to the stipulations of the Northwest Ordinance relating to boundaries. In all these enactments, too, we have the most irrefragable proof of the complete authority asserted and exercised by Congress over the Territories before the Slave Power found it convenient to deny the right.

A little pamphlet comes to us from Winston, N. C., prepared by President Battle of the University of North Carolina. It undertakes to account for the names of the several counties of the State, and to give "the history involved in them." These divisions are very numerous, have been two hundred years in forming (1672–1872), and present the usual variety of aboriginal, old-country, local and national, military and partisan nomenclature.

In discussing "British Interests in Africa" in the July *Contemporary*, Mr. J. Scott Keltie contends that in the recent "scramble" by the European Powers for that continent Great Britain has secured the "choicest fragments." She has practically the whole of Southern Africa, that part best suited for European colonization; the greater part of the Niger, giving easy access to the rich and flourishing provinces of the central Sudan, while the fertile Lake country and the vast grazing region of Somali-Land have been brought under her "sphere of influence." He advocates the federation of the South African States, the extension of British territory to the Zambesi, repudiating Portugal's claim to Matebele-Land, and the purchase of Delagoa Bay, the natural and only port of he Transvaal and Bechuana-Land. While the free navigation of the Zambesi, still refused by Portugal, is insisted upon, the Nyassa territory, though exploited solely by British capital, must be relinquished, as it is completely hemmed in by the possessions of Portugal and Germany.

The *Art Review* for July-August (New York: Geo. F. Kelly) is, as usual, more attractive by reason of its illustrations than of its text. The article on the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, by E. H. Greenleaf, is, of course, authoritative; the art of Mr. Wm. Hamilton Gibson receives a tribute from Chas. M. Skinner, and the "Picturesque Adirondacks" are described by George Forbes, with the aid of a number of photogravures after photographs from nature in that region — of varying excellence. The chief full-page plates are the jaunty "Passing Glance," etched after Carroll Beckwith by F. W. Freer; Walter Shirlaw's "Spirit of the Lily," Kenyon Cox's "Painting" (an allegorical figure), George Hitchcock's clever "Tulip Culture," and a "Portrait of a Lady," by Wm. M. Chase. Mr. Kelly, having thus launched the *Review* on its third volume, announces that in September he will begin to issue the fortnightly *Art Courier*, a journal of current news, accompanied regularly by a supplemental photogravure. Thirty of the plates made by this process for vols. i and ii of the *Review*, now out of print, will be shortly issued in an *édition de luxe* as the first series of the 'American Art Portfolio.' The prints will be on soft Japanese paper.

The *Portfolio* for July (Macmillan) is an exceptionally entertaining and profitable number. The frontispiece is (we are assured) a fairly good photogravure after D. G. Rossetti's famous panel, "Ecce Ancilla Domini." The head of Mary was studied from the artist's sister, Miss Christina Rossetti, whose admirers have in this print, therefore, "a true and just likeness, with hardly any alteration," of her. The sculptor Woolner is portrayed, less closely, in the face of Gabriel. There is a third "conversation" on book illustrations, in which Mr. Hamerton, so far as we may identify him with the Critic of this group, indulges in the rather startling dictum that "in fact, a pure photograph from nature is out of place in any book whatever." This would exclude portraits as well as landscapes. Another conversation is promised. Accompanying pen-and-ink views of Charlecote House and park is a paper by Sidney L. Lee, examining the tradition of Shakspere's relations to Sir Thomas Lucy, and giving some account of this personage and his descendants.

We congratulate the Geological Survey of New Jersey on the completion of its great Atlas of the State by the publication of the relief map, the last of the series. We are here shown at a glance, by delicate conventional tints, a diversified surface that ranges from ocean's level to heights little exceeding 1,500 feet. Contour lines, numbered, give the exact elevation from point to point. On this map, also, the railroad systems are delineated to great advantage, being broadly divisible into two groups—the constant lines seeking the metropolis of the country, and running parallel with the Appalachian axis; the others, at right angles to the foregoing, whose heaviest business is in summer, and whose function is to bring sweltering humanity to the salt water. There are also lines on the outermost coast for nearly two-thirds the entire length of it. The mechanical execution of this sheet is fully up to the standard of Mr. Bien's establishment, to which we owe the present high standing of American cartography.

The Canadian Institute, 46 Richmond Street East, Toronto, has put out a "Sociological Circular," soliciting coöperation in the task of collecting reliable data concerning the political and social institutions, customs, ceremonies, etc., of the Indian people of the Dominion. Suitable papers upon the topics indicated will be published in the Institute's Proceedings. The Canadian Pacific Railway carries free of charge packages intended for the Institute's Museum, which is open daily.

—The August *Atlantic* brings to us President Eliot's Washington address before the National Education Association last February, in which he compares the work done by the French and the American schoolboy, not to the latter's advantage. He argues in favor of an intelligent effort to shorten and enrich the present school programmes, but he does not specify desirable changes so much as indicate them by a general criticism. He protests against the very common idea that a child should "master" one study of an allied group or one topic of a study before proceeding to the next, and equally against the notion that exact accuracy is to be required of a child, and reviews, examinations, and tests enforced to this end. In other words, his criticism relates to the method as much as to the substance of study. He observes that a child's mind is tried by lack of interest in its work quite as often as by over-exertion in study, and in some cases the tedium that arises when a quick mind is not fully occupied must also count in reckoning up the causes which are usually lumped together as "overwork." He advises, also, a larger employment of male teachers, on the ground that better instruction will result from the more permanent tenure and less frequent interruption in labor which may be expected from men. The most effective portion of the address, however, consists less in such suggestions than in the showing made of the inferiority of our schools as compared with French schools for the same years; and the effect of this is enhanced by the further statement that students are so held back that the printed schedules for children entering at eleven years in fact apply to children who enter at an average age of thirteen years and three months, in the case of a school of such rank as the Boston Latin School. There are other educational and literary articles of considerable interest in the number, among which the sketch of Sidonius Apollinaris and a first paper on the "Prometheus" of Æschylus give a strong classical tone. Mr. Edmund Noble's description of Moscow is one of the best papers of travel that we have recently seen; the account of the priests is especially interesting and fresh.

—The eighth volume of Franklin's Works as edited by Mr. John Bigelow and published by the Messrs. Putnam relates to the years 1782-84, while the American Minister was still domiciled at Passy. Gout and the gravel were greatly diminishing the pleasure of existence without affecting his intellect or his disposition. Upwards of a hundred pages are devoted to his journal of the negotiations for peace, and there is much correspondence touching the same subject. A manifest sense of relief when the treaty was beyond peradventure, marks the letters to his old friends whom he had somewhat neglected for state affairs. It was his privilege to witness the second balloon ascension by means of rarefied air as devised by the Montgolfiers, and the first and second in which men were carried up. Both he and Sir Joseph Banks, to whom he sent minute reports of his observations, entertained the idea that the attachment of the balloon to wagons might enable carters to dispense with just so much horse power. No other scientific topic in this

volume possesses an equal interest. Pithy sayings abound, and in especial the attainment of peace permits Franklin freely to give to war the bad character it deserves. He reiterates his opinion in the proverbial form, "There never was a good war or a bad peace." "All wars," he says again, "are follies, very expensive, and very mischievous ones. When will mankind be convinced of this, and agree to settle their differences by arbitration? Were they to do it even by the cast of a die, it would be better than by fighting and destroying each other." He greatly preferred the peaceable turkey as the emblem of the United States to the bald eagle—"a bird of bad moral character," lazy, piratical, and cowardly. Medallists then, he observed, made the eagle more like a turkey; in our day, the type has been likened to the turkey-buzzard. In line with the foregoing are Franklin's remarks on practical goodness. "If we may estimate the goodness of a man by his disposition to do good, and his constant endeavors and success in doing it, I can hardly conceive," he said, speaking of the late Dr. Fothergill, "that a better man has ever existed." And of Thomas Hollis: "It is prodigious the quantity of good that may be done by one man, *if he will make a business of it.*" Expressing his indebtedness to Cotton Mather's 'Essays to do Good,' he said it had caused him always to "set a greater value on the character of a *doer of good* than on any other kind of reputation."

—In the paper correcting the amusing foreign misconceptions of American conditions, he speaks of the cold shoulder given by the State governments to clamor for bounties and protective duties, "on this principle, that if the country is ripe for the manufacture, it may be carried on by private persons to advantage; and if not, it is a folly to think of forcing nature."

"The manufacture of silk, they [the governments] say, is natural in France, as that of cloth in England, because each country produces in plenty the first material; but if England will have a manufacture of silk as well as that of cloth, and France of cloth as well as that of silk, these unnatural operations must be supported by mutual prohibitions, or high duties on the importation of each other's goods; by which means the workmen are enabled to tax the home consumer by greater prices, while the higher wages they receive make them neither happier nor richer, since they only drink more and work less."

On another occasion he says, both tersely and truly:

"In general, I would only observe that commerce, consisting in a mutual exchange of the necessaries and conveniences of life, the more free and unrestrained it is, the more it flourishes, and the happier are all the nations concerned in it. Most of the restraints put upon it in different countries seem to have been the projects of particulars for their private interest, under pretence of public good."

—At the Marietta Centennial last week relics made a notable figure. But none of those in the relic-hall had any connection with the Northwest running backward further than the year 1788, when Marietta, first-born of Ohio towns, was founded. Hence, a Wisconsin relic exhibited by Prof. J. D. Butler, in his speech as Commissioner representing that State, excited special interest. That relic had to do with Wisconsin more than a century before the forefathers of Ohio landed at Marietta. It was the most hallowed article used in the mass of the Catholic Church—the case in which the host is raised for popular veneration—called in French *soleil*, as a circlet like the solar orb, and in English *monstrance*, as demonstrating the sacramental wafer, or, for a like reason, *ostensory*. The specimen exhibited by Prof. Butler bears beneath its base, in letters rudely cut but perfectly legible, the following legend: "+ *ce soleil a este donne par Mr Nicolas Perrot a la mission de St. Francois Xavier en la Baye des Puants + 1686.*" A literal translation of this old French is: "This *soleil* has been given by Monsieur Nicolas Perrot to the Mission of St. Francis Xavier at the Bay of the Puans [Green Bay] in the year 1686." Nicholas Perrot came to Green Bay in 1685, as Governor of the French Northwest. As fur-trader and Indian Agent, Perrot had been acquainted with the Green Bay Mission from the outset. He had seen there, as Marquette did, two thousand proselytes in 1673. But the monstrance he saw there was rude, being beaten out of native copper by the goldsmith of the Mission. It was natural, therefore, that he should have brought to the mission church where he had been wont to worship a more artistic article for its most sacred rite.

—Perrot's ostensory is all of silver repoussé work, surmounted by a cross, and fifteen inches high. From the circular shrine of the host twenty-four points, half rayonnant, half flamboyant, shoot out. On the whole, this survival is as elegant as it is sacred. But as a unique historic memorial of the early Northwest its interest is preëminent. After years of research in this line Prof. Butler has discovered nothing in the Northwest, or indeed in the Southwest, which approaches the antiquity of it—no dated remain which attests such an antiquity as the monstrance figures. In fact, such a discovery seems impossible in view of historic records. The Iroquois, masters of all the region south of the Lakes and east of Lake Michigan, effectually repelled the French from their domains. Accordingly, there were no civilized pioneers of the seventeenth century established in Ohio, or Indiana, or the lower peninsula of Michigan. The first French in Illinois came thither through Wisconsin. The mission in Ontario, east of Lake Huron, was destroyed in 1649 by the Iroquois. The fugitive converts found no secure asylum till they arrived at Green Bay, west of Lake Michigan. Shepherds follow the sheep, and so the first Wisconsin missions came into existence. One result was, that we have good maps of Lakes Superior and Michigan made before the lower lakes were explored. The fathers built blockhouses and chapels, not without spectacular display; they introduced garden products, fowls, sheep, swine; they brought in blacksmiths and other artisans. In view of these historic details, Prof. Butler held that Wisconsin, though admitted into the Union long after all other States of the old Northwest, was in truth the oldest of them all, being able to show an organized, civilized, and Christianized community earlier than any of them.

—Among our younger meteorologists, no one is more worthy of the reputation he is making than Prof. Winslow Upton of Brown University. As Secretary of the New England Meteorological Society, he has been conducting an investigation of the great storm of the 11th-14th March last, aided by a grant from the Trustees of the Elizabeth Thompson Science Fund. While the storm possessed an exceptional interest for the general public, it is found to have not less for the meteorologist also. Its peculiar characteristics were (1) the rapidity with which its energy was developed, (2) the excessive precipitation, chiefly in the form of snow, and (3) the fact that its maximum intensity was limited to a relatively small area. This lay in the south of New England, where, fortunately, there were abundant observers. Prof. Upton's discussion is based upon more than 500 reports, about one-half of which were furnished by the regular observers of the Society, thirteen being Observers of the United States Signal Service, while about one-tenth came from vessels off the coasts, through Commander Bartlett, the Hydrographer of the Navy. On the morning of the 10th of March an elliptical depression extended from Arkansas northerly, and during the day the double cyclone moved easterly, the southern centre advancing in the course of twenty-four hours from a point near St. Louis to Georgia. The two centres were now well defined as separate cyclones, the northern one lying over Ontario, and the precipitation being light snow or rain. During the 11th the northern cyclone passed beyond the region of the reports, and was followed by a cold wave, with temperatures 10° to 30° lower than that of the cyclone itself, and which advanced over the Lake Region towards New England. Meantime, the northeasterly advance of the southern cyclone was attended with heavy rains, and rapidly increased in intensity. Rain and snow began to fall in New England, winds of increasing violence prevailed on the coast, and on the night of the 12th the storm centre was near Nantucket. Here it ceased its northeasterly course, and advanced slowly towards the west, over Rhode Island and Connecticut, and losing its intensity, until the morning of the 14th, when the cyclone was no longer well defined. This storm thus affords an example of a well-developed cyclone changing its course and ceasing to exist over southern New England.

—Prof. Upton's charts, reproduced in the *American Meteorological Journal*, fully illustrate all the observational data. Maximum wind-velocities were recorded at coast stations on the 12th-13th, reaching as high as seventy-two miles, and resulting in great damage, as the wind's direction lay towards the shore. The precipitation, everywhere excessive, was almost wholly snow to the west of the meridian of New London, and piled in immense drifts, making even its approximate measurement impossible. In central Connecticut and a large part of eastern New York, the average fall of snow appears to have exceeded forty inches, while in the western half of Massachusetts and nearly the whole of Connecticut, the average depth of unmelted snow was above thirty inches. In the southeast of Massachusetts the fall was almost wholly rain. Snowdrifts actually measured showed astonishing depths—from fifteen to forty feet in Dutchess County, New York, and thirty-eight feet near New Haven. Middletown, in the same State, reported the maximum precipitation of 5.78 inches. In the history of the progress of the temperatures during this storm Prof. Upton finds an explanation of several of its remarkable features. As a cold wave advances, anti-cyclonic conditions are usual; but the fall in temperature on this occasion was attended with strong southerly wind, due to cyclonic circulation. The arrival of the cold area from the west probably caused the deflection of the cyclone from its original track, a relatively rare occurrence. In this case the deflection exceeded 90°, and the cyclone was drawn directly towards the cold area. Thus the cyclone and the cold wave met in mortal combat, and fought a tragic duel, in which both combatants came to an untimely end.

—Besides an essay on Hegel, an article on the light-armed soldiery of the Romans, and the customary book reviews, the fifth number of Sybel's *Historische Zeitschrift* contains two very interesting contributions to German history. The first is entitled "The Regensburg Diet and the War of Devolution." The author, Fr. Meinecke, by a careful examination of the

despatches of the ambassadors and of other contemporary sources, shows how it came about that the Holy Roman Empire took no part in a war prosecuted by Louis XIV. with the avowed object of wresting one of its members from that empire. The Spanish Netherlands, under the rule of the King of Spain, was included within the Burgundian circle of the Empire. Under the plea that it was a personal estate of the Spanish Hapsburgs, and hence was governed by the local "droit de dévolution," whereby, on the dissolution of a marriage by death, the survivor enjoyed the usufruct only of the property, the ownership vesting in the children, Louis XIV. claimed the Spanish Netherlands as the heritage of his wife, on the death of her father in 1667. He expected to keep the Empire neutral while it was being thus despoiled, by insisting on a strict adherence to the letter of the Treaty of Westphalia, in which the Empire promised to aid neither belligerent in any future war between France and Spain. He relied on the friendship of the French party in the Empire, and on the skill of his ambassador, Gravel, in fanning the jealousies of their opponents, who were led by Lüneburg and Brandenburg. Austria was habitually sluggish, and the Emperor was further hampered by the Catholic party in Vienna, who already began to look up to Louis as their champion. The author of this article unfolds a pitiful picture of the intestine bickerings of the princes, the formality of the proceedings of the Diet, and the illegitimate influence wielded by France, which together kept Germany quiet during the war. Cardinal von Thun, the Imperial Commissioner, succeeded in passing through the Council of Princes a resolution to the effect that the Burgundian circle was an integral part of the Empire, and that both belligerents should be requested to lay down their arms, a resolution which distinctly foreshadowed war in case Louis should fail to comply; but the French ambassador, by skilfully applying the three instruments mentioned above, prevented this resolution from being acted upon in the College of Electors and the Council of Cities. Louis XIV. was foiled, as is well known, by the Triple Alliance; but the imbecility of Germany and the selfishness of her rulers are inconceivable to one who has not read this learned and well-written article.

—The content of "Two Political Testaments and the Commencement of an Historical Work, by Frederick the Great," is sufficiently indicated by the title. The testaments were written in 1782 and 1784 respectively, the historical essay in 1784—all in French, of course—and are now published for the first time. The first and last are political; the second treats of finance. In 1782 Frederick feared that the good understanding between Joseph II. and Catherine II. boded the destruction of Prussia and the conversion of Germany into an absolute monarchy after his death. The result of his search for allies was the conclusion that the German princes were dominated by Austrian influence, France was embarrassed by her enormous debt, and England was worn out by the American war; the only hope lay in a triple alliance between Prussia, England, and Turkey. These gloomy views are set down in the first document. By 1784 the clouds had blown over, owing chiefly to Joseph's propensity to take the second step before the first. By far the most interesting paper is the "Reflections on the Financial Administration of Prussia." The revenues of Prussia amounted to 21,730,000 écus ($24,446,250), one-third of which was surplus and was laid away as a war fund, according to the financial policy pursued by the Hohenzollerns from Frederick William I.'s day down to the present time. Frederick remarks that by this means the necessity of imposing extra taxes during war times, when the people are least able to bear them, is obviated. He is opposed to a national debt. He has a very high conception of the duties of a prince. He insists on the separation of the revenues of the state and of the prince, and that the former be consecrated to the benefit of the citizens—to enriching the soil, the encouragement of manufactures, and to rendering every one, from noble to peasant, more at his ease. In financial matters, a prince must bridle his fancies, for the revenues of the state are not his property, and his slightest error may bring untold misfortunes upon his subjects. A prince who does otherwise is a highway robber and a fool. In finance, Frederick was a mercantilist, and altogether uninfluenced by the doctrines of Quesnay, Gournay, and Adam Smith.

—The June number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* is devoted to a single article, entitled a "Century of African Exploration," by the editor, Dr. A. Supan. It is intended as a centennial memorial of the founding of the first geographical society. This was the "Association for Promoting the Discovery of the Interior Parts of Africa," known commonly as the African Association, and formed June 9, 1788, out of the members of the Saturday Club of London, mainly by the efforts of Sir Joseph Banks. An American, John Ledyard, was immediately sent out by it to cross the continent from east to west, with the view of tracing the course of the Niger, but he unfortunately died soon after reaching Cairo. Mungo Park was the most distinguished of the explorers employed by this Association, which continued its activity, publishing several volumes and memoirs, until July 23, 1831, when it was merged in the Royal Geographical Society, which had been founded the previous year. The article begins with a rapid review of what had been done in Africa up to 1788, and a sketch of the extent of our knowledge of the continent at that time, which Swift cleverly summed up in the well-known lines :

> "So geographers in Afric maps
> With savage pictures fill their gaps,
> And o'er unhabitable downs
> Place elephants for want of towns."

Next, the progress of discovery in the different parts of Africa is traced, beginning with the Niger, the exploration of which was the principal object of the African Association's efforts. Dr. Supan closes his paper, which bristles with facts, with a notice of the tasks still left uncompleted. These are the exploration of three great regions, all of which lie north of the Equator—Mandingo Land on the north of the Guinea coast, the country to the east of the Cameroons, and the Galla-Somali Land. A series of thirteen excellent maps is given, the first ten so colored as to show the progress of discovery by decades from 1790 to 1880. The eleventh, a large map, represents Africa in 1888. In another an attempt is made to show the various districts of exploration, with the point of departure of each. The final map reproduces the important parts of Maj. Rennell's map of the supposed course of the Niger, first published in 1798 (not in 1790, as Dr. Supan asserts), and republished in 1802 and again in vol. i of the African Association's Proceedings in 1810. A supplementary number of the *Mitteilungen* is also devoted to Africa, being the first part of a geological description of the continent by Dr. Max Blanckenhorn. The whole work is to consist of four parts, this being upon the Atlas Mountains, with a map.

JAMES'S PARTIAL PORTRAITS.

Partial Portraits. By Henry James. Macmillan & Co. 1888.

Mr. JAMES'S criticism is of a very composite order. It is partly made up of very agreeable talk, familiar in tone, intellectual, and full of digressions; and in the remainder there is much reviewing, with a great deal of the novelist's preoccupation with his own art. On every page one is sensible of close contact with a cultivated mind, and feels the influence of the modern spirit; and yet in the pleasure of all this, notwithstanding the alertness and openness of the author's intelligence and the frequent grace of his literary manners, there is an element of discontent which steals upon one and grows with the reading. There is a sense of being baffled by the critic, so great that one doubts at the end whether he is a whit wiser than before. That trait which belongs to some phases of modern culture, indecision of judgment, is strongly marked in these essays; it is responsible for the disappointment of which we have spoken. It is not judgment that is pronounced, but the impressions of Mr. James are described, and one is thrown back for their justification upon Mr. James's taste. This personal element, which is justly ruled out of court in general criticism, is the basis of the volume. It gives liveliness and warmth to the style, but it does not bring conviction to the reader, who, while he knows the author to be highly cultivated, does not know whether he forms just judgments; for the two qualities do not go together in all cases. At the end of the charming essay upon Daudet, for example, after the jewel has been flashed in a dozen lights, each rivalling the other in radiance, what do we find as the sum of the matter? Daudet's is a famous name, and stands upon volumes enough to allow of some decision with regard to his literary quality, his talent for entertainment, for reality, and for style. What do we find as Mr. James's last word?

> "Determinations of rank are a delicate matter, and it is sufficient priority for an author that one likes him immensely. Daudet is bright, vivid, tender; he has an intense artistic life. And then he is so free. For the spirit that moves slowly, going carefully from point to point, not sure whether this or that or the other will 'do,' the sight of such freedom is delightful."

This is well rounded off; but Daudet with his qualities is parenthetical. What stands out is, that "one likes him immensely," and the sight of him is "delightful." So, earlier in the essay, Mr. James regrets that he cannot write French and "say that Alphonse Daudet is adorable, and have done with it," but must resort to circumlocutions to express his "personal fondness" for him. These are interesting confidences of Mr. James respecting his tastes, since he is both an eminent novelist and a man of high cultivation, as we have said; but it is not surprising that disappointment arises when one is looking for criticism and finds that Mr. James "likes him immensely."

In the essay upon Guy de Maupassant, the critic has occasion to refer to that author's opinion that "the particular way we see the world is our particular illusion about it"—one illusion being just as good as another, of course. Mr. James does not assent to this view; but he seems to hold that, whether or not this is true of real life, it is true of criticism. Criticism, apparently, is our particular illusion about the author, and one point of view is as good as another. This, at least, is the impression produced by the volume, in which the judgments are cleverly made innocuous, and fame and shame blend in the unity they have to

Emerson's Buddha. This is not explicitly stated, certainly—the critic has unrivalled facility in being always clear, but never explicit. His indirectness of expression is a miracle of apparent straightforwardness; but as soon as one seeks to find out just what is meant, he finds that Mr. James's birds are all in the bush. He describes their colors, he almost seems to stroke their wings with his velvet compliment, but when one stops to look, the bird is out of hand. This evasiveness of the court is naturally annoying, but its crafty felicity almost atones to the reader who is a lover of literary fence. Criticism is our particular illusion about the author—that is the motto of the author; necessarily such a view of his business impairs the critic's value.

That we do not overstate this matter, which is at the root of Mr. James's ineffectiveness, this passage at the end of the essay upon Guy de Maupassant will show:

> "Let us then leave this magnificent art of the novelist to itself and its perfect freedom, in the faith that one example is as good as another, and that our fiction will always be decent enough if it be sufficiently general. Let us not be alarmed at this prodigy (though prodigies are alarming) of M. de Maupassant, who is at once so licentious and so impeccable, but gird ourselves up with the conviction that another point of view will yield another perfection."

If "one example is as good as another," if everything has a perfection when looked at from some point of view, is not the trade of critic a vain thing? The complete justification for our opinion that criticism is illusory, however, in Mr. James's view, is in his practice of it in general; this is no more than his account of the play of his personal tastes.

Tolerance, we are told, is a result of culture, and this is indubitable; and out of this tolerance arises, it would seem, the faith which Mr. James invokes, that in all cases "another point of view will yield another perfection." This leads directly, if it be allowed, to moral indifferentism in literature. This is where it does lead Mr. James in the essay, much the most important in the volume, upon Guy de Maupassant. The "freedom" which he proclaims for "this magnificent art," is liberty for the imagination in the case of the most conspicuous of the elegant writers of modern licentious tales. Mr. James does not disguise the character of his critical protégé. He owns up. He does not blink. He only puts in this word of defence, warning the crude Anglo-Saxon that "another point of view will yield another perfection"—as elsewhere, so in these Milesian anecdotes. We do not press the subject, except to say that the length to which a high-trained literary enjoyment of style has tempted Mr. James to go in advocacy of the Parisian storyteller, has brought home to us distinctly the double nature of his criticism. He has really, to adopt his own phraseology, two points of view. He is always cosmopolitan, but in reading this volume, with strongly marked division of English and French subjects, one foresees that he looks up and down—down to England and up to France. In treating of Daudet and Guy de Maupassant, there is not merely "personal fondness" to be observed in his manner; there is a warmth, a hospitality, a willingness to be pleased, a disposition to give censure to the winds, which contrasts with his temper towards the English. Only in the case of his tribute of compliment to Stevenson is there anything like the same delightfulness of appreciation, breathing "the sweet south" in every word.

This mood of cordiality reaches its highest temperature in the recollections he gives us of Turgeneff, a truly exquisite essay, frankly personal, full of detail and color, the art of the novelist blending with the devotion of friendship, and all as fresh and natural as fireside talk. In this he takes us to the private meeting-place of the young French authors, "the grandsons of Balzac," and there we see near at hand the attraction that France has for him. There is the room where "it would have been late in the day to propose among them any discussion of the relation of art to morality, any question as to the degree in which a novel might or might not concern itself with the teaching of a lesson. They had settled these preliminaries long ago." There it was that "the subscriber, as a type of human imbecility, received a wonderful dressing, and the Philistine in general was roughly handled," on the occasion of 'L'Assommoir' being discontinued in the journal through which it had been running. Towards the Paris of "ces messieurs" Mr. James has a great friendliness, and the reader easily understands why that is, and does not question its propriety.

On the other hand, turning westward, what does Mr. James see? For the most part he sees the imperfections. He exhibits here the obverse of his Parisian mind. Instead of expansiveness there is reserve; instead of regretting the absence of "adorable" from the English vocabulary, he seems to indulge in a humor but half betrayed; instead of "a new perfection," the point of view yields to him an old perfection in a state of collapse. To pass by the essay upon George Eliot, with its expression of wonder that "this quiet, anxious, sedentary, serious, invalidical English lady, without animal spirits, without adventures or sensations, should have made us believe that nothing in the world was alien to her," and the other essay upon Trollope, with its praise of him for his perception of "the value of the usual," we come to the essay upon Emerson, one of the most brilliant in handling that the volume contains. It is full of interesting remarks, admirable innuendo, and has a kind of masterliness which we do not find elsewhere except in the paper upon Turgeneff. At the same time it is constantly provoking a smile. We know what Mr. James has said frankly and pitilessly about the civilization of Concord and Salem, the intellectual poverty, the fanatic mediocrity, the parochialism of it all; and it is nothing new that he finds first and foremost that Emerson was "pale," and proceeds to regret that the Concord group was not sketched, amusing as he is sure it would be, and at last declares that Miss Mary Emerson—"Aunt Mary"—"grim, intellectual virgin and daughter of a hundred ministers, with her local traditions, and her combined love of empire and speculation, would have been an inspiration for a novelist." What kind of a novel Mr. James would make of these worthies of the forties, with Salem for an episode, fortunately is only matter for guessing; but what is noticeable in all this is his temper towards the community, which is one of pitying amusement, dashed with high respect for high personages. It is not meant that this essay upon Emerson, and the other English essays, are not entirely kind and appreciative, overflowing with felicitous phrases of regard and praise; they are as fluent in compliment and as sincere, no doubt, as are the French essays; but their mood is the precise opposite of that in the latter—the critic condescends; he looks down, and not up. Specifically, he accepts France, tolerating it even to the point of moral indifferentism; he is merciless to New England parochialism in Emerson's day. Whether he is right in either or in both of these attitudes, need not now be considered.

Enough has been adduced to illustrate what was said at the start, that Mr. James's criticism has a purely personal basis, and is to be explained by the special culture he possesses and the cosmopolitan experience in which it has been developed. The grace of the essays and all their charm, in which qualities they excel, are due to this personal element finding expression through a highly trained literary style. It is true that they seem to us inconclusive judgments in general, and that in detail, when the reviewing of innumerable characters and plots and situations comes in, there is much confusion for one not so familiar with the heterogeneous population of fiction as is the author. It is not seldom that the text reads like the catalogue of a picture gallery with explanatory notes; and this mode of reviewing, where many volumes are dealt with, is dull, though to the novelist such close and minute observation of the persons put on the scene by his fellow-craftsmen has a professional interest. In Mr. James's work it is relieved by many suggestive remarks, and occasionally by surprising statements, such as that five-sixths of 'Kidnapped' "deserves to stand by 'Henry Esmond' as a fiction autobiography in archaic form," and that it is "a gallant companion to Thackeray's *tour de force*." Such instances of criticism are fortunately rare, and of course this one is to be attributed to that element of personal feeling which is the characteristic of the volume. It is impossible to regard what Mr. James writes of Stevenson as quite serious. That paper is no more than a memento of friendship. It is, nevertheless, an excellent example of Mr. James's method in building compliments into the semblance of the old temple of fame. There is, altogether, a great deal of information in the volume with respect to novels and novel-making, and the literary flavor of the style has already been spoken of; it is, first and last, a striking example of the work of modern culture in one of its forms; and if it should seem to some that moral concessions are made to the Gallic spirit which will not commend Paris above Concord, even little Concord—that, doubtless, is something for which the author is entirely prepared.

PRESTWICH'S GEOLOGY.

Geology, Chemical, Physical, and Stratigraphical. By Joseph Prestwich, M.A., F. R.S., F.G.S., Correspondent of the Institute of France, Professor of Geology in the University of Oxford. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

It has come to be the fashion of geologists to crown their active life with a work of a synoptical sort on the matter of their science. For some years his fellow-workers in the geological field have been awaiting with much interest a work of this nature from the pen of Professor Prestwich. A recognized master in several departments of the science, a teacher of the subject in the chair formerly occupied by John Phillips, one of the distinguished founders of this branch of learning, they felt sure that they should have much to learn from his greatest work. The first volume of this contribution was published in the early part of last year; the second and more important part has lately come from the press.

The present condition of geological science gives a value to these synoptic works which cannot belong to any other branch of learning. This science consists, indeed, in a large measure of undetermined matters, as to which individual opinion based on broad experience has a value. Its younger votaries, therefore, are

always glad to know what the older and more experienced men believe concerning unsolved problems. In undertaking a synoptical work on geology, the essayist has either of two methods open to him, one of which he must follow if he would keep his treatise within readable bounds. He may limit himself to the presentation of all the important observations which seem to him well verified, neglecting in this task the matters of theoretical interpretation of phenomena; or he may undertake to present the theoretical side of geology, bringing forward as illustration such body of fact as may seem necessary to afford a basis of the discussion. The former of these methods is that adopted first by Dana and afterwards by Geikie, and many others who have followed in the footsteps of our American Nestor in geology. The second is that pursued by Lyell in his 'Principles of Geology,' and in a measure by De la Beche in his admirable works.

In the main, Prestwich follows the method of presentation adopted by Dana, the first volume being devoted to setting forth the more essential facts of physical and chemical geology. In twenty-four well-constructed chapters, the author gives an excellent presentation of this division of the subject. The criticisms to be brought against the treatment of these matters are in the main those which can be directed against all works of the same nature. The second and third chapters are, as it seems to us, unhappily devoted to setting forth, in great (though for the purpose insufficient) detail, the usual synoptic statements concerning the minerals which are most common in rocks. With much ingenuity and by an abundant use of tables, the author has packed a good deal of information into a small space; but anything like a satisfactory mineralogy cannot be compressed into thirty pages. It would have been far better to remit this subject to an appendix, or to leave it to a better place in treatises of pure mineralogy. Scarce any of this information is necessary for the larger discussions which are hereafter to occupy the reader, and the sight of a great array of tables bristling with formidable chemical symbols is not likely to prove a pleasant introduction to the student of geology.

The chapter on the decomposition of rocks is, on the whole, an excellent summary of what is known on this subject. Unfortunately, however, it does not lead the writer to the consideration of soils. Now, the soil coating of the earth, though much neglected by geologists, is in several ways the key to its most important functions. In it mainly is accomplished the work of solution which feeds the seas; from it springs all the nutrition which supports the land life; from it also comes that carbonation of the waters which is the source of so many influences that meteoric water exercises upon the rocks of the land. In this treatise all matters concerning soil are dismissed with mere chance mention. The word does not even find a place in the index.

In general, the effect of water as a geological agent appears to be insufficiently treated. The essay on rivers is, on the whole, good, containing much matter which has not previously found a place in works of this nature. The underground movements of water, however, are imperfectly set forth. Caverns are considered not with reference to water action, but with respect to the fossils they contain, and the whole matter of subterranean erosion is briefly dismissed with a few incidental remarks. This omission is the more striking for the reason that, in the tenth chapter, there is a very good essay on underground water in relation to springs, which takes account of phenomena that might well have introduced us to the study of subterranean erosion.

The chapter on glaciation does not satisfactorily present the reader with the more important opinions concerning that important field of science. The question of continental glaciers does not there or elsewhere in the book receive the treatment which glaciologists think it deserves. The subject is recurred to in the second volume in its proper place, under the division of Quaternary geology. The detail of fact is doubtless sufficient, but the important theoretical considerations which have been adduced in explanation of the facts do not appear to receive their due weight.

So, too, in the twelfth chapter, which treats of volcanoes, we find the phenomenal side of the question well treated, but the student is left without a due sense of the theories which have been advanced to explain them. At the beginning of his exposition, the author states that "volcanoes are mountains or hills with a spreading base, but always more or less conical at top, ejecting from time to time vapors, ashes, and lavas, from a central opening called a crater." This is by no means a satisfactory definition with which to begin the discussion of a great class of facts. Further on we have the statement that "volcanic eruptions are attended by the escape of an enormous mass of elastic fluids, consisting principally of the vapor of water," the fact being that in substantially all cases the eruption is caused by the escape of such gases. The author fails to set forth the regional distribution of volcanoes, which is of the utmost importance in determining the cause of their production. The fact that they are common on the sea-floor, and only occur in an active state on the lands at a slight distance from regions where sedimentation has been going on for geological ages, clearly indicates that the rise of heat in the strata is the prime agent in the production of volcanic explosions. Prof. Prestwich's own opinion is as follows:

"As for the primary cause of volcanic eruptions, I think we may look to another and independent force, viz., that arising from the slight shrinking and contraction of the earth's crust caused by the small but still measurable secular refrigeration, and its consequent pressure upon a viscous or plastic magma or layer beneath. That this molten matter is in some places nearer the surface than at others is possible, and that its depth is not great is probable. From time to time a state of tension of the crust finds relief in the extrusion of some of this molten matter, and then follows a state of equilibrium of longer or shorter duration. Cordier calculated that a radial contraction so minute and imperceptible as one millimetre (0.0397 inch) would suffice to supply matter for 500 of the greatest known volcanic eruptions."

It will be observed that this view requires us to suppose the existence of a plastic or molten magma beneath the earth's crust, of which there is as yet no sufficient evidence.

The chapter on disturbed and faulted strata gives a more complete statement of the facts than has been set forth in any other text-book known to the present writer. Here again, however, the theory of mountain growth is insufficiently treated. The disproved hypothesis of De Beaumont receives an undue prominence. Although geological science owes certain clear conceptions concerning mountains to the distinguished author of the 'Systems of Mountains,' his work is of great interest only from the point of view of the historian.

The chapters on mineral veins are on the whole good, better than those in any other text-book; so, too, are those concerning igneous rocks a very satisfactory presentation of the phenomena.

The second volume is mainly devoted to a description of the successive geological deposits from the Laurentian Period to the present day. On the whole, this part of the work is as satisfactory as is possible in a treatise of this description. It is most open to criticism from the fact that it does not bring some of the latest and most important discoveries of fossils to the knowledge of the reader. Thus, the fossil scorpions of Scandinavia and Scotland and elsewhere which have been found in the Upper Silurian rocks are not mentioned by the author save in an obscure tabulated list of species, though these finds are to the geologist (and the biologist as well) by far the most important discoveries which have been made in the present decade. The author assumes that the Eozoon is an organic structure, though he notes the fact that some geologists "contend that the structure is of mineral and not of animal origin, and is due to a sort of incipient crystallization of metamorphic rock." He nowhere refers to the critical studies of Möbius, which go far to prove that the structure is not of an organic nature.

In considering the atmosphere of the coal-period, our author holds to the ancient doctrine that the atmosphere of that time contained all the carbon which was, during the subsequent stages of that period, buried in the coal measures. He fails to see the magnitude of the question concerning the deposition of carbon in the earth's crust. A little calculation would show him, as it has done others, that we cannot dispose of the question in this simple way. If we are to assume that the atmosphere at the beginning of the coal measures contained this large amount of carbon, we must begin by proving that the insects of that time could live in such an atmosphere as we are required to suppose. Moreover, it is a well-known fact that about the northern Pacific there are extensive deposits of Mesozoic coal, the carbon of which has been drawn from the atmosphere as was that of the coal measures, and that during the Mesozoic period we had life which was, as far as the needs of oxygen and intolerance of carbonic acid are concerned, the same as the life of to-day. These considerations have brought other geologists to the conviction that carbon is in some way fed into the air in the form of carbon dioxide, and is thence removed in a gradual manner by the organic remains which are built into strata. Dr. T. Sterry Hunt's discussion of this problem in his 'Mineral Physiology and Physiography,' published in 1886, had apparently not met the eye of the author.

In the discussion concerning the glacial period, Professor Prestwich has failed to avail himself of much of the work which has been done by recent writers on that subject. The extensive contributions of Chamberlain and others in this country are apparently unknown to him. He quotes without criticism Thomas Belt's notion of extensive glacial deposits existing in Nicaraugua, not recognizing the fact that Belt, though a man of genius, was an untrustworthy geologist.

Despite these criticisms, which pertain only to the detail of this extensive work, Professor Prestwich's treatise must be accounted one of the most important contributions which have been made to the encyclopædic side of geology. It has not the admirable condensation of Dana's and Geikie's works. We miss in it the wide range of knowledge and the literary quality of Sir Charles Lyell's classic 'Principles'; nevertheless, as the record of the opinions of one to whom the science owes much in the way of contribution, it is of very great value. It is probable that no other work of this description has ever appeared which in its first edition was

so clear of serious defects either in matter of fact or in the form of presentation. The few grammatical and rhetorical errors are not conspicuous; the proof-reading has on the whole been excellent; the defects of fact are so inconsiderable that they may be readily remedied in a second edition.

The book abounds in admirable illustrations. No synoptic work of this description has ever been so well cared for in this respect. The presswork is very well done, as is all which comes from the Clarendon Press. The indexes, though hardly as complete as could be desired, are on the whole satisfactory.

SKETCHES OF INDIAN LIFE.

Gujarát and the Gujarátis: Pictures of Men and Women taken from Life. By Behramji M. Malabari. Bombay: Education Society's Press.

Travels and Voyages in Bengal. By Sambhu C. Mookerjee. Calcutta. 1887.

HAS the world ever witnessed a more daring political experiment than the diffusion, broadcast, of English education among the various races and creeds of British India? We think not; and the development of this experiment is as full of interest to the philosophical observer of human nature as to the politician. Western ideals of life and conduct do not simply differ from those of Hindu or Moslem; they are their exact antipodes. It is not possible for either Brahminism or Islam to assimilate, so to speak, the new knowledge, retaining still its life and identity. The two are as incapable of combination as oil and water; and this, which might be inferred from the considerations of the respective ideals solely, is confirmed by the results of English education so far. The more intelligent and active-minded among the native population have applied themselves with a species of passion to the acquisition of the language, the literature, the thoughts of their far-off conquerors. The Moslems held out against this attraction longer than did the Hindus, but their rigid conservatism has at last been sapped, and the desire for an English education is rapidly extending among them. But all over the continent the spread of religious scepticism advances *pari passu* with the spread of English education.

The mental condition of the English-speaking natives is singular, and, we are inclined to think, without precedent. They constitute a class without ideals. Faith in the old sanctions has been obliterated, without faith in any others being substituted for them. A few of them endeavor in a weak way to manufacture new beliefs by affecting to make believe in such phrases as "the idea of nationality," "the unification of India," and the like; but, as Carlyle would have said, they use these phrases from the teeth outwards. They have found them ready-made in Western books; they are not the expression of any deep or genuine conviction of their own. In truth, the national ideal is itself the child of the religious ideal. It is common to the countries of Christendom, because they have been nurtured and brought up upon the old Jewish faith that a nation is a living organic unity created for some special purpose by the Deity himself. But the ideal disappears as soon as we pass beyond the boundaries of Christianity; and by no conceivable process of reasoning can such an ideal be engrafted upon the theocracy of either Hindus or Mohammedans. In the case of the Hindu it is his "caste" which determines his relations to the rest of humanity; with the follower of the Prophet it is his creed; and the idea of national unity, as something deeper than either "caste" or creed, could not enter into, could not be understood by, Hindu or Moslem, so long as he retained his faith intact.

The English-speaking natives are, therefore, almost as much an exotic in the land of their birth as the British themselves—that is to say, they represent a class which could not survive the downfall of the Power which has called them into existence. It is well known that the Anglo-Indian officials regard with unconcealed dislike these Frankensteins of their own creating, nor is this greatly to be wondered at. The services are incalculable which an educated native might render to his country and the Government if he zealously set to work to become acquainted with the one and to act as the interpreter to the other of its genuine wants and wishes. But as far as matters have yet gone, the educated natives have done next to no work of this kind. Their great ambition is to set up a newspaper, from the columns of which to keep up a ceaseless fire of criticism against the Government and its officials. The attitude which they like to adopt towards the western world, its beliefs, its manners, and modes of action, is one of affable patronage and easy condescension. If judged by a low material standard, they will allow that western civilization is more successful than Brahminical, but if by the graces of the mind and heart, then there can be no question that India bears off the palm. In short, the English-speaking native is a cause of exasperation to his British manufacturer, because he is so intolerably well contented with himself.

He has as yet done absolutely nothing to justify this self-esteem. On the strength, merely, of his knowledge of English, he assumes that he is on a par, in all respects, with the race which built up the Indian Empire by sheer courage, endurance, and governing capacity—nay, he not unfrequently looks down upon it from a superior altitude. He talks as if he were capable of sustaining, on his sole, unassisted shoulders, the entire burden of government. There is, however, a great deal more of assumption than genuine conviction in this parade of superiority; and it must honestly be confessed that the easy, idiomatic command which the natives of India acquire over the intricacies of the English language is a really considerable achievement. The two books under review are remarkable instances of this, and remarkable, also, in reference to the foregoing observations, as showing the complete detachment of both writers from the beliefs still held in reverence among their less educated countrymen. Thus the author of 'Gujarát and the Gujarátis'—himself a Parsi—does not scruple to draw the following sarcastic picture of "the orthodox Parsi at prayer":

"The minute he is out of bed the orthodox Parsi shakes himself free from all idle reveries, the remnants of the night's dreaming; and unfolding the triple cord round his waist, turns his face to where the sun has just risen, and, giving the sacred badge three vigorous flaps, he cries out in choice Persian, 'Defeat, defeat to Satan!' so that the author of evil may not venture, later on, to molest the pious man on his path of duty. Shortly after he takes his bath, and then commences his regular prayer business. He has his prayer-book in Zend text and Gujaráti character, out of which he recites an appropriate prayer or two, either before the kitchen fire, before the blazing censer in the drawing-room, before the sacred fire in the neighboring temple, and even in one of the central fire temples—this according to his circumstances or the degree of devotion he possesses. At other times he prays before the sun, the moon, the stars, the well, the river, the sea, the plant, the tree, the mountain. . . . Very often there is a long piece of quiet reading and meditation, which the pious Zoroastrian drawls out line by line with well-executed ejaculation and the approved nasal twang, but without the vaguest notion of what he is doing. This is a sorry exhibition, and to the younger generation it is becoming a farce."

The author of 'Travels in Bengal' is a high-caste Brahmin, and the following is his sportive account of the manner in which he evaded a religious difficulty:

"In going to Dacca I wished to avoid, if possible, the crowd and bustle of the daily despatch from Goalundo. I set my heart upon the good *Princess Alice*, Capt. Atkinson, in which large steamer I had many a time voyaged. I learned that she left Goalundo on Friday mornings. I must, therefore, start by the Thursday evening train to catch her. But Thursday was out of the question for the good Hindu. The old Rishis had set their faces against it, and the dutiful son of Bharadwaj could not think of it, on pain of the combined hostility of all the heavenly powers. Not even to win a kingdom—so the law runs—should anybody venture out on a Thursday evening. But as modern lawyers can laugh at the most elaborate precautions of the legislators of the day, so there are ways, thoroughly orthodox, of cheating the Rishis and gods. The preceding day was a most auspicious one, and I took advantage of it to make my ceremonial exit, making the stars believe I left on Wednesday. The affair was simple enough, though not without its inconveniences. Within the specified hour of that Wednesday—for the whole day was not blessed—I abandoned one apartment of my residence (not before passing through the prescribed forms), not to enter it again till my return from the contemplated journey, and was supposed to be on my travels. The start *de facto*—the material start—took place the next day."

This is amusing enough. The mischief is, that the educated natives, speaking generally, are as sedulous to perform these inane ceremonies as if they had not detected their inanity—are as vigilant to preserve their caste as if their religious orthodoxy had never felt the chilling breath of European thought. And thus their superior education literally becomes their greatest misfortune. It converts them into a species of hybrid, belonging neither to the West nor the East, or (as a well-known Hindustani proverb has it) they resemble the washerman's dog, which belongs neither to the house nor the washing-place. They would, if the British were to be expelled from India, doubtless be extinguished in a few years.

The speculation which baffles conjecture is the part they are destined to play in the history of the country, supposing the British Government to continue. Every year the ranks of these sham Hindus, sham Parsis, sham Mohammedans, are increased by several thousand new recruits. The manufacture of these people is beyond all question the most productive industry carried on in the empire, but it cannot in our judgment be regarded as either healthy or promising.

Meanwhile, in the two books under review, we have the English-speaking native exhibited to us at his best. They are both written in admirable English, and with a vein of humor running through them which makes them no less entertaining than as pictures of native life and society they are instructive. 'Gujarát and the Gujarátis' gives, indeed, the best delineation of a British Indian province of the present time with which we are acquainted. The 'Travels in Bengal' are the record of sundry journeys along the vast river-ways of eastern Bengal. The author has an eye to observe the changing face of Nature, and a ready pen to transfer the impression to paper; but, as with 'Gujarát and the Gujarátis,' that which gives his book its special value is the racy descriptions of native life and character.

Four Oxford Lectures: 1887. Fifty Years of European History. Teutonic Conquest in Gaul and Britain. By Edward A. Freeman, M.A. Macmillan. 1888. 8vo, pp. 112.

SINCE Mr. Freeman took his chair at Oxford, we have been accustomed to welcome every year a volume of lectures from his pen, placing before us a special phase of historical research which has occupied his mind during the year. In this way, without prejudice to the *magnum opus* which we may expect some day, we have from time to time definite portions of the preliminary work completed and the results placed on record; so much has been accomplished. The last published volume, for 1887, is considerably thinner than the average, consisting of only four lectures, forming two short courses.

The first of these courses is entitled "Fifty Years of European History"—of course *the* fifty years which were in the mind of every Englishman in the year 1887. It is not easy to point out any important particular in which just these fifty years of Queen Victoria's reign should be set apart as marking an epoch in human history. As a period of strong and significant influence in the development of free institutions, assuredly; but here we have only the more rapid working out of forces already vigorously operative. Indeed, a less ingenious man than Mr. Freeman, or one less familiar with the details of historical events, would have found it hard to distinguish these fifty years, except by an enumeration and analysis of their leading events. He has, however, succeeded in finding a reason for regarding the year 1837 as really a decisive turning-point in English history; by the accession of a woman to the throne of England, the kingdom of Hanover, which was governed by the Salic law, was separated from Great Britain.

"It is literally true that Elizabeth and Victoria are the only sovereigns, since Harold, son of Godwine, who never held any dominion other than that which came to them by virtue of the crown received at Westminster. And as Elizabeth, strangely enough, bore the title of Queen of France, we may say that Victoria is the first sovereign of England who has not even claimed any such dominion. We may further add that it was under Mary that the last relics of Edward the Third's French kingdom passed away, that it was under Anne that the other kingdom within the isle of Britain lost all traces of foreign character. Victoria alone has mounted the throne of the British islands free from all possessions, from all claims and titles, besides those of her British kingdom and its dependencies. We see then that, after all, the year 1837 is a memorable year, as marking an epoch in the formal relations of the British crown" (p. 6).

This loss of Continental possessions is not an insignificant trifle; in the case of King John it was an event of decisive importance.

These two lectures, as is natural, are occupied, not with a chronicle of the events of these fifty years, but with a discussion of their relations to the general course of history. In this point of view they will be found very interesting and suggestive.

The other course of two lectures is wholly disconnected from the first. Mr. Freeman has been goaded by the criticisms of those who misunderstood and therefore misrepresented his theory of English ethnology into anticipating his line of discussion, and taking up the consideration of this point earlier than he had intended.

"I had not designed," he says (p. 69), "to speak of Britain till I had done with Gaul. . . . When we see how Teutonic invasion worked in these lands, in which it really was no more than some tell us that it was in Britain, then, and not till then, shall we see how different a thing it really was in Britain. Such was the path which I had chalked out, a path which I had hoped to plod along steadily and in peace. But it hardly does to wait in this way, it may be for years and it may be for ever, under the present circumstances of the case."

There is no doubt that the plan sketched for himself by Mr. Freeman is the only way of presenting his view graphically and convincingly. As long as it is a question merely as to the "displacement" or "extermination" of the British nationality, it is easy enough to criticise his theory in detail, and to argue very plausibly—whether from the point of view of language or complexion or skulls or isolated historical events—whether from the point of view of Roman survival or Celtic persistence or Iberian remnant—that the English people are not prevailingly Teutonic, but are a mixture of races, with perhaps no controlling element. But he who carefully compares the process and the results of the Teutonic conquest of Gaul with the Teutonic conquest of Britain, cannot help seeing a fundamental contrast between the two. We expected, from the title of the lectures, to find such a comparison here. This seems, however, to be reserved for a future time, when the preliminary work shall have been completed. Meanwhile, we have a more careful and elaborate statement of what Mr. Freeman and the writers of his school really mean by speaking of the displacement of the Celtic race in Britain by the Teutonic. The lectures deserve, therefore, to be read carefully by those who would understand the question in controversy. We do not see that exception can fairly be taken to his theory as here stated. At the same time it must be confessed that some of the statements in his earlier writings were less cautiously worded than his present utterances, and that part of the misunderstanding was not unreasonable.

A few extracts will give his idea;

"When we speak of Greeks, English, or any other nation, we do not mean, we have never meant, to assert anything about physical purity of blood, because absolute physical purity of blood is unlikely in itself, and in any case it cannot be proved. By Greeks or English or any other such name, we mean that company of men, however formed, to which the name of Greek or English historically belongs. We cannot prove any original community of blood; but the practical likelihood always is that such a company did at first start from real community of blood. The nation began as a real family or collection of families. . . . The science even of skulls is still in its infancy; it is perhaps better not to be over-positive about it; but let it be as the most zealous votary of skulls may wish. Let it be that many so-called Englishmen, many who are Englishmen for all historical and all practical purposes, have British or even Iberian skulls. What follows? The whole thing is merely a question of degree. The discovery at the outside comes to this, that while we have all along said that there was some foreign mixture in the Greek, the English, or any other nation, that foreign mixture is now shown to be somewhat greater than we had thought. . . . But what follows? Surely that the original mass that absorbed and assimilated those foreign elements must have had even greater strength than we had thought it had. If after adopting so many Britons, so many Iberians, we remain Englishmen none the less, surely a new witness is brought to the strength of the English life within us, a life which can thus do the work of the alchymist and change every foreign element into its own English being."

Animal Magnetism. By Alfred Binet and Charles Féré. [International Scientific Series.] D. Appleton & Co. 1888. 12mo, pp. 378.

PSYCHOLOGY has latterly taken to the study of "unexplored remainders," and none have been more fruitful of interest, and even of very puzzling problems, than the phenomenon of hypnotism. Putting chickens to sleep, and performing apparent feats of magic by turning a fellow-being into an automaton, may not seem, at first sight, to be very good science; but experiment has shown that it may contain a secret which would make us exclaim, with the terrific oracle of Œdipus,

"May'st thou ne'er know the truth of what thou art."

The title of the present work is misleading. The only justification of it is a brief history of those speculations which were rife in the past century under that name, and which were started by the discoveries of Galvani and Volta. It is not apparent that the authors have any theory of "animal magnetism" to defend. Although electricity still figures occasionally as the philosopher's stone in the problem of vital forces, scientists generally fight shy of it, and look at it with much caution or scepticism. But there is one incident in the present work which indicates some predisposition on the part of the authors to favor the existence of "animal magnetism." It is the very singular use they affirm to have made of the magnet in producing and modifying hypnotic states. They profess to have modified hallucinations merely by application of the magnet, and they proceed with their inquiries as if the trustworthiness of this experiment were not to be questioned. But the general reader must be warned against credulity here. Charcot and Delbœuf investigated this matter very carefully, and found that a piece of wood was quite as good as a magnet for the purpose. The effect seemed to require nothing more than either suggestion or a change of stimulus. Their experiments with the magnet, and the gravity with which the present authors assume and discuss the effects, are in danger of giving an air of charlatanry to the work, and might weaken the value of studies that experts could recognize as eminently trustworthy.

The work, however, is almost entirely an examination of hypnotism, and this outside of the general question of "animal magnetism." It is remarkably free from theorizing. Not even are the several theories to explain the hypnotic state given a notice. These and the relations of hypnotic phenomena to personality and responsibility are the chief objects of interest excited by the subject. Of personality it is enough to remark that nearly all of the experiments, and especially those of post-hypnotic suggestion, far from lending any support to the doctrine of "multiplex personality," prove the very opposite by showing a connecting link between the hypnotic and the conscious state.

We cannot discuss any theories of hypnotism, but we may suggest something which all experimenters within our knowledge have neglected. The theory that regards the hypnotic state as a form of sleep has much to support it. First, its phenomena greatly resemble those of somnambulism. Second, it has been proved by experiments, including those of our authors, that the entire unconsciousness of the events during the hypnotic state may be like that of sleep; for, on the one hand, in ordinary dreaming we often either forget the dreams very easily, or forget that we have dreamed at all, and that a few moments after waking; and, on the other hand, the same ignorance of what goes on in the hypnotic state occurs, but some remember a dream-like state, and others, who ordinarily do not recall the memory of anything, *will do so if a general suggestion is made at the moment of waking.* This would make the failure to remember anything about the hypnotic state an effect of forgetfulness, while it might suggest the doctrine that during sleep man is conscious, but has no memory—the doctrine of Leibnitz and Hamilton. But the particular point we wish to suggest is, that, to decide more adequately the relation of hypnotism to sleep, we ought to have experiments

upon the same subjects in their ordinary sleep, in order to compare results with hypnotic phenomena. This might be a crucial case, and yet we have not been able to ascertain whether it has ever been tried, or even thought of.

The relation of the subject to the question of responsibility is interesting, because patients may be induced by post-hypnotic suggestion to commit various acts of crime, which they immediately forget. The fact will extend the leniency of legal penalties, if its significance proves to be more general than at present supposed. All the experiments relating to this aspect of the question, however, are not altogether complete or satisfactory. A more careful analysis and more crucial experiments are required.

A Guide to the Conduct of Meetings: being Models of Parliamentary Practice for Young and Old. By George T. Fisk. Harper & Bros. 1888. 16mo, pp. 189.

THE 'American Manual of Parliamentary Law,' published by the same author in 1879, did not seem to be a very valuable contribution to the subject. It went over the same grounds as Cushing's standard 'Manual,' and sought novelty in arrangement by various intricate devices. The present 'Guide' must find its welcome in a class of readers concerning whom we can form no ideas. The plan is a series of dialogues showing the method of organizing a club, and the decision of the ordinary parliamentary questions. It is so rudimentary that only children could need it, and they could not understand it. It appears to be entirely unnecessary, and merely the crotchet of an enthusiast on a rather unimportant subject.

My Wonder Story. By Anne Kendrick Benedict. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. [1888.] 172 pp. sq. 8vo. Ills.

A PRIMER of anatomy and physiology in simple language for the use of children under judicious guidance would be a useful and welcome addition to educational literature. It is hardly necessary to say that it should be the work of some one who understands these subjects, and not cribbed by a hack writer from a medical dictionary. The author should have common sense enough to avoid silly paraphrases of ordinary technical terms, such as "bone man" for "skeleton," and the like. He should also secure illustrations directly adapted to the text, with nothing superfluous and nothing obscure.

The present book is a model of everything which should be avoided in such a case. It is apparently intended to utilize some old anatomical cuts. The author attempts to combine, in the framework of a story, some elementary facts of human anatomy and physiology with sundry pious ejaculations and reflections. The story is flat and mechanical, the piety is goody-goody and perfunctory. It does not seem possible that the total combination can be of use to anybody.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Typical American; or, Incidents in the Life of Dr. John Swinburne. Albany: *Citizen* Office.
Autobiography of a New England Farm-House. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.
Ball, J. T. Historical Review of the Legislative Systems Operative in Ireland (1172–1800). Longmans, Green & Co. $2.25.
Bosanquet, B. Logic; or, the Morphology of Language. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 2 vols.
Bullen, A. H. The Works of George Peele. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $6.
Howell, W. H. Dissection of the Dog as a Basis for the Study of Physiology. Henry Holt & Co.
Krause, A. Das nachgelassene Werk Immanuel Kant's. B. Westermann & Co.
Landau, Baron W. von. Travels in Asia, Australia, and America. New York: George Landau.
Launce, L. Descriptive Geometry. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.35.
Lee, Gen. A. E. The Battle of Gettysburg. Columbus, O.: A. H. Smythe.
Loomis, G. B. Progressive Music Lessons for Public Schools. Fifth Book. Ivison, Blakeman & Co.
Monteith, J. Living Creatures of Water, Land, and Air. Fourth Reader. Cincinnati: Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co.
Parry, E. A. Letters from Dorothy Osborne to Sir William Temple. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.50.
Pendleton, E. A Virginia Inheritance. D. Appleton & Co.
Pictures at Play; or, Dialogues of the Galleries. Longmans, Green & Co. 35 cents.
Rellye, J. Dictionary of the English Volapük. Chicago: L. Schick.
Rolfe, W. J. Tales from English History, in Prose and Verse. Harper & Bros.
Scomp, Prof. H. A. King Alcohol in the Realm of King Cotton. Oxford, Georgia.
Sharp, Dr. W. Therapeutics Founded upon Organopathy and Antipraxy. London: Geo. Bell & Sons.
Steel, A. G., and Lyttelton, R. H. Cricket. (Badminton Series). Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Stephen, L. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XV. Diamond—Drake. Macmillan & Co. $3.75.
Sterrett, J. R. S. An Epigraphical Journey in Asia Minor. Boston: Damrell & Upham.
Sweetser, M. F. Chisholm's Mount Desert Guide Book. Portland: Chisholm Bros.
Symonds, Col. H. C. Report of a Commissary of Subsistence. 1861–65. The Baker & Taylor Co.
Taussig, Prof. F. W. Tariff History of the United States. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
The Gray Guest Chamber. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 20 cents.
The Legislative Record of the State of New York, Session of 1888. Albany: J. B. Lyon & Co.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 2, 1888.

The Week.

WAS ever a great party in such an absurd position as the Republican within a month after its ticket was nominated, and before its candidates have formally accepted? Before the Convention adjourned, it was found necessary to patch one plank of the platform, and before the campaign is fairly opened it is found necessary to say that another plank does not mean what it has been interpreted by the Republicans of the House to mean. Both these planks relate to the absorbing issue of the canvass, which, it was perfectly apparent, when the Convention assembled, was to be the issue that would decide the election; yet the assembled wisdom of the party deliberately adopts a declaration of faith on that issue which cannot endure the strain of the first month of campaign discussion. The cause of the trouble is obvious enough. The Republican party has fallen into the control of men who have lost all faith in sincerity in politics, or in the intellectual capacity of the people to distinguish between humbug and honesty in party professions. These men firmly believe that trickery and appeals to ignorance and prejudice are the most powerful agencies in politics. Their bad luck with their platform must make them suspect that something is wrong in their calculations. If they search far enough, they will find the cause of all their failures in the sincerity and fearlessness of the leader of the Democratic party.

The Philadelphia *Ledger*, a newspaper which mingles independence and candor with its support of the Republican party, reviews the course of Mr. Cleveland's Administration regarding civil-service reform in a noteworthy editorial article. The *Ledger* thinks that the friends of this reform were unwarrantably sanguine as to what might and would be accomplished, but holds that "it must be conceded by every fair-minded observer of the Administration of President Cleveland that, since it began, the reform of the civil service has not only not gone backwards, but has made certain advance to a higher plane of official excellence." The *Ledger* thinks that Mr. Cleveland meant to sweep away the spoils system, and tried to do it, but that it was too much to expect that a political system which ancient custom was considered to have almost made law, if it had not made it respectable, could be at once got rid of. It considers it "probably true that faithful and efficient Republican incumbents were removed without cause in contravention of what the civil-service reformers understood to be the pledge made by Mr. Cleveland in his Christmas Day letter to Mr. Curtis, but it must be frankly acknowledged that, in making appointments to the vacant places, the President did not disregard the qualification of merit." As a rule the *Ledger* thinks that Mr. Cleveland's appointments have been "conspicuously meritorious," declaring that "his appointees to important offices have been, with most rare exceptions, men of high character, illustrations of the kind of which are to be found in the distinguished character of the citizens appointed to the heads of executive offices in Philadelphia." As regards the reform generally, our contemporary thinks it demonstrated that it has made decided progress during the past three years; that it "has not gone backward, but distinctly forward, under the Administration of President Cleveland."

The meeting of a convention of colored voters to endorse a Democratic Administration, and pledge support to the party which seeks to continue it in power, is an event full of significance and encouragement. The gathering at Indianapolis last week had its disorderly features at first, due apparently to the attempt of "Matt" Quay to capture control of it through a body of Republican negroes whom he had forwarded; but it settled down into a deliberative body which evidently represented in its attitude a considerable percentage of the race. The keynote of the Convention was struck by the Permanent Chairman, Peter H. Clark of Cincinnati, in his address advocating a split in the negro vote. Mr. Clark is a man of marked ability and excellent character. He was formerly principal of the colored high school in Cincinnati, and, by the way, was turned out of that position by the Republicans solely because he ceased to be a Republican. He said that a careful study of the principles set forth in the Democratic and Republican platforms will convince any man that the contest for the Presidency is to be carried on this year on lines of thought new to this generation. The Republicans, he said, declare in favor of a free ballot and a fair count, but they know full well that the evils of which they complain are such as cannot be controlled by Federal action, as the decisions of the Supreme Court have repeatedly shown that fact. Mr. Clark took the sound position that even if the order of government could be changed, and the Federal Government could be made supreme in all things, it would not be a good thing to do, and proceeded to preach equally sound doctrine when he said: "Politics is not the universal panacea for the ills that beset the negro race. The truth is, few of the evils of which complaint is made are political in nature, and not many can be cured by political action. The average of morality, intelligence, industrial skill, wealth, and manliness of the negro must be raised, and as they rise, prejudice against them will decline." He said that the interests of the colored people are as safe in the hands of President Cleveland as in those of any man who had ever occupied the office of Chief Magistrate, and the resolutions adopted endorse the ticket and platform of the St. Louis Convention.

The Boston *Transcript* makes this observation: "The *Journal* is right in describing the Scandinavians of the Northwest, whom it poetically calls 'the descendants of the Vikings,' as a pretty sagacious lot of men. They are Republicans in politics almost to a man, and likely to remain so." The Scandinavian vote is to have an important influence in the coming Presidential election, and may not improbably, in the future, make doubtful States of some which the Republicans now count as certain to remain in their column. A close observer of this body of our adopted citizens and their children predicted, before Cleveland's Administration was two years old, that a large part of them would range themselves with the Administration party in the next Presidential election. His argument was, that the reason why the Scandinavians who have settled in the Northwest in the last twenty-five years have been so generally Republicans, is, that at home they have always been used to looking up to the ruling power as right, finding their government economical and popular. Coming to this country, in regard to which they had received such glowing ideas, it was as natural for them to support the party in power—looking to that party as the source of the country's prosperity—as it was for the "Pat" of the anecdote to reply, when asked on landing which party he belonged to: "I'm ag'in' the gover'mint." The Republicans, in sacrificing their power to Blaineism, gave the Democrats a chance to show such citizens as the Scandinavians that prosperity is not dependent on the rule of any one organization, and President Cleveland has given a tone to his Administration which has made it affirmatively popular with all citizens of independent thought. Add to all this the tariff policy laid down in the Chicago platform—a policy totally at variance with the home system of the Scandanavians and with their own interests here—and it is easy to see why all political students, in forming their opinions of this year's results, will do well to keep an eye on the Northwest.

Republicans who want a newspaper which heartily believes in the free-whiskey platform of the Republican party, and enthusiastically advocates it, cannot do better than subscribe to the *Press* of this city. The more the *Press* reflects upon the proposed emancipation of whiskey from its present despotism, the more does its heart burn within it to hasten the accomplishment of this most beneficent reform. New arguments occur to it every week. In one article on Sunday it urged the change in behalf of the now down-trodden agriculturists. "The whiskey tax," it says, "operates to bar honest farmers from the legitimate industry of turning their corn into a fluid to be used for the most necessary che-

mical, mechanical, and medicinal purposes." In another article it pleaded for the reform in the interest of the drunkard's family. A drinker will drink so much any way, the argument runs; "if the price of drink be high, the proportion of his income needed to procure the customary indulgence will be large, and the family will get less; if the price of drink be low, this proportion will be less, and the family will get more." The conclusion, therefore, is that "the tax bears chiefly upon those who most of all should be free from the injustice of government, and those who are least able to resist its injustice—the women and children of the intemperate." The *Press* might profitably carry this argument a little further, and ask voters to support Harrison on the free-whiskey platform in the interest of the churches and Sunday-schools. It is notorious that the wives and children of many drunkards cannot attend worship for lack of suitable clothes. This lack is plainly due to the fact that the tax of 90 cents a gallon on whiskey puts up the price of his "customary indulgence" so high that the husband and father has not money enough left to fit out wife and children. Remove the tax, and thus make whiskey cheap, and this obstacle to the spread of religion would immediately be overcome. Well may the *Press* call the salient feature of its party's platform "this sensible and enlightened Republican policy."

Some of the suppressed wrath which the Republican leaders and newspapers feel towards James P. Foster, President of the Republican League of the United States, is coming to the surface. The Boston *Advertiser* says the League would indeed have to be a splendid organization not to have all its influence brought to naught by such conduct as "Mr. Foster has been guilty of, in sending out his ridiculous circulars appealing for campaign funds." The Burlington *Free Press*, while trying to relieve Senators Edmunds and Morrill from the burden of the "strong words and bitter, but true," on the subject of "fat" in the tariff, says:

> "Why President Foster of the National League permits the Nestor of the Senate or either of our honorable Senators to be thus accused, both of gross inconsistency and of a remarkable indiscretion, without a word of denial, we do not understand. Probably he thinks that the less that is said about such an inexcusable blunder as the issuing of such a circular and the printing of such a quotation from a confidential letter, the better."

It is not our fault that Foster keeps silent. We have offered him any reasonable space in our columns for a full explanation of the identity of the Senator whom he quoted with such telling effect, but he has failed to avail himself of the opportunity.

The first attempt which we have seen to deny that either Mr. Edmunds or Mr. Morrill was the Republican United States Senator quoted by Mr. Foster in his "fat" circular, appears in the *Free Press*, of Burlington, Vt. In commenting upon Foster's statement that the Senator in question was "from a State which never had a Democratic representative in either house of Congress, or a Democratic State officer," the *Free Press* says that this could not be Vermont, because that State had four Democratic Representatives in Congress between 1823 and 1853, and a Democratic Governor in 1853. True, but perhaps Mr. Foster forgot all this. The *Free Press* adds: "Neither of the Vermont Senators could possibly have been the author of the letter quoted by the author of the circular, and in point of fact neither of them was aware of the existence of such a letter till it appeared in print." What is the authority for that statement? The only competent authority would be a personal denial by both the Vermont Senators. If the *Free Press* has it, it fails to say so. Then, too, why not get Foster to say who the Senator was? We have tried in vain. He was in Burlington last week, and the *Free Press* could have made a great hit by publishing an interview with him on the subject.

The *Iron Age* for July 26 copies from the Pittsburgh *Despatch*, without comment, a tabular comparison of the wages paid in the steel works of the Edgar Thomson Company at Braddock, Pennsylvania, and those of the Union Steel Company in Chicago. The figures are interesting in more respects than one. In the first place, they show that the average wages paid in Chicago are more than 50 per cent. higher than those paid at Mr. Andrew Carnegie's establishment, the Edgar Thomson Works. Secondly, the showing is very different with different classes of workmen. For example, a blower in the convertor department gets at Braddock $1.08 per 100 tons, and at Chicago $2.34, an excess of more than 100 per cent., while a keeper in the blast-furnace department gets at Braddock $2.23 per day, and at Chicago $3.25, an excess of less than 50 per cent. But the most interesting point to be noticed is the absurdity of making comparisons between wages in one country and another, when such differences as this exist in different parts of the same country under the same tariff.

A correspondent who is himself interested in iron-ore mines, but who considers the cost of ore a hindrance to the general interests of iron manufacture, calls our attention to an account, given in the *Iron Age* for July 19, of the operations at the Cornwall ore banks, in Pennsylvania. We quote a few passages from this account:

> "Magnificent though the mineral properties of this country may be, none thus far discovered outside of the exhausted Comstock lode approaches in present or prospective value that of the Cornwall ore banks. . . . The cost of putting the ore on cars is 20 cents a ton. As it carries considerable sulphur, it must be roasted, which is usually estimated to cost 40 cents a ton, the kilns being at the furnaces. Adding as a liberal figure 15 cents a ton for transportation to the furnaces in the immediate vicinity of Lebanon, a total cost is reached of 75 cents a ton, roasted, at the furnace. . . . It is probably within the bounds of truth when we state that the owners of the ore banks realize fully $2 a ton, if not more, on every ton quarried. In 1887 the output was 667,210 gross tons, and in 1886 it reached 688,000 tons."

Thus we find the owners of these great ore banks making a clear profit of $1.25 per ton—that is, an annual profit of nearly a million dollars! And yet mine-owners clamor for an increase of the present duty of 75 cents per ton, which is left unaltered by the Mills bill. Our correspondent adds that there are other mines, not so well known, that are doing nearly as well as the one of which the *Iron Age* gives the above account. Evidently there is plenty of margin for poorer mines at a less duty than 75 cents per ton.

It will be hard for protectionists to explain the enormous increase of the cotton manufacture of India in recent years. We have no statistics of the amount manufactured by Indian mills previous to the year ending June 30, 1879, but since that time the Bombay Millowners' Association have issued an annual report of production. The amounts of cotton consumed by the mills in successive years, beginning with the above date, are as follows, in thousands of bales: 268, 308, 379, 398, 457, 531, 597, 643, 726, 815—the figure for the year just closed being estimated, but sufficiently accurate. We have thus in nine years a rise from 268,000 bales to 815,000 bales manufactured in Indian mills, the latter amount being more than triple the former. All this has been accomplished in the face of the rivalry of British manufacturers, the most powerful in the world, with splendid means of communication due to the political dependence of India upon England. Since 1882 there has been no duty on cotton goods, and before that time native manufacturers were protected by a duty of 5 per cent.! And is it not worth mentioning, too, that the stability of this industry is not dependent on the whims of politicians or on the exigencies of parties, or even on the fluctuations of governmental income and expenditure? Is it not pleasant to contemplate a growth like this, which is the reward of energy and enterprise alone, and which nobody can regard as "fat" to be justly "fried out" of its possessors by their political guardians? Is it not humiliating to one's national pride to listen to the piteous howls set up on every side in our own country at the bare prospect that a little of the gratuity which we have been dispensing to our tender young manufacturers may possibly be withheld?

By a lucky coincidence, we find in the *Tribune* of Thursday a very appropriate parallel to the foregoing statistics. That journal points with pride to the increase of paper manufacture in this country in the last eight years, as presented in the speeches made at the meeting of the American Paper Manufacturers' Association. The paper industry has, under protection, "nearly doubled in value" in this period of eight years; whereas we have seen that the cotton manufacture in India has tripled its dimensions in nine years, under free trade. Few things could better illustrate the fatuity of the reasoning which attributes the growth of every industry to

the operation of the tariff. There is another point mentioned by one of the speakers and adopted by the *Tribune* which is, if anything, even more illustrative of this absurdity. "Under protection," says the *Tribune*, "the paper industry in eight years has advanced from No. 21 (among our manufacturing industries) in the census classification to No. 14." Now, we wonder whether the seven manufacturing industries which this paper industry has outstripped have not been protected. We wonder whether they have not been more highly protected than paper has, seeing that the duty on paper is only from 15 to 20 per cent., while the duties on nearly all of our manufactures exceed 40 per cent. It is curious, indeed, that any one should see a triumph for protection in the fact that one protected industry has outstripped another. But this absurdity is only more palpable, not more real, than that which protectionists are continually committing when they show that a certain industry is benefited by a duty, without making any inquiry as to whether other industries are injured by it.

A millionaire named Palmer from Michigan, who joined "the pleasantest club in the country," otherwise known as the United States Senate, six years ago, has surprised everybody by the announcement that he is going to let his membership lapse, although it is universally conceded that he could retain his place by simply meeting his regular dues. A millionaire named McMillan stands ready to pay the entrance fee, and will doubtless succeed to the seat.

The exigencies of conducting a newspaper upon the severe "American" plan which is followed in the *Tribune* office, are very trying, but the editor of that journal appears to be equal to them. There was a banquet given in London last week by the Incorporated Society of English Authors to American authors in London. As the *World's* special cable account explained, "the ostensible purpose of the banquet was to celebrate the progress of the International Copyright Bill in America, but a scarcely secondary purpose was to welcome Mr. Phelps's predecessor, James Russell Lowell, on his first public appearance in London since his recent illness." An account of the banquet was sent out by the Associated Press agent in London, the larger part of which was devoted to the reception which was accorded Mr. Lowell, and to a synopsis of his speech. It was said in this that "Mr. Lowell was received with the greatest enthusiasm upon rising to speak," and it was perfectly plain that he was the most conspicuous as well as the most highly honored guest of the evening. This Associated Press account was published in the same form in the *Sun*, *Times*, and *Herald*, but the *Tribune* "edited" it by cutting out all mention of the reception to Mr. Lowell, every word of the synopsis of his speech, and all mention even of the fact that he made a speech. His name was allowed to creep in at the end of the list of people who were present, which must have been a severe strain upon the magnanimity of this wonderful editor.

There has been no more curious episode in English politics than the attempt now pending to find out whether the "Parnell letters" produced by the *Times* are genuine. The commission of judges proposed by the Government is itself an absolute novelty. No such tribunal has ever been organized in England for any purpose. There have been commissions of judges in Ireland, but their function was the punishment of crime under the forms of law. The function of the present Commission is simply that of a Parliamentary committee—to inquire and report whether certain persons, some of them members of Parliament, have or have not been guilty of complicity in certain crimes. The Attorney-General has maintained in open court that Parnell has been an accomplice of assassins, and that it can be proved by Parnell's own letters, and the whole Tory party profess to believe it. But if this be true, it is of course the duty of the Government to have Parnell arrested, indicted, and tried. The offence with which he is charged is the well-known one of being an accessory before the fact. But instead of putting him on trial, the Ministers taunt him with not bringing a suit for libel against the newspaper which published the accusation—perhaps the oddest treatment of a criminal on record. Moreover, they refuse to confine the limits of the judicial inquiry to the genuineness of the Parnell letters, although, of course, if the judges found the letters to be genuine, everything else alleged against Parnell would be taken as true as a matter of course; while if the letters were pronounced forgeries, the other charges would not be worth inquiring into.

The exceedingly queer condition of the Liberal Unionist mind on the subject is well exemplified in the last number of the *Economist*, which is nothing if not judicial. It gravely says that what has most impressed the public mind in the *Times's* charges about the letters is its refusal to tell where it got them. Of course this ought to cause it to be laughed out of court; but it converts this radical weakness into strength in the eyes of the *Economist*, by alleging that if the editor told where he got the letters, the traitor or thief who supplied them would be murdered. This sounds farcical enough. The *Times* could of course always tell the story to the judges in private. If the concoctors of forged letters could get off in this way, no man's peace or reputation would be safe.

Americans are so accustomed to seeing the reports of Congressional proceedings and of political speeches "edited" to suit the purposes of organ-grinders, that they cannot easily understand the shock which has been caused in England by the recent discovery that the London *Times* has become so infected with "journalism" as to adopt this practice. Hitherto the reader could be absolutely sure of finding in its columns complete and accurate reports even of speeches which advocated policies diametrically opposed to the newspaper's convictions, and the reputation thus attained was one of its most valuable possessions; but during the past week it has been convicted of suppressing portions of speeches in Parliament and of testimony in an inquest, because they militated against the side which it supports. It is a melancholy sign of degeneracy.

M. de Molinari, editor of the *Journal des Économistes*, subjects the propositions of the State Socialists concerning workingmen's insurance, pensions, etc., to some acute economic and other criticism in the July number of that journal. There are two propositions now before the Chamber of Deputies, both of which will probably be adopted. One is designed to compel employers in industries classified as dangerous to make compensations to their workmen in cases of accident. The other has reference to the regulation of women's and children's labor. M. de Molinari points out in regard to the former that it may be expected to have a secondary consequence, in addition to the primary one of tending to reduce wages in the industries affected to the level of wages in non-dangerous industries. The proposed law provides for pensions to widows of men killed by accident, the amount of this pension being 15 per cent. if there is one child, 25 per cent. if there are two, 35 per cent. if three, and 40 per cent. if four or more. These pensions are calculated to cause a preference on the part of employers for workmen who are unmarried or who have few children, so that the law will operate to a notable degree in preventing the workmen in the affected occupations from marrying and from raising families. M. de Molinari points out that no corresponding provision is made in the case of occupations classed as unhealthy, although it is accurately known from statistics by how many years and months these occupations shorten the lives of the men engaged in them. In regard to women's and children's labor, M. de Molinari admits the desirability of governmental protection in these cases, or, at least, in that of children, but regrets the inefficacy of the measures usually adopted for this purpose. His concluding remarks relate to an interesting instance of the superstitious belief of the Socialists in the existence of a latent supply of wisdom and virtue which "the State" can somehow or other command, provided only that the Socialists can have their way. "*Le Cri du Peuple*, for example, does not hesitate to declare that the law for the protection of women and children will have for its chief result 'the creation of inspectorships for the friends or cousins of Deputies.' With the Socialist State, this would be different. In that model State the Deputies would have neither friends nor cousins. And even—who knows?—perhaps the women and children would be protected without inspectors."

THE REMEDY FOR "OFFENSIVE PARTISANSHIP."

THE Washington correspondent of the New York *Times* reports that the Civil-Service Commissioners in Washington are much and naturally pleased with the approval of their work contained in the President's recent message accompanying their annual report. Their satisfaction, he says, with the following passage was peculiarly great:

"Besides all these difficulties, those responsible for the administration of the Government in its executive branches have been and still are often annoyed and irritated by the disloyalty to the service, and the insolence, of employees who remain in place as the beneficiaries and the relics and reminders of the old vicious system of appointment which civil-service reform was intended to displace."

And on this he reports one of the Commissioners as having made the following comment:

"The full significance of that sentence will hardly be appreciated by the average reader. It is a warning. The President is weary of the attacks upon his civil-service policy by people whose retention in service would have been impossible under the old system. Their original appointments were the rewards for political service rendered in the interest of the under party, yet are they retained in office by the victors—a strong proof that the Civil-Service Law is enforced. I know of a number of these men who have recently secured leaves of absence from their Democratic chiefs, which they are spending at their homes, where they attack the President and his reform policy, affording unique samples of ingratitude to the man and his system which have provided them with bread for nominal services during the years since Republicanism ceased to prevail. I am sure the President has his eye on these ingrates, and hope they will soon receive merited punishment. I have reason to believe the sentence I refer to is a forerunner of what is to come. I think a goodly number of those now attacking the Administration secretly, as well as openly, will be turned loose to be supported by the party of which they are such ardent members."

There is no doubt that there is still a very considerable body of the kind of officers the Commissioner here describes in nearly all the lower grades of the service—men who cannot forget the means by which they originally obtained their places, cannot understand the aim of the Civil-Service Law, or appreciate the President's motives in refraining from "a clean sweep," and in whom partisanship is so ingrained that they cannot get the partisan wag out of their tongues, although they know it endangers their bread and butter. In fact, it would be demanding almost too much of human nature to expect the men who have been bred in the official traditions of the last forty years, to exhibit in their own persons, as the result of one election, examples of what public servants under the new merit régime ought to be. Doubtless hundreds of them still continue to rail privately at the Administration—that is, at their official superiors—and enjoy seeing it discredited by cases of dishonesty and inefficiency, and are not unwilling to lend a hand in bringing it to shame, if the opportunity offers. There is no such leopard in politics as an old Republican office-holder who got his place through "influence" in the grand old days of Conkling and Morton and Carpenter and Anthony. His spots are his pride and boast.

We know all this, but we know also that the remedy which has been applied to this deep-rooted evil by the present Administration has not always been the true one. Of course disloyalty to the service, and insolence, in employees who "remain in the service as the beneficiaries and relics of the old vicious system of appointment," ought to be punished. "They ought," as the Commissioner says, "to be turned loose to be supported by the party of which they are such ardent members." But this does nothing for the reform of the civil service if their places are filled by Democrats appointed for the same reasons, animated by the same principles, and ready to act in precisely the same manner when the occasion serves.

Of course, this remark does not apply to cases in which vacancies are filled from the eligible list under the civil-service regulations; but the moral effect of these regulations has notoriously been greatly lessened, and in some places wholly destroyed, by the way in which vacancies not covered by the regulations have been filled. There is no good lesson, in other words, in dismissing a blatant Republican for being blatant, or a disloyal Republican for disloyalty, if you put in his place a Democrat whose only merit is his partisanship, whose activity is sure to be as "pernicious" as that of his predecessor, and who, if Harrison should be elected and left him in office, would be sure to be as insolent and insubordinate towards Harrison as some of the Republicans now are towards Cleveland. It is not in this way that the great parties are to be educated in the use of a non-partisan service, or the voters are to be brought to support the reform with that expectation of success on which all popular support must be based in order to be successful. We shall never see the merit system thoroughly rooted in American political manners, until each party has learned to take its medicine without making wry faces.

COLLAPSE OF "THE FREE-TRADE SCARE."

IN order to grasp the full meaning of the decision of the Republicans of the Senate to prepare a tariff bill of their own as a substitute for the Mills bill, let us go back and make a rapid survey of developments since President Cleveland sent his tariff-reform message to Congress in December last. Previous to the delivery of that message, the reëlection of the President was conceded on all sides, provided he lived and accepted a renomination. When the message appeared, the Democrats as a party were filled with consternation. They, and many Independents as well, regarded the step as a political blunder, as reckless as it was unnecessary. We recollect hearing one distinguished Independent saying of it that "Grover Cleveland had tossed the Presidency as a gift into the lap of James G. Blaine." The Republicans took the same view, because they were entirely confident that they could carry the country by claiming that the message was in the interest of free trade. All their old "scares" about the "payment of the rebel debt" and the "restoring of the negro to slavery" had been put aside as useless, but here was a new one with which they firmly believed they could conquer.

Faith in this free-trade "scare" lasted, however, for only a few weeks at that time. The Democrats discovered that the President was a far more sagacious as well as a far more courageous man than almost anybody else in his party. They discovered that the country was much less alarmed by his words than they had been, and a month after the message appeared the Democratic party was almost entirely united behind the President, and surprised and delighted to find that it had discovered a leader who gave it something worth fighting for. The consolidation of the party went on steadily until the St. Louis Convention met and renominated the President without a dissenting voice. So unanimous and courageous had the party become that even when the news came that Oregon had been carried by the Republicans on the tariff issue by a greatly increased majority, the Democratic Convention was not stampeded, but went straight ahead and adopted its platform of cordial approval of the President's policy and of its expression in the Mills bill.

But while the news from Oregon did not stampede the Democrats, it completely turned the heads of the Republicans by convincing them beyond a doubt that they could win with the free-trade "scare." They met in convention, fairly intoxicated with this belief, and adopted a platform declaring "uncompromisingly in favor of protection," favoring nearly every kind of extravagant expenditures—pension bills, river and harbor bills, fortification bills, navy bills, national aid to State education—and making no other proposition for the relief of the people from the burden of unnecessary taxation than the repeal of the taxes upon tobacco and upon spirits used in the arts; and if "there shall still remain a larger revenue than is requisite for the wants of the Government, we favor the entire repeal of internal taxes [that is, free whiskey] rather than the surrender of any part of our protective system." This was adopted with shouts of delight by the Convention, and was hailed with warm approval by the leading organs of the party. A more shameless platform was never adopted by any convention of a respectable political party. It was simply a menace to the peace and welfare of the country, and was so regarded by every thinking man. It was interpreted by the Republicans of Congress to mean that they should formulate no measure looking towards a reduction of the surplus and a relief from taxation, but should take the position that the Mills bill was a free-trade measure, and should oppose its passage solidly on that ground. They took that position, which was simply that any revision of the tariff, or any attempt to reduce the surplus, was "in the interest of British free trade."

The Democrats of the House stood manfully by their colors, and passed their bill, all the Republican members save three voting against it, though it provided for only a 5 per cent. reduction on a tariff of 47 per cent. On Saturday week the Mills bill went to the Senate, the Republican party still

holding to its position that revision of the tariff and reduction of the surplus meant free trade. On Sunday, rumors were heard that there were Republican Senators who doubted the strength of this position. These rumors assumed more definite form on Monday, and it was declared that there was likelihood of a Republican tariff bill in the Senate, reducing the surplus and revising tariff inequalities. These so alarmed the leading Republican organ that it came out in bold warning against such a bill, declaring it would be a "bill for buncombe," and that the safest course for the party was to stand by the position which the Republicans of the House had taken.

This was the situation when the Republicans of the Senate held a caucus on Wednesday night, about one month from the date of the promulgation of the Chicago platform. They had before them a formal request from the Home Market Club, an organization of the most heavily protected manufacturers of the country, begging them to "formulate and pass a tariff bill reducing the surplus and simplifying the tariff in the interest of protection," and imploring them not to go on record as merely opposing the Mills bill, but to originate "legislation that will render service to the business and the industrial interests of the country." Similar demands had been made by the Boston *Advertiser*, the Hartford *Courant*, the Worcester *Spy*, and other loyal Republican organs in New England. They were repeated with increased emphasis in the caucus by Senator Allison of Iowa, Senator Hiscock of New York, and Senator Aldrich of Rhode Island. What was the cause of all these appeals for action, instead of passive opposition? Nothing more nor less than the discovery by the newspapers, manufacturers, and Senators making them that the free-trade "scare" was not working. If they had not made that discovery, they would not have reversed the campaign policy of the party so suddenly as to catch the party's leading organ with a denunciation of the new policy as "buncombe" in the editorial columns of the same issue in which the news of that policy's adoption was published.

There is not the slightest doubt that this Senate decision is a complete surrender of position. The *Tribune's* utterances are only a part of the proof on this point. There was a grand Republican ratification meeting at Burlington, Vt., on Thursday, at which Senators Edmunds and Warner Miller and Representative Butterworth made speeches. Mr. Butterworth had evidently not heard the news from the Republican Senatorial caucus, for he made a personal appeal to Mr. Edmunds to stand firm against precisely such a course as the caucus only a few hours before had unanimously agreed upon.

> "You have," he said, "never helped the Democrats out of a scrape, and you are not going to do it now. But the Democrats are praying that the Senate will in some way aid them. Don't you do it. We are holding all the trumps now, and the Democrats want you Senators to give them another deal. Don't you do it."

But the Republicans of the Senate have decided "to give the Democrats another deal," and they have reached that decision because they have discovered that the American people are too intelligent to be "scared" into electing any candidate to the Presidency. Henceforth the Republicans must stand or fall in their new position. They must present their measure of tariff revision and surplus reduction, and appeal to the intelligence and reason of the country to decide between their plan and that of the Democrats. They cannot cry "free trade" or cite the utterances of the British press with any hope of winning in that childish fashion. The country, thanks to the courageous leadership and true Americanism of President Cleveland, has passed the point where nursery methods of that sort exercise a controlling influence.

"THE FAT IN THE FIRE."

BEFORE the meeting of the Republican Convention, we ventured to predict that if Blaine could not be nominated, the Blaineites would either dictate the nomination or insist on its being given to some one who would acknowledge Blaine's supremacy, and give him the chief place in the Cabinet. When we said this, however, we did not anticipate the desperate intrigue by which they tried to impose him on the Convention, nor the thoroughly implacable temper in which the nomination left them. We supposed, in fact, that the result would be at least brought about by a bargain which, if it did not give them all they wanted, would leave them in a moderately good humor, and secure from them some sort of coöperation in the canvass, with at least outward demonstrations of respect for the nominee. What actually happened, as we all now know, was that they were defeated without negotiation, that no terms were offered them and no arrangement made with them, and that they left the Convention in a thoroughly bad temper. The consequence is, that they are to-day apparently as full of mischief towards the Republican Presidential ticket as they were towards the Republican ticket in this State in 1885, when, out of pure hatred of the Mugwumps, they defeated Davenport and gave the Governorship to David B. Hill.

Any one who doubts all this can hardly have been a diligent reader of the Blaineite newspapers since the nomination. We venture to assert that there has been no precedent for the indifference with which they are treating Harrison, and the ostentation with which they throw cold water on the ticket and repress any signs of zeal among its supporters. The exhortations in its favor almost invariably take the form of warnings as to the enormous amount of work which will be necessary to elect it, and the danger of supposing that it has any momentum of its own. Harrison's name is rarely mentioned. The customary glorification of the candidate's character and career is thus far wholly wanting. In fact, the leading organ of the party, the New York *Tribune*, seldom speaks of him, and nothing has been done, or apparently is to be done, to excite the imagination of the voters about him. Gen. Harrison's friends are told, as plainly as is possible without putting it into words, that, as they have nominated him, they must now elect him the best way they can.

This is not all, however. They do not content themselves with neglecting Harrison. They are making every preparation to give Blaine all the honors and éclat which they would have given him had he been nominated, and which are, they know very well, the due of the man who has been nominated. They are arranging to offer him precisely the kind of reception when he arrives here, which they would have offered him had their intrigues on his behalf at Chicago been successful. The more pompous and noisy it is, of course, the more will Harrison be thrown in the shade, and the more thoroughly will he be given to understand that, if he is elected, he will be expected to occupy the kind of place at his own Cabinet meetings which Mr. Seward tried, at the outset of the war, to assign to Mr. Lincoln, in that famous letter reproduced in the *Century* magazine the other day.

How Gen. Harrison and his backers, if he has any backers—for they have not shown themselves yet—feel about all this, and how they will deal with it as the canvass goes on, we of course have no means of knowing. What he can do about it, no matter what his feelings may be, it is hard to see. If he had to do with people who really desired to win the election, he might frighten them into good behavior by threatening them with defeat; but he has every reason to believe that they would as lief see him defeated as not, and in fact that a very large proportion of them seek his defeat as a "vindication" for themselves and their idol. They have for a long time made no concealment of the fact that a Republican administration under Blaine is the only one which has any attractions for them. The secret of this is, as we have so often pointed out since 1884, that they are for the most part commercial politicians—that is, moneyed men who seek wide opportunities for investment or speculation which can only be secured under a "brilliant" (that is, turbulent and reckless) administration such as Blaine's would be sure to be. Few, if any of them, are men of ideas on any subject but money-making, or are capable of respect for any policy which does not promise "large returns" of the pecuniary sort.

How this very curious situation will end, he would be a wise man who should predict. We may be quite sure, however, that the coming "welcome to Blaine" will not help, and is not intended to help, Harrison, and that the more brilliant it is, the worse off will the Republican ticket be. The voters are not yet prepared for such a novelty as electing one man President by running another. If the canvass should end in a Republican defeat under such conditions, it would at least have the merit of putting an end to an organization which has ceased to have any real strength, and is dependent for even a show of vitality on the "fat" supplied by protected manufacturers.

QUACK LEGISLATION.

If a man takes medicine without much knowledge either of the nature of his disease or the character of the remedy he uses, we regard him as a fool. If he prescribes it to others under such circumstances, we call him a quack. But such folly and quackery are not confined to medicines. In matters of legislation they are still more universal. For diseases of the body politic, men prescribe remedies at haphazard, and those who know the least of the dangers involved, are the loudest in urging their favorite legislative nostrum. Early in the century Sir Walter Scott said that the law was like physic—easier to use as a quack than as a skilled practitioner. Had he lived in these days of over-legislation, amid the various attempts to make the world righteous by act of Congress, he would have found daily illustrations of the truth of his statement.

Of all the patent legal medicines, the favorite one for diseases of the locomotive organs is the Inter-State Commerce Law. Confused in its composition and uncertain in its effects, it is nevertheless extolled as "good for most everything." It will in all probability be applied to express companies and to water routes; it is proposed to extend it to telegraph companies; and if hack-drivers were only engaged in inter-State commerce, it would surely be urged as an infallible means of checking their extortions.

The Inter-State Commerce Law, as far as it had any definite design, was framed to meet the conditions of railroad business, and especially the evils of railroad discrimination. People might differ, and did in fact differ very widely, in their opinions as to what constituted an unjust discrimination, or how far it was wise for Congress to interfere with the liberty of action on the part of the railroads; but there was an evil distinctly seen which gave the law a specific purpose. There were differences in railroad rates not based on any obvious principle. Some shipments had to pay an enormous share of the fixed charges, while others were carried for the movement expenses, or even less. Competition, so far from furnishing a remedy, had tended to intensify the evil, because it forced rates down at some points without affecting others. To attempt to prescribe a schedule of rates by law, had proved impossible. To leave uncontrolled power in the hands of the railroad officials, was out of the question. As a compromise, a somewhat vague law was passed, and its execution intrusted to the hands of a Commission which might have the special experience to apply it discreetly. The Commission was a skilful one; the law, as administered by it, gave tolerable satisfaction. The result is, that people are clamoring to have it extended to other agencies than railroads.

There seems to be no objection to applying it to express companies. It is not improbable that the law in its original form was intended to reach them; and in any event the express business is little else than a department of railroading, and subject to much the same laws and conditions. If the present law is right for railroads, it is presumably right for express companies.

With water routes the case is different. It is true that the evils of discrimination exist to some extent; but the special conditions which have given rise to railroad discrimination, and have justified special legislation on the subject, do not apply to water routes. There is no such distinction of fixed charges and operating expenses as there is in the case of a railroad. In those water routes which are controlling factors in the trade of the country, the track is practically free. Even on a great and costly work like the Erie Canal, the attempt to charge tolls is not maintained. The expenses of water carriage are operating expenses. Water rates afford a legitimate field for the action of free competition. Unless this is artificially interfered with, rates will be to a great extent based on cost of service. Discriminations in charge by water are due, not to the special conditions of the business, but to violations of the principles of common law.

The law of common carriers, as applied by the courts, was largely developed to suit the conditions of water carriage. The introduction of steam as a mode of water propulsion has modified these conditions, but has not radically altered them. As a business agency, the steamship has far more in common with the sailing vessel than with the railroad. It was because the railroad furnished a distinct set of facts to which the traditional law did not apply, that special railroad legislation was demanded. To try to apply the special legislation to water routes, is to ignore these differences of fact. At the very best, this attempt will be useless; in all probability it will do some positive harm. If we say that water routes and railroads are controlled by the same laws, when really they are not, it will lead us to practical mistakes. A transportation agency which has to pay for its track is in very different circumstances from one which does not. Long - and - short - haul principles which apply to the former may not apply to the latter. The effort to make the two fit into the same schedule will only blind our eyes to the real facts in the case. The effect of water competition on railroads would be nearly the same, whether water routes were subject to the control of the act or not. Even if their nominal status were made forcibly to conform to that of railroads, the practical difference of not having to pay fixed charges would continue, and would be a disturbing element in all competition between the two.

Still worse in some respects is the crude proposal to apply the Inter-State Commerce Law to telegraph business. It is true that the conditions in this case are somewhat like those of railroads, but the particular evils and abuses complained of are totally different. There is public dissatisfaction—we do not now say whether it is well grounded or not—with the general scale of telegraph charges. It is believed that they are so high as to prevent the natural development of business, and that it is the shortsightedness of the management which is keeping them at abnormally high figures. Now, no one who knows anything about the case would make these charges against our railroads. Their average rates are extremely low. They have developed their business in a way which is almost incredible. They have shown the utmost enterprise in reductions of charge which to conservative spirits seemed almost suicidal. The complaint against railroads is on account of their inequalities in charge. It was against this that the provisions of the Inter-State Commerce Law were largely directed. But with telegraphs this is a secondary matter. It is the absolute and not the relative rate which the man who uses the telegraph cares about. It is not felt as a hardship by the sender of private messages that the press receives special rates so much lower than his own. Whether press rates really are unfairly low or not, or how far the inequality of telegraph rates for different places is an arbitrary one, matters not. This is not the main point at issue; and legislation which is aimed at the wrong target is not likely to produce the result demanded.

Whatever result it might produce would probably be attained at a disproportionate cost. A law like the Inter-State Commerce Law would miss its essential feature unless it were administered by a body like the Inter-State Commerce Commission. It could not properly be intrusted to that body itself, for the simple reason that the Commission has on its hands at present all the work which it can possibly do. We are surprised that a man of so much judgment as Senator Platt should not have seen this difficulty with a bill which he has recently introduced. To master the technical details necessary to a proper appreciation of a vague railroad law is enough to tax a man's best energies to the utmost. To learn at the same time another set of technical details with regard to the telegraph is quite out of the question. Either the added work would be neglected, in which case the new law would fail of its intended effect, or each of the two lines of work would be somewhat slighted, to the manifest detriment of both. If the telegraph law were intrusted to the hands of a totally distinct commission, this evil would be avoided; but in that case it would surely be far better to cut loose from the model of the railroad law, and give the new commission power to cope directly, as far as they could, with those evils which are specially complained of in the telegraph business itself.

In any event, it is the height of folly to suppose that because special legislation worked well in one business the same thing will probably work well in another. The presumption is the other way. If special legislation was really required, it was because that business was subject to special conditions of its own distinct from those contemplated in the common law. As far as another business shares in those special conditions, we are justified in extending the law in question. Further than this, there is every reason to suppose that it will be unwise to apply it. To assume that because a law has proved useful in one particular set of conditions it ought, therefore, to be applied universally, is mere legislative quackery.

A CHAPTER IN EUROPEAN PROTECTION.

If the several nations of Europe were as eager to contribute each its due share to the world's stock of "sweetness and light" as they are to furnish their full quota or more of its supply of sugar, the world would be in a fair way of being a very satisfactory sort of place. M. Léon Poinsard devotes eleven closely printed pages of the *Journal des Économistes* to an account of the endeavors which European governments have been making in the course of the past five and twenty years to curb each other's enthusiastic pursuit of the sweets of this most petted and coddled of all industries. It makes very interesting reading, though one finds it difficult at times to avoid a sense of the ridiculous. As one reads of conference after conference, each as futile as its predecessor, one would think these had to do with the attainment of some ideal and boundless blessing like universal peace, or at least of some economic panacea like bimetallism; but no, the *summum bonum* which all these diplomatic efforts have not yet been able to compass, is an arrangement by which each government shall bind itself not to pay its sugar-refiners a bonus to enable them to sell sugar abnormally cheap to foreigners. M. Poinsard takes his subject far too seriously to see a joke in it anywhere, at least so far as the action of France is concerned; though he does say that "certain countries, like Austria and Germany, which have committed veritable absurdities (*folies*) in this regard, have literally offered to the British tea-drinker, as a free gift, a good part of their sugar. Mr. Giffen has estimated the annual gift thus presented to England by other countries at upwards of fifty million francs." M. Poinsard, we say, does not acknowledge that there is anything humorous in the whole story, nor does he press any opinion of his own; he tells a plain, unvarnished tale, of which we shall endeavor to give some of the principal points.

The origin of the whole trouble is the system of "drawbacks" on sugar. Crude cane-sugar, being considered an especially convenient subject of taxation, as it was all imported by sea, had rather heavy duties imposed upon it by European governments; duties which, by the way, discriminated in favor of colonies of the taxing country, so as to encourage the sugar-growers there. But it was held even more important to encourage the sugar-refiners at home; and this was effected by securing to them the home market through heavy duties on refined sugar, and by giving them a full opportunity for exportation through the remission, on all refined sugars exported, of the duties which had been paid on the crude material. Now it is just here that all the trouble has arisen; for the legal estimate of the amount of raw sugar which went to the making of a given amount of refined sugar was always far above what a well-conducted refinery needed. The consequence was that the refiners obtained as a remission of duty a considerably larger sum than they had paid on the raw sugar imported; in other words, they were the recipients of a handsome bounty on exportation.

When beet sugar began to be produced on a considerable scale, the desire of each of the principal nations of the Continent to take a large share in this new and important industry was so strong that "some of them erected the practice of the drawback into an economic system, designed to assure to their refiners an insuperable advantage in the greater part of the markets of Europe. The others were led into the same path by the fear of the destruction among them of an important branch of industry."

The enormous bounties which were paid out in consequence—again to quote M. Poinsard—of "this thoroughly artificial movement, which led to an absurd overproduction," pushed the sugar-refiners of England to the wall; it was, of course, not an easy matter for her to make an exception, even in this extraordinary case, to her general policy of free trade, and, besides, she was hindered by commercial treaties from taking any immediate steps in the matter. Nevertheless, the situation was causing much uneasiness in England, in spite of the fact that her consumers were getting the sole benefit of the low price of sugar, while the consumers of the bounty-paying countries were not only paying high prices for their sugar, but actually adding to their heavy loads of general taxation in order that certain sugar-refiners at home might undersell the English in their own market.

France seems to have been the first country to get restless under this state of things. In 1863 she proposed a general conference of sugar-producing nations which should adopt a common system that would suppress export bounties, direct and indirect. It would be tedious to go into any details upon the various complications that prevented this conference and many following it from effecting any result. No less than eight international conferences have been held, at intervals of a few years, the last of them having concluded its labors not many weeks ago—labors which will not improbably be as futile as those of its predecessors. In point of fact, the details are merely incidental; the root of the trouble is the enormous difficulty that always attends the removal of an artificial stimulus under which special industries have been unnaturally inflated. "The delegates [to the recent Convention] unanimously declared that the system of bounties was detestable, and its suppression imperative. But each one added that the others must commence and organize their systems in such a way as to faithfully suppress any legislative advantage." There can be no doubt that the principal protective nations of Europe are heartily sick of this ridiculous war of bounties which has so reduced the price—that is, the foreign price only—that the consumers in free-trade countries have, according to our author, gained even more than the bounty-receiving manufacturers, while of course the taxpayers of the protective countries pay the costs all round. Even this sort of protection, made ridiculous by being turned inside out, holds its own stubbornly, each nation being justly afraid that the others will ruin its refineries by keeping up this pleasant game of bounties after it has itself stopped spending the hard-earned money of its taxpayers on this favorite child of protection.

EXIT BOULANGER.

M. Hervé, the editor of the Paris *Soleil*, a Monarchist, but an excellent authority on French politics, has predicted that Boulanger will be defeated at the approaching election in the Department of the Nord, to fill the vacancy caused by his own resignation, and will then disappear from French politics. That this consummation could not be very long delayed has been the conviction of all rational observers ever since Boulanger produced his "programme." As long as he kept it secret, as he at first proposed, he kept alive public curiosity and to some extent public expectation; but when he revealed it, and it was found to be something so commonplace as "dissolution and revision," and something which could not be carried out without the consent of the Chambers, of course every one knew the end was not far off. It was hastened by the exhibition he made of himself in the Chamber in the debate with M. Floquet, and by the subsequent duel, in which he ran his throat on the point of his adversary's sword. To be handled in this way by an elderly civilian made him ridiculous and finished him.

When he disappears there will be no one, as M. Hervé points out, prominently before the public eye in French politics, and no politician with whom the French public particularly occupies itself. In other words, Boulanger has shared the fate of a score of other politicians far weightier and more respectable than he, which was impending over Gambetta himself, and from which the latter was only saved by death. Every man, in short, who has come to the front since 1870, no matter how great his talents or how high his character, has been used up before very long—that is, has gradually lost his hold on the public and on the Chambers, and has disappeared more or less completely from the public view. Gambetta tried to avoid this for a good while by refusing to take office. When he did take it, and found himself wasting away, he slipped out in a hurry, but he would surely have undergone extinction, like his forerunners, if death, as we have said, had not saved him.

It was really this immense slaughter of the civilians which brought Boulanger on the scene. As one after another disappeared under votes of the Chamber, and as the process of extinction became more rapid, the popular mind, naturally enough, became prepared for that appearance of the man on horseback which is one of the strong traditions of French "parliamentarism." That the man on horseback happened on this occasion to be a fool as well as a charlatan, is one of those wonderful pieces of luck of which so many have befallen the present Republic. All her leading enemies, from the Prince Imperial down, have been made harmless by some species of folly. That the Minister of War, a popular hero when the country first began to tire of parliamentary institutions, should have been a weak dema-

gogue instead of an astute, vigorous, determined, and successful soldier, looks like a special providence. Harmless as he has proved, however, Boulanger's career seems to have thoroughly frightened the Republicans of all shades of opinion, for they have stopped turning ministers out of office. Floquet is enjoying a security of tenure such as has not been accorded to any of his predecessors for three years, and he owes it to Boulanger. It will soon be the only trace of Boulanger left.

Why is it that no more leaders are to be found in French politics? No prize the Academy of Moral and Political Sciences could offer would secure an answer to this question. All attempts to answer it have only removed the mystery one degree further back. Any one who says it is "parlementarisme" simply offers to solve one problem by presenting another. The discussion about parliamentary institutions got up by Boulanger, unfortunately for him, is the old one which preceded the *Coup d'État* in 1851; and the reproduction of the arguments which Persigny, De Morny, and the rest used against parliamentary government at that period has probably had the largest part in killing his pretensions. They brought home to everybody's mind the ugly fact that if you will not put up with tongue government, you must have sword government, and that if you insist on having great men, you can hardly avoid having one so great that he will shoot you for being saucy. In fact, government by discussion is at last receiving that final and greatest of sanctions, the impossibility of finding any substitute for it.

PARLIAMENTARY GOVERNMENT AND GOVERNMENT BY PARLIAMENT.—II.

LONDON, July 12, 1888.

PARLIAMENTS exist in every civilized State. Parliamentary constitutionalism has produced all the benefits anticipated from its adoption by the constitutionalists of the last century. Yet Parliamentary government is falling into discredit. "Parliamentarism" is denounced by democrats as vehemently as by reactionists. The explanation of the paradox may be given in one sentence: "Parliamentary government" is turning into "government by Parliament," and government by Parliament never can command, as it never has commanded, lasting popularity.

A phrase, however, explains nothing. Whoever wishes to understand the discredit attaching to the rule of representative assemblies should first discriminate between "Parliamentary government" and "government by Parliament," and next consider with care what are the weak sides of government by Parliament. Parliamentary government meant in the last century a constitution which provided that the wishes of the nation should be made known through its representatives, and that the nation's representatives should take a considerable or even a predominant part in the work of legislation. The function of Parliament, as understood by constitutionalists, was in the first place to give utterance to public opinion, and in the next to legislate in conformity with the will of the nation. The transcendent merit of the English Parliament, in the eyes of foreign critics such as Montesquieu, was that the houses of Parliament as a whole (and especially the House of Commons) gave expression to the sentiment of the English people, and insured that no Englishman could be ruled by laws, and especially be made to pay taxes, to which the majority of electors had not given their assent. The House of Commons then secured for Englishmen free expression of opinion and the supremacy of the law, and, in doing this, secured for them blessings not enjoyed under any of the monarchs or aristocracies that ruled the continent of Europe. No doubt the English Parliament in fact both fell short of and exceeded the functions which admiring theorists ascribed to it. The unreformed House imperfectly represented the wishes of the nation. The House, unreformed though it was, did not by any means confine its activity to legislation. Its will went a great way in determining national policy. It did not appoint, but it controlled the appointment of, Ministers. The theory, however, and to a great extent the practice, of the Constitution forbade Parliament to interpose in matters relating to the Executive. The "King's Ministry" was no mere empty phrase. Till 1832 the Crown exerted in England a marked influence on all administrative concerns, and, what has scarcely been sufficiently noted, decline in the authority of the Crown did not immediately involve the weakening of the Executive. Ministerial responsibility implies ministerial power, and Parliamentary government was never intended by its eulogists to be a system under which a cabinet should be the servants of the House of Commons.

That this was the idea of foreigners who tried to imitate English constitutionalism is certain. It is equally certain that, up to the end of the last century, Englishmen themselves did not realize the extent to which even then the House of Commons was becoming part of the Government, and they had no idea that the King's government ought to be carried on under the direction of the House. The statesmen who built up the Constitution of the United States, or who at Dublin and at Westminster criticised the treaty of union between England and Ireland, certainly supposed that they knew something of the English Constitution. Their language and their acts alike show that they considered the Executive as a power in the State, standing almost as independent of the direct control of Parliament as at the present day do the body of judges. No doubt any Whig, or any Tory, for that matter, would a century ago have conceded that in matters of national policy Parliament must have the last word. So, at the present day, any rational man would concede that the law administered or interpreted by the judges must ultimately be determined by the will of Parliament. But no sensible politician supposes that Parliament ought to interfere with the judgments of the court.

Parliamentary government, in short, meant originally a polity under which a representative assembly played a leading part. It did not mean, either in England or elsewhere, a polity in which a representative assembly administered the government of the country. Government by Parliament, on the other hand, means a system under which a representative assembly appoints at its own will the national executive, and assumes more or less openly the direct administration of affairs. In no European State, it is true, does government by Parliament in its extreme form as yet avowedly exist. The Crown in England, the President in France, and other authorities in other countries, put more or less effective restraint on the immediate intervention of the legislative assembly in the duties of administration. It is, however, plain to any observer that both in England and in France the Parliamentary system tends towards the production of what I have called government by Parliament.

Take, for instance, the English House of Commons, which does not constitute the English Parliament, but is by far the most important member of it. Can any one doubt that within, say, the period of Mr. Gladstone's political lifetime, the House has assumed to itself new powers? During the session of Parliament it directly supervises every act of the Administration. If a policeman exceeds, or is supposed to exceed, his duty; if a magistrate gives an erroneous interpretation of the law; if a rumor spreads that the Crown is contemplating alliance with a foreign Power—if, in short, anything, great or small, interests any portion of the British public, some member, by means of a motion or a question, brings the matter under the cognizance of the House. By one of those strange inconsistencies which constantly prevent any theory of politics from being carried to its extreme length in England, people have hitherto acquiesced in the arrangement which sanctions the direct interference by Parliament for half the year in matters which during the other half are left to the unfettered decision of the Ministry. How long this singular compromise between the old and new conception of representative government will endure, no one can tell. It cannot last for ever. If it be desirable that every minister be cross-examined about all his actions, great and small, for half the year, it cannot be desirable that, with regard to the very same matters, he should have what the political slang of the day denominates "a free hand" for the other six months. If, on the other hand, it is desirable that, say, Mr. Balfour should be uncontrolled by Parliament from the middle of August to the middle of February, it cannot be desirable that he should be pulled up by Parliament at every moment between the middle of February and the middle of August. The present system cannot last. Parliament, and especially the House of Commons, will sooner or later be compelled to assume more or to be content with less than its present authority. The immediate outlook suggests that the House will every year intervene more and more actively in the discharge of duties still left to the Executive or to the judges. Already, "the Opposition," as I see stated in to-day's papers, "are anxious that a portion of supply should be left over till the autumn sitting. They believe that by this means the House will retain a greater control over the Executive government."

English Liberals, in short, desire that the transformation of representative government into government by Parliament should attain its completion. In France this result has all but been reached. The Assembly, which in practice means the Chamber of Deputies, not only can but does at any moment displace the Ministry according to the Assembly's will or caprice. The supposed independence of the President has gone. M. Grévy was blamed because he hesitated to retire from office. From the point of view of a constitutionalist, he was open to juster censure because he did not fight for his post as a matter of life or death. M. Grévy's retirement was the breakdown of the Republican Constitution. It is no accident that the fall of the President gave life to Boulangism, which means, if it means anything, an expression of popular dislike to government by Parliament.

Government by an Assembly cannot long command popularity, and this for more reasons than one. An Assembly can represent public sentiment and can destroy patent abuses.

But an Assembly—at any rate such an Assembly as the English House of Commons or the French Chamber of Deputies—cannot govern. It is an absolute impossibility for three hundred, and *a fortiori* for six hundred and odd, gentlemen to carry on the administration of the State. An Assembly may reign, it cannot in reality govern. An Assembly, again, can sanction good legislation, but it cannot really legislate; an Assembly may choose the Government, but, except under favorable circumstances, it cannot insure the permanent existence of a strong executive. The incompatibility between government by Parliament and the existence of a really strong cabinet has only of recent times become apparent. And this is natural because it is only of recent date that Parliamentary assemblies have been anywhere really free to appoint and remove a ministry at their pleasure. In England, indeed, custom and habit still place a certain restraint on the caprices of the House of Commons, yet even in England the authority and independence of the Executive are in constant danger of diminution. In France an elected Assembly is in truth at liberty to follow the dictates of its fancies or passions. The result is patent to the world. Ministry succeeds ministry, until every man with the least capacity for leadership will soon, it is anticipated, have been discredited by the futile attempt to exercise what is ridiculously called power. Nor does this result spring from the supposed mutability of Frenchmen; it arises from the inherent vice of modern Parliaments—the tendency to break up into groups or factions, which can always unite to destroy a cabinet, and can never unite to maintain one.

The defects of government by Parliament would of themselves be enough to account for the general outcry against so-called "Parliamentarism." But these defects, many of which necessarily belong to representative government, give rise at the present day to far more censure than they could have occasioned a hundred or even fifty years ago. From the habits, in the first place, of modern life, every error or folly of a public assembly is blazoned forth to the whole world. It was a true instinct which led the English Parliament of the last century to dread the publication of its debates. The assertion were rash that the legislators who refused a hearing to Burke, or who all but hooted down Chatham when he was the aged and revered idol of the nation, showed more dignity or self-restraint than the members of the existing English Parliament. But it is not rash to assert that the Parliaments of George the Third appeared far more dignified bodies than the Parliaments of Victoria. The maxim *Ignotum pro magnifico* is of wide application. When an Assembly's debates are not reported, it is easy for the public to believe that the Assembly always debates with calmness and dignity.

The sentiment and the convictions of the age, in the second place, demand a strong government. Modern Democrats hold (whether wisely or not need not here be discussed) that the State may be greatly benefited by the action of the Executive. Every day the sphere of government is extended; every day there are new demands for constructive legislation. But Parliament, as already pointed out, is not itself a competent legislator, and finds it most difficult to maintain the strength of the Executive. The tasks demanded of a Parliamentary sovereign are exactly the tasks which such a sovereign is least competent to perform. We can hardly wonder that Parliamentary sovereignty should, under such circumstances, cease to be an object of general admiration. It is no accident that the English Constitution was most admired when, in England at least, there was little demand for constructive legislation, and when the best thinkers of the day desired nothing but freedom from the trammels imposed on individual action by laws and institutions which had ceased to meet the wants of the time. It is certainly no accident that from men who, like Carlyle, detested the doctrine of laissez-faire, came the first attacks upon representative government. Nor does history suggest that the rule of an assembly, even where efficient, is likely to conciliate affection or respect. The Long Parliament was first hated and then contemned, and no despot has accumulated on his head the mass of hatred which still loads the memory of the detested Convention.

AN OBSERVER.

AN ITALIAN BATH.

CASTROCARO, July 9, 1888.

THIS is one of the smallest and least known baths in Italy, although its waters are for certain complaints among the most efficacious in Europe. According to the official analysis, there are nearly 42 grammes of mineral constituents in a kilogramme of the water, of which 0.1754 are iodine and 0.1029 bromine. An analysis by Prof. Roberto Castellucci is as follows :

	Grammes.
Iodide of magnesium	0.1905
Bromide of magnesium	0.1162
Chloride of magnesium	3.1703
Chloride of sodium	35.9252
Chloride of potassium	0.0510
Chloride of calcium	2.2388
Sulphate of lime	0.1587
Oxide of iron	0.0416
Silicic acid	0.0265
Organic matter	0.0721
	41.9909
Water	958.0091
Total	1,000.0000

In the richness of its compounds of iodine and bromine, Castrocaro can therefore be compared favorably with Salso-Maggiore in Italy; is superior to Bad-Hall and Kreuznach; and can be equalled only by some of the iodine springs in the Carpathians of Transylvania which are only locally known.

The village is small; situated about three-quarters of an hour's drive from the railway station of Forli, and about one and one-half hours from Faenza, on the lowest spurs of the Apennines, in the mouth of a valley through which the highroad runs from Forli to Florence with a daily diligence. The country about is fertile and well cultivated, producing grain, silk, and the best of that excellent wine called San Giovese, which was celebrated, according to Varro, even in Roman times. From the old Castle, and certainly from the hill above it, can be seen Bertinoro, Forli, Ravenna, and, on a clear morning, the Adriatic. Besides the rooms to be had in private houses, there are two fairly good establishments of baths, Liverini and Conti, where, though there is no luxury, everything is clean and comfortable, and where (especially at the former) the food is substantial and good and the attendance excellent.

Italy, delightful at all times, is most beautiful in summer. But of this most foreigners, who arrive and disappear with the cool weather, have little idea. The neighborhood of Castrocaro is particularly charming. I do not speak so much of the hillsides, which, in spite of the frequent ravines in the clay soil, were green and beautiful until now that the harvest is finished, nor of the stretch of gardens and orchards down to the river, and of the fringe of poplars on their edge, as of the country roads bordered by hedges of hawthorn and Christ's thorn, interwoven with dark purple clematis, the small pinkish convolvulus, and the large white calystegia, and of the fields of grain, maize, and hemp which extend over the fertile plain quite to the shore of the Adriatic. The large proprietors complain that there are too many trees, to the injury of the crops; but there must be poplars to shade the roads, and the mulberry, and the cut-leaved maple—whose roots go straight down—are necessary for the silk worms and for supporting the garlands of vines, as was the custom in Virgil's days. Everywhere are pleasant walks; and as for longer excursions, it is easy to drive—especially in the light country carts, where your feet rest on a bottom of netted rope—to Forli or Faenza, or to Cesena or Ravenna, or up the valleys to the ruined castles and picturesque hill-towns, or even to the cascade of San Benedetto, told of by Dante.

Italy has one great advantage over Greece, in its continuous chain of historical tradition. Even the children in a village like this, clustered round the ruins of an ancient castle, know that they are the descendants of the men once the vassals of the lord of that castle, who had often fought for his defence, or who under his leadership had made hostile excursions against the neighboring towers and towns. Nearly every high hill is crowned with a ruin; and although the lords have disappeared, yet fragments of tradition remain. There are houses called by the same name given to them centuries ago, some of them still inhabited by the descendants of their builders. There are peasants working farms which their forefathers have held for hundreds of years from the same family; and often the proprietor will forego a loss of rent rather than change the tenant. Castrocaro, about two hundred years ago, was annexed to the Commune of Terra del Sole, and the inhabitants have never forgiven it. Although the populations of the two towns are personally on good terms with each other, the traditional enmity of centuries—seen in many little things—is not to be cured so quickly. In Greece, on the other hand, the grinding tyranny of the Turks, the extermination of the old families of the upper class, and the immigration of new elements of population have almost completely destroyed local traditions. The peasants there know nothing whatever about the old mediæval castles except that some of them were used as strongholds during the war of Independence; and the civilized Greeks are almost forced to skip the intervening ages, and to connect themselves directly with the Greeks of the age of Pericles and Alexander. There is scarcely a village in Italy the local history of which will not interest a traveller who stops for more than a day, and who cares for something more than the mere sights.

Castrocaro was called by the Romans Salsubium, thus showing that they were acquainted with the properties of the waters, of which they doubtless made use, although no Roman remains seem to have been found here. The origin of the present name is a puzzle; the first part is clearly Latin, and the termination (*caro*) would seem to point to the times when the Goths were masters of Ravenna and of all the country round about, although it may come from still earlier times when the Gauls occupied these hillsides. The first lords of whom we know belong to the Berengari family, from whom came that Duke of Friuli who was consecrated Emperor in 916 by Pope John X. The countship passed afterwards into other families. In 1118, the same year in which the Countess Matilda, daughter of an English Henry, gave the parish church of Sta. Reparata to an abbey at Faenza, the Count of Castrocaro was a certain Boniface, a rich magnate of

Faenza, whose descendants in 1160 gave hospitality here to the Emperor Frederick Barbarossa. During the next two centuries there were constant struggles between the two important families of Calboli and Ordelaffi, and the country was rarely at peace. The Counts of Castrocaro generally sided with Forli against Faenza, and once besieged and took the fortress of Imola, from which the efforts of the Pope could not dislodge them for years. Sometimes they were hard pressed themselves, especially when the Ordelaffi built the strong fort on the hill of Sadurano across the river Montone, which completely commanded them. But in spite of their quarrels as neighbors, all used to join in opposition to the extortionate demands of the Papal generals. Dante passed this way at the end of 1302, or the beginning of 1303, on his road from Arezzo to Forli; but it was probably party feeling rather than their innate wickedness which made him inveigh against the Counts of Castrocaro in the lines:

> "Ben fa Bagnacaval, che non rifiglia,
> E mal fa Castrocaro, e peggio Conio,
> Che di figliar tai conti più s'impiglia."
> —*Purgatorio, xiv, 116.*

Indeed, Fulcieri de' Calboli, who had been soundly abused in the preceding lines, and who was then Podestà of Florence, was a member of that family, and subsequently held the castle successfully against Dante's friends, the Ordelaffi. Five years later, in 1339, he sold the place for 6,000 gold florins to Francesco Manfredi, Lord of Faenza, but it proved impossible to carry out the bargain, and it came into the possession of the Ordelaffi as feudatories of the Pope. Three times the Popes sold Castrocaro to Florence, in 1364, in 1395, and 1403; but it was only in the last year that the Florentine Commissaries succeeded in getting possession of it, when the Chronicler observes: "Et fuit in decto Castro gaudium magnum et non de Forlivio." Its possession was greatly desired by the Florentines, because it secured to them the entire control of an excellent pass over the Apennines to the coast of the Adriatic.

Although, from this time on, the castle remained in the possession of Florence, that did not prevent the valley from being disturbed by wars in the neighborhood. In 1494 the French General d'Aubigny, marching through here to join Charles VIII. at Florence, was obliged, on account of the narrow mountain roads, to abandon his artillery, which was soon taken possession of by Caterina Sforza, who then ruled Forli. D'Aubigny passed Castrocaro again in 1501, when taking part in Louis XII.'s expedition against Naples. A few years afterwards, fear of the French caused the entire abandonment of Forli by its inhabitants, who all took refuge in Castrocaro, Dovadola, and the towns above. In 1537, a certain Achille del Bello, whose house still exists here, in order to revenge himself on some of his private enemies, formed a conspiracy to deliver the town to Piero Strozzi, but failed; and Cosmo I., for the greater surety of the frontier—especially as Castrocaro was ill disposed to the Medici—constructed the fortress of Terra del Sole, a little over a mile down the valley. A century later, in 1676, the fort of Castrocaro, which had probably already greatly suffered from an earthquake, was dismantled, and its garrison stationed in Terra del Sole, to which place all the Government offices were subsequently transferred.

Among the well-known personages of whose stay at Castrocaro we have some account, were Pope Martin V., who stopped here in 1418, while riding from Forli to Florence; Pope Julius II., who chose this route to go to Imola, as he did not wish to pass through Faenza, which was then held by the Venetians; and Macchiavelli, who (as may be seen from the dates of his letters) remained here for over a week in 1499, when on his embassy to Caterina Sforza. St. Anthony of Padua, in going from the Hermitage of Monte Paolo to Forli, to be present at a council of his monastic order, passed a night here at the house of the Corbici family; this was in Lent, 1222. While saying his prayers before going to bed, he had a vision of Christ as a boy, surrounded with a halo of heavenly light. A servant, terrified by the unusual glimmer which came through the cracks of the door, and fearing lest the house might be on fire, looked through the keyhole and saw the prodigy, on which he hastily ran down stairs to awaken his master.

As Castrocaro is mentioned in few guide-books, I was at first in doubt how to get here. I vainly questioned a number of Italians whom I met one evening in society, until an old judge admitted that he knew the place, since he had lived many years at Forli as Royal Procurator. He then entreated me, whatever I might do, never to pass through the village of Terra del Sole after dark; but his discretion was such that, to the amusement of all, he absolutely refused to explain why. When I had arrived here, the reasons became obvious. After Italy had become peaceful, it was found that a great benefit had been conferred on this valley by its annexation to Tuscany, and especially by the establishment of a free port at Leghorn. This region formed a narrow tongue of land stretching into the heart of the Papal States—a tongue so narrow that in some places the boundaries ran along the crest of low hills on each side of the river Montone. Each of the towns in the valley became the centre of a great contraband trade. Stalwart *spalloni* (as they were called) could easily take large packages of valuable goods on their broad shoulders, and within an hour or so deposit them in some safe place within the Papal territory. The buildings in all these villages bear witness to the wealth of their former owners. But smuggling had its necessary concomitant in brigandage, where the frontier of the Papal States could be so easily crossed; and, after the absorption of both Tuscany and Romagna into the kingdom of Italy, when the smuggling necessarily ceased, many of the old smugglers naturally turned brigands. At the time when my friend the Judge was living at Forli, brigandage was still rife, and his special annoyances were probably increased by the fact that his jurisdiction ceased before reaching the walls of Terra del Sole.

The most celebrated bandit of this region was Stefano Pelloni—called *il Passatore* from having been a ferryman near Faenza—who was noted through all the Romagna thirty years ago. The account of his life and adventures forms an often printed chapter of that cheap popular literature which, patronized by the extreme radicals, is doing so much harm among the half-educated Italian lower class. The *Passatore* is a very popular character, because a legend has grown up that he was the son of Pope Pius IX. and some duchess; and his career is therefore used to show the immorality of the Church and of the upper classes. He is credited with many remarkable exploits—some of them probably fictitious—such as the arrest of the Cardinal Legate at Bologna in his own house and the extortion of a large sum of money, and his capture of the Pope at Castel Gondolfo, through which he discovered his relationship and obtained a perpetual pardon for whatever crimes he might commit. One of his adventures, however, is undoubtedly true in the main, though some of the details are probably inaccurate, and is still the great story of these parts. The niece of the Austrian Field-Marshal Radetzky married an officer of high rank, and took a villa for the season not very far from here, in the neighborhood of the little town of Forlimpopoli. The Legate and other high personages from Bologna came on a visit; and it is even said that, in order to do honor to the Austrians, Cardinal Antonelli came on from Rome. The opera troupe then playing at Forli was induced to give a special representation in the theatre at Forlimpopoli, and as there were rumors of the presence of foreign princes incognito, all the great people of Forli drove out for the opera. The house was crammed. In the middle of "Lucia" the *Passatore* and some of his comrades suddenly appeared on the stage, and demanded not only all the money and jewels then in the theatre, but large sums besides. The alarm was general, but every door was shut and guarded by brigands, and people were obliged to return to their seats. More than this, all the gendarmes in the place had been arrested and confined in their barracks, and the city gates were guarded so that no messengers could be sent to other towns. After the harvest was reaped, the *Passatore* bade a polite good-night and disappeared, but it was not till early in the morning that the audience was allowed to disperse. This was the *Passatore's* last great achievement: soon after that he was tracked and killed. Portions of his band lingered on for a long time, making the roads unsafe, and in the first years after the unification of the country there was a temporary revival of brigandage, as I have said, on account of the cessation of smuggling. The last bandit of any note flourished for a few months in 1868 or 1869, a boy of nineteen of Ravenna called Gagino; a good-natured youth who cared only for the money he took, was always polite and civil—as I was assured by one of his victims—and paid the peasants whenever he found it necessary to levy their horses or carts. Since he was shot, brigandage has ceased, and the roads here are safer by night as by day than in the vicinity of most of our large towns.

Castrocaro abounds in dogs, of every breed, size, and color; and, on complaining of them one morning on account of their barking in the night, I was told that they were most important to the prosperity of the place, as they were all truffle-dogs. Not long after we were asked to subscribe for the benefit of a poor widow who had lost her only resource, a truffle dog, which she had refused to sell for twenty dollars, as he had brought her in more by being let out during the season. Here the breed of a dog counts for nothing, as it is simply a question of education. This is to a great extent true also in France, where truffles are collected more systematically and regularly, although pigs—and especially sows—are preferred in many regions. The pig hunts for the truffle with all the love of an epicure, and will eat it himself unless taught otherwise. With the dog, who would not think of eating the truffle, this is simply one kind of sport like another. Pigs, however, are so very sagacious and so easily taught to come to a point after they have uprooted the truffle, that it is easy to understand the preference given to them, for with a dog who can only indicate the place where the truffle is concealed it is necessary to dig until it be found, and this injures the root fibres of the oaks and other trees, among which the tubers are found, and has an effect on the crop for the next year. In this region truffles are chiefly found under old oak trees, and, as these are not too common here, in young oak plantations. No attempt has yet been made here to cultivate them artificially, and the methods of preserving this delicate fungus are so imperfect—olive oil being chiefly

used, and there being no regular provincial truffle-markets as in France—that in a good year a considerable portion of the crop is spoilt. The prevailing truffle is the *Tuber melanosporum*, the black truffle of Périgord, the great favorite in cookery. The summer truffle, the *Tuber Aestivum*, so common in France and not unknown in England, is rarely found here. Far more common is the white truffle, *Tuber magnatum*, the great delicacy of Piedmont and north Italy, which has a mingled odor of garlic, onions, high game, and old cheese.*

E. S.

Correspondence.

THE COLORED VOTE IN THE SOUTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Forum* for July, Senator (or, as you would say, Bill) Chandler reminds the people of the North of the suspension of the Constitution (or at least of its Fifteenth Amendment) in the States of the Solid South. He has not yet found a remedy for the evil; but, as he may find one hereafter, and in a certain contingency may induce the Fifty-first Congress to adopt it, I take the liberty of suggesting one phase of the question to him which he and most of his friends seem to have heretofore overlooked.

There is no doubt that in seven or eight of the Southern States enough of the negro vote to affect the result of State or Congressional elections is deliberately suppressed, not now by direct force, but by impressing the minds of colored voters and politicians that there is force in reserve when needed; and that organization, an active canvass, and full vote on the part of the colored men will not be permitted. Supposing, now, that a Republican majority should be returned to both houses of the next Congress, measures would undoubtedly be pressed to secure a full and free vote and "a fair count" to the Southern blacks. In the light of former experience we know that such measures would be futile; but let that pass. Let us suppose that force, intimidation, and bold frauds can be prevented by Federal law. What will you do about bribery?

In Kentucky there are about 50,000 or 60,000 colored voters. Nearly all of them claim to be Republicans. Outside of the three counties of Fayette, Jessamine, and Woodford, not the slightest attempt is made to suppress their votes or to count them out. At Presidential and State elections nearly all of them are polled for the Republican candidates. Nowhere do they vote more freely than in the city of Louisville. Two out of the seven Assembly districts regularly give Republican majorities *on the State ticket*. But they never do so when it comes to elect Assemblymen or city or county officials. And the reason is well understood. As the Democrats have never carried the State by less than 17,000 majority, they never spend a cent of money on their State or Electoral ticket. But as the Democratic candidates for the Assembly or the Council are "needed" by some of the great local corporations (for instance, the Gas Company), enough colored voters are bought up to secure the return of these candidates; the candidates for county offices do their own buying, hoping to be recouped out of the fees.

Now, should Senator Chandler succeed in what Senator Morton tried in vain to contrive—an effective Federal law for the prevention of "bulldozing" and of "tissue ballots"—he would still be confronted with a new difficulty: for not much more than two dollars apiece (to judge by Louisville prices) the Democrats of the cotton States could buy enough negro votes to secure themselves in the retention of their State governments. By introducing the secret "Australian ballot" in Congressional elections (which ought to be done anyhow), the use of bribery in the choice of Congressmen might be discouraged to some extent; but still it would be very easy to bribe the colored voter into withholding his ballot altogether. Here is a nut for Senator Chandler to crack.

Very truly, L. N. D.

Louisville, Ky., July 24, 1888.

THE DUTY ON NON-ENGLISH LITERATURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If there is one duty in the present tariff more absurd and unjust than another, it is the duty on books printed in foreign languages. Twenty-five per cent. is charged on all foreign books alike, whether they be in the English language, in German, French, Chinese, or Hottentot. From the point of view of protection, this duty protects nothing and nobody. We cannot foster a French literature, for instance, in this country by any amount of protection. There are no publishers or writers to be protected by any tariff of this kind.

As a measure for revenue, this tax is an imposition on all advanced science and learning in this country. The specialist, who is but too often a teacher dependent on a meagre salary, must buy French and German books in order to maintain his standing and keep up with his specialty; and, in addition to the regular cost of importation, he is required to pay a tax which is often prohibitive. Further, this tax falls heavily upon the increasing class of cultured people with short purses who take an interest in contemporary foreign literature. For a book whose *list price* in France is 3⅓ francs (67 cents), one must pay a dealer in this country $1.25. If the book were free of duty, the dealer, who can buy it in France at 40 per cent. discount, should make a fair profit by charging the American buyer about the equivalent of the foreign list price.

It is certainly worth while for legislators who desire to favor science, learning, and general culture to see that, if the duty on all books be not remitted, at least the books printed in foreign languages be allowed to enter this country free of duty. H. M. Stanley.

Lake Forest University, Lake Forest, Ill., July 26, 1888.

THE FENCE-WIRE INDUSTRY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have just read Mr. Stevenson's attempted defence of the duty on the raw material of fence wire. I have read it sitting in a farmhouse whose owner (the father of the writer) would be glad to use thousands of yards of wire fencing if it could be had at reasonable prices—say present rates minus 45 per cent., the amount of duty, according to Mr. Stevenson's figures. This farm is not an exception. There is scarcely a farm in the community which could not profitably use much more wire fencing if it were not so expensive. There is no one even superficially informed as to the condition of agriculture who does not know how severely the farming portion of our population is taxed to keep its fields well fenced.

Are 10,000 men engaged in making iron and steel for fencing? If Mr. Stevenson will take the pains to ride over such regions as eastern Ohio, Virginia, and West Virginia, he will find visible evidence that there is a much greater number engaged in futile attempts to preserve the growing crops from the depredations of unruly live stock by piling brush upon worn-out Virginia worm fences. The wearisome cry of "Cattle in the cornfield!" has come to the writer's ears more times than the moon has changed within the last six weeks. Give the farmers cheap fencing wire, and many more than 10,000 men will be put to work constructing fences. J. H. W.

LE CONTE'S EVOLUTION AND THEOLOGY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent, "W. M. S.," in his communication criticising Prof. Le Conte's recognition of the inequality in the rate of change which is perceptible at times in the progressive order of nature, asks "what consistent scientific meaning the word development (or evolution) can have when it is no longer antithetical" to such inequalities, asserts that "the whole effort of the evolutionary theory is to do away with breaks and leaps," and stigmatizes their recognition as going "into the old camp."

There are many theories of evolution, of varied quality, good and bad, but the passages cited indicate that the writer has something else in his mind than the theory of evolution accepted by scientific men. When, under certain conditions, gases form water, though the time of evolution is practically instantaneous and the physical properties of the product totally new, scientific evolutionists see no solution of continuity in the order of nature, nor does their theory receive a shock. That theory endeavors to offer an harmonious explanation of facts as they are observed, not to do away with inconvenient truth, and it knows nothing of "camps." A careful perusal of Prof. Le Conte's book, which a review can only very inadequately summarize, will probably assist "W. M. S." more effectually to the desired "clear thinking" than any explanations which might be offered by the Reviewer.

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will publish this fall the second and concluding volume of Prof. Chas. F. Richardson's 'American Literature (1607-1885)'; 'Essays on Practical Politics,' by Theodore Roosevelt; Moncure D. Conway's 'Omitted Chapters in History,' already announced; 'Christian Doctrine Harmonized,' by Prof. J. S. Kedney; 'Behind Closed Doors,' by Anna Katherine Green: 'The Story of Media, Babylon, and Persia,' by Z. A. Ragozin; 'The Story of Mediæval France,' by Gustav Masson; and 'The Story of Mexico,' by Miss Susan Hale.

Ticknor & Co. will shortly issue 'A Sea Change; or, Love's Stowaway,' a lyricated farce, by W. D. Howells; a new and enlarged edition of Edward Stanwood's valuable 'History of Presidential Elections'; 'Newspaper Libel: a Handbook for the Press,' by Samuel Merrill of the Boston *Globe;* and 'A Mexican Girl,' by Frederick Thickstun.

We learn from the *Library Journal* that Houghton, Mifflin & Co. expect to issue the five years' supplement to 'Poole's Index to Periodical Literature' in the latter part of September. It covers the years 1882–1886. Few persons have any adequate conception of the wide-

* For those who are interested in truffles I can recommend a very instructive and entertaining book, published among the recent issues of the "Bibliothèque Scientifique Contemporaine" (Paris: J. B. Baillière & Fils. 1888), 'La Truffe,' by Dr. C. de Ferry de la Bellone.

spread use of this invaluable work, or of the extent to which the trade in back numbers of periodicals has been revived by it and given stability.

Wm. S. Gottsberger publishes this week 'An Iceland Fisherman,' from the French of "Pierre Loti" by Clara Cadiot.

Worthington Co. have nearly ready 'Studies in Criticism,' by Florence Trail.

A 'Life of Grover Cleveland,' by Wm. O. Stoddard, is in the press of Frederick A. Stokes & Brother.

George Sherwood & Co., Chicago, publish directly 'The Virtues and their Reasons: a System of Ethics for Society and Schools,' by Austin Bierbower.

A school or home edition, for children, of Franklin's Autobiography, prepared by D. H. Montgomery, who has added notes and continued the life to the end, has been published by Ginn & Co., Boston. It is a pity that no mention is made of Franklin's closing efforts to effect the abolition of slavery through the Pennsylvania Society of which he became president.

The fourth volume of Browning's latest own edition of his 'Poetical Works' (Macmillan) contains a "A Blot in the 'Scutcheon," "Colombe's Birthday," and "Men and Women."

The Bancroft Co., San Francisco, publishes a little book by H. C. Sawyer, M.D., describing in popular language the condition known as 'Nerve-Waste.' It is loosely written, but without exaggeration, and, unlike so many professional books for the laity, it has no injurious tendency. The drift of its advice to the invalid is to seek advice—which is good counsel when wisely followed.

The sixth American edition of Tanner's 'Memoranda of Poisons,' a standard work, is well printed and conveniently arranged for physicians, to whom chiefly it is useful. A late edition should have some reference to the bad effects of cocaine when too long administered, and an American book might properly note the action of gelsemium (yellow jessamine) when accidentally administered.

"Two Art Critics" have published a skit under the title 'Pictures at Play' (Longmans, Green & Co.), with illustrations by Harry Furniss. It makes a pamphlet volume, and is the vehicle of satire on artists and statesmen, especially Mr. Gladstone, which is often more rollicking than pointed. It is a product of the London climate, true-blue, and of more interest to young British artists who are also Tories, than to any others.

Perhaps there is something in the present political condition of France to increase the popular interest in caricature, for half-a-dozen books about comic art have recently appeared in Paris. There is M. J. Grand-Carteret's substantial volume on 'Les Mœurs et la Caricature en France,' with its eight colored plates and its five hundred cuts scattered through the text. There is a new edition of the Goncourts' life of Gavarni, and there is a new life of Henri Daumier, the only French comic draughtsman of the century worthy to stand beside Gavarni. There is M. Champfleury's 'Musée Secret de la Caricature,' apparently the final volume of his series of books on comic art; and there is also 'Les Maîtres de la Caricature Française au XIXe siècle,' which the *Figaro* has patronized, and which Quantin has published almost simultaneously with the holding, in the spacious halls of the École des Beaux-Arts in Paris, of a loan exhibition of the works of the later French humorous artists. In this loan exhibition, as in the Quantin book, the honors are all with Gavarni and with Daumier. Many of the most interesting sketches shown at the Beaux-Arts are reproduced in the 'Maîtres de la Caricature': in each there were drawings by Victor Hugo, Gustave Doré, André Gill (a very funny Thiers as the 'Fille de Mme. Angot'), Cham, É. de Beaumont, and Traviès de Villers. There are reproductions of Daumier's four sketches likening Louis Philippe to a pear—although no single caricature of the French artist is quite as funny as Thackeray's drawing of the *décès-poire*. To the 'Maîtres de la Caricature Française' M. Armand Dayot contributes a prefatory notice of French caricature in this century—a notice both inadequate and stiff.

Everything from the pen of Dr. von Döllinger is welcome. The first volume of his 'Akademische Vorträge,' just published (Nördlingen, 1888), contains a dozen discourses delivered before the Akademie der Wissenschaften of Munich on various occasions between 1875 and 1887. Of some of them only condensed reports have hitherto been printed; others the author has expanded into essays, and the reader of history will be glad to have them collected and preserved in their present attractive shape. The subjects show the wide extent of Döllinger's intellectual range. The Importance of Dynasties in the World's History; The House of Wittelsbach and its Importance in German History; The Relations between the City of Rome and Mediæval Germany; Dante as a Prophet; The Struggle of Germany under Ludwig of Bavaria with the Papacy; Aventinus and his Age; The Influence of Greek Literature and Culture on Mediæval Europe; The Origin of the Eastern Question; The Jews in Europe; The Political and Spiritual Development of Spain; The Policy of Louis XIV.; Madame de Maintenon — these are nearly all subjects of first-rate importance, and worthy of the author's vast and accurate learning. His clearness of vision and honest impartiality secure the reader's fullest confidence, while his simple and straightforward style renders the discourses most agreeable reading.

From A. H. Smythe, Columbus, Ohio, we have a pamphlet description of 'The Battle of Gettysburg,' by Alfred E. Lee. What gives this publication any special distinction is the twenty full-page nature prints of the Ohio memorials on the great battle-field. A more extraordinary collection of bad monuments it would be hard to find—except, perhaps, on other parts of the same field. Barely one or two are tolerable to an eye not wholly blind to beauty.

'The Tariff Question' brochure which issues from the office of *Puck*, and which combines cartoons (reduced in scale) and the habitually sensible and forcible editorial accompaniment, is well calculated to further that journal's steady propaganda on behalf of good government. It is free from anything objectionable on the score of taste, and deserves to be widely circulated.

Mr. Lowell's address on "The Independent in Politics" is now accessible in a variety of forms—first in the bound volume of his political essays just issued by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., then separately, as one of the Messrs. Putnam's "Questions of the Day" series (No. 48), and finally as the first of the Reform Club Series of this city.

The Reform Club has begun, at 52 William St., the publication of a semi-monthly journal of handy dimensions called *Tariff Reform*.

The *Public Service Review*, whose publication office is 83 Nassau St., having completed its first year as a weekly newspaper, now turns monthly, and presents in its first (July) number a model of typographical comeliness embalming much interesting matter.

The *Journal of Pedagogy*, published at Athens, O., is to be enlarged in its second volume, and appears to have justified its foundation.

"An American Statesman" is the title of a sketch of Henry Clay contributed to the *Deutsche Rundschau* for July by Anton E. Schönbach. It is an intelligent and interesting, though necessarily brief, review of the principal political questions of Clay's times, showing his position on each of them. The writer exhibits a familiarity not merely with his subject, but with our current American politics. He closes, for instance, a paragraph on Clay's part in the division of the surplus among the States with a warning against those politicians (he carefully distinguishes between politicians and statesmen) who, notwithstanding the fact that "those unfortunate financial operations serve clearly and distinctly as a frightful example," wish, for the sake of winning the favor of the masses, to carry now the same measures. The article gives no personal incidents in Clay's life, but confines itself to his political career, closing with a warm eulogium of his latest biographer, Carl Schurz, who by this work has a new claim upon the gratitude of "his second fatherland." While regretting his loss to Germany, the writer consoles himself with the reflection that it is her mission and destiny to send forth men "who have devoted their highest powers to the upbuilding of a foreign State."

The principal paper in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for July is by Dr. John Murray, "On the Effects of Winds on the Distribution of Temperature in the Sea and Fresh-Water Lochs of the West of Scotland." It is accompanied by numerous tables of observations and charts so colored as to show the temperature at various depths in the different seasons, and is intended to uphold the theory that the prevailing winds of the globe, together with temperature and evaporation, "are chiefly concerned in the production of ocean currents." He calls attention, however, to the fact that Mr. Alexander Agassiz, in his 'Three Cruises of the *Blake*,' does not consider the winds a sufficient cause for existing currents. Incidentally, he strongly opposes the proposed prohibition of certain kinds of fishing, especially beam-trawling, on the ground that it has not been proved to be so destructive to the fish as has been claimed, and that many men, therefore, would be thrown out of work "because it pleases the State to make an idle experiment." Mr. Henry M. Cadell treats of the "Utilization of Waste Lands," having especial reference to Scotland. The causes for this condition he classifies as follows: human improvidence, poverty of soil, dense vegetation, slight submergence, drifting sand, and want of soil; and suggests remedies in all cases, naturally excepting the last.

Dr. Heinrich Kiepert has compiled a map of Asia Minor in twenty-four sheets, which he withholds from publication pending a contemplated journey to that region for the sake of final revisions. He complains with justice of the refusal of the British War Office to allow him the use of its military topographical reconnoissances in the eastern part of the peninsula, which were to see the light "in due time." He intimates that the secrecy observed has reference to some future collision with Russia, who, Dr. Kiepert remarks, is probably by no means dependent for her knowledge of Asia Minor on British information. The large map in question has been used as the basis (by reduction) of a wall-map of ancient Asia Minor in six sheets (Berlin: Dietrich Reimer). It is needless to say that the latter becomes at once of the highest authority. Every known resource has been availed of in its preparation, down to the

travels of Ramsay and Sterrett. Ramsay's discoveries have enabled Dr. Kiepert to lay down the whole of Cn. Manlius Vulso's campaigns against the Galatians in 189 B. C., in elucidation of Livy's narrative. Only the beginnings of the Anabases of Cyrus the younger and Alexander are shown.

The same eminent geographer and publisher have produced a wall-map of ancient Latium, in four sheets, with a side-map of the territory contiguous to Rome. Here the modern names accompany the ancient. Assistance in the study of Livy has been especially kept in view. Curiously enough, this publication has been induced by the fact that a similar map of Kiepert's, compiled forty years ago, is still marketed, and his only method of suppressing is by supplanting it. The physical groundwork is of course vastly improved. Elevations are everywhere indicated.

—*Scribner's* for August continues the railroad papers, which are its leading feature, with a fully illustrated article upon Locomotives and Cars, in which that branch of the business is treated with more adequacy than the narrow limits of the writer would have led one to expect. The history of the development of the modern engine and car out of such rude originals as these cuts show us once in use on the old Baltimore road, is followed out with some lack of system, but with sufficient continuity, and the exhibition of the different kinds of locomotives now made and of the methods of their construction is altogether admirable. On the whole, Mr. Forney has grappled with a difficult subject very successfully, and he has been much aided by the many admirable illustrations accompanying the text. Prof. Shaler contributes a new chapter of the "Earth's Surface," dealing this time with the character and history of river valleys in his accustomed graphic vein, and with the outlook he always keeps upon practical matters. He utilizes his present opportunity by urging once more on public attention the plan of regulating the overflow of the flood-waters by means of a system of a very large number of small reservoirs to receive the spring surplus, and to release it slowly through the summer months; the project has been fully explained before. The remainder of the number is occupied with summer fiction of a kind to pass the time without too much weariness of the intellect. Mr. Stevenson winds up with a well-told adventure of his tramping days in France, in which he has free play for the most entertaining and attractive qualities of his style.

—*Harper's* is not remarkable for any special feature in this month's issue. There is a falling-off, even, in Mr. Warner's studies of Western cities, the sketches of Cincinnati and Louisville being destitute of color and of that larger interest, beyond the specifications of the guide-book, which was noticeable in the author's writings about the Northwest. Mr. Conway's "Chiswick Ramble" is most agreeable to read, but the ground is a well-beaten one, and Hogarth is a name that has been used to conjure with very often. The paper on the Montagnais, a tribe of Indians not far from the Saguenay, is also excellent in its own way; this tribe, however, has no special character to make it an object of unusual curiosity. In the lack of literary matter, Mr. Abbey's illustrations of the ballad of "The Leather Bottel" rise to the dignity of an article. Both he and Mr. Parsons, in his illustrations of Wordsworth's sonnets, have struck inexhaustible veins. Mr. Hoxie's account of the Holstein-Frisian cattle appeals to a somewhat narrow audience. The conclusion of Rider Haggard's novelette shows, happily, how near he is getting to the end of his run; but it is rather the second "West Indies" paper of Lafcadio Hearn, with its color-symphonies, its smouldering sensualism, and its other affectations and incompetencies, that touches low-water mark. Having mentioned so many second-rate or worse contributions, we will not be so unfair as to leave Mr. Childs's sketch of Botticelli unnamed. In fact, this number is abandoned to "the magazinist" to an unusual degree.

—The Lick Observatory is soon to have a rival nearly 1,000 feet higher than Mount Hamilton, and situated in Colorado, at an elevation of 5,000 feet above sea level. Mr. H. B. Chamberlin, of Denver, provides the funds for its erection; and the main instrument will be a twenty-inch telescope, a size quite sufficient for nineteen-twentieths of all astronomical work, and much less unwieldy than the great Lick telescope with a thirty-six-inch lens, and a tube nearly sixty feet long. The new observatory will be attached to the University of Denver, and its director will be Prof. H. A. Howe, formerly of Cincinnati, who is now in the Eastern States on a tour of inspection of the principal observatories before building his own. It is to be hoped that the provision of ample endowment for its maintenance has engaged the attention of the University, since there is no end to the excellent work which good observers can do in a climate astronomically so fine as that in the mountains of Colorado. Men cannot, however, even for the sake of a favorite science, live up in the mountains year in and year out with little or nothing. Provision for active maintenance is of equal importance with the building and equipment of such an institution.

—On June 1, the Lick Trustees formally made over their Observatory to the University of California, in accordance with the provision of the will of the donor. The President of the Trustees, Capt. Floyd, being necessarily absent on the occasion, through ill health, it was a fitting time to recount the great service he has rendered to American astronomy in his wise management of the affairs of the Observatory for a period of twelve years. To him more than to any other is due the successful realization of the first mountain observatory. It is most unfortunate that so little of the original bequest should remain for a permanent endowment; but it would seem that the management of the institution is not thereby to be greatly hampered, as the State apparently fully appreciates the gift of Mr. Lick, and is abundantly able to care for it properly. Great preparations have been made for visitors to the Observatory, and freer access is allowed than to any like institution in the world, it is said. The buildings are opened to visitors during office hours every day in the year, and on Saturday nights, between the hours of seven and ten, views of the heavenly bodies through the great telescope will be permitted. It is to be hoped that the Director's request to be allowed the uninterrupted use of the telescopes at all other times will be strictly regarded.

—'The Early History of the English Woollen Industry,' by W. J. Ashley (Publications of the American Economic Association, vol. ii, No. 4) "deals with a strictly limited subject: it does not, save incidentally, touch the history of the raw material, its production, quality, and price; nor that of the finished article after it has passed into the hands of the dealers. It is with the intermediate stages that we are here concerned —the position, organization, relations among themselves of those actually engaged in the manufacture." On the whole, the author has done his work very well. He deserves particular credit for his skilful grouping of well-known facts regarding the development of English industry in general; and, above all, for his clear exposition of the relations between the various bodies of artisans and merchants engaged in the English woollen trade and industry of the Middle Ages. His most serious error is the acceptance of Brentano's theory that the banding together of craftsmen in English towns was a revolutionary movement; frequent conflicts occurring between them and a "burgher oligarchy," from whose privileges they were excluded (pp. 18-25). The fact is, that in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries the government of most English towns was in the hands of the burgesses at large, who consisted, in no small part, of craftsmen. Mr. Ashley is also guilty of a sin of omission in not speaking, even incidentally, of the decay of many large towns in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, owing, in great part, to the transfer of the woollen industry from the old privileged boroughs to the open country and to smaller "free-trade" towns.

—Mr. Ashley's 'Introduction to English Economic History and Theory' (London: Rivingtons. 1888. Pp. xiii, 227) is divided into three chapters—The Manor and the Village Community, Merchant and Craft Guilds, Economic Theories and Legislation—each chapter being preceded by a brief account of the authorities consulted. The volume before us deals with the period extending from the eleventh to the fourteenth century, and constitutes Book I. of the whole work. Each chapter by itself forms a distinct essay. Nevertheless, all three chapters are organically connected, representing three stages of economic development. The first deals with the agricultural or village economy; the second, with the trade or town economy; the third, with the preparations for a national economy through the teachings of the Church and the regulative measures of the State. Hence in this last chapter such subjects as the history of currency, usury, weights and measures, etc., are discussed. In the first two chapters the "spontaneous" economic development of the village and the town is traced; the third chapter shows "how the forces of Church and State took hold of the growing society, and attempted to control its activity." As in his 'Early History of the Woollen Industry,' so in this volume, Mr. Ashley's central idea concerning the general development of municipal government is erroneous. Generally speaking, English towns were not, as he asserts in chapter ii, governed by an oligarchic Gild Merchant, which excluded the plebeian craftsmen from participation in the municipal privileges until they threw off the yoke of their oppressors. The whole of this chapter would have been greatly improved if the author had consulted more of the literature relating to particular towns. Among his sources, those pertaining to London figure too prominently, while those pertaining to provincial towns are not conspicuous enough—a prevailing weakness of writers on English economic history. But the purely economic portions of his work are excellent. The author's reading is extensive, and the presentation of his facts is always lucid. He has brought together in this small volume a large amount of information hitherto not easily accessible.

—The recent celebration of the eighth centenary of the University of Bologna has, according to Italian papers, been followed in Pisa by a postlude of strangely mediæval character. The fancy of the student delegates from Pisa was struck, it seems, by the histori-

cal red, blue, and green Faculty caps worn by the Bolognese students during the festival, and superinduced a transplantation of the academic "colors," in this form, to Pisa. This innovation, for some reason, engendered the animosity of the Pisan populace. A secret and formal garrote was organized to suppress the offensive distinction between town and gown, and injuries of the students by the midnight dagger of the conspirators became a common occurrence. Latterly, the narrow escape from stabbing of a student named Fori provoked the agitation of a wholesale exodus on the part of the objects of the inexplicable popular feeling. Such an outcome of the inefficiency of the municipal authorities, besides threatening the Philistine world of Pisa with a serious loss of income, began to endanger the future of the University itself. Luckily, Minister of Instruction Coppino was induced by a telegram from the University authorities to bring about the adoption of special measures not unlike the "small state of siege" which is occasionally decreed in Continental cities. Nocturnal patrols by the military, and the so far fruitless activity of a corps of Government detectives, are its chief features. The students have been authorized to carry arms until quiet reigns again. Actually, however, large numbers of the students have shaken the dust of Pisa from their indignant feet, and betaken themselves to other schools where they have reason to believe they can wear their colored *birette* free from molestation. They go mainly, of course, to Bologna.

—The principal literary article of the current number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* is an essay by P. de Nolhac on Erasmus's sojourn in Italy, 1506–1509, based upon a number of inedited letters of his discovered by chance in the Vatican. In 1506, Erasmus, now in his fortieth year, was residing in London. Of his great works, only the first edition of the 'Adagia' had appeared. Thrice he had been on the point of going to Italy to study Greek, but each time circumstances had interfered. In 1506, Baptista Boyer, the Genoese physician of Henry VII., wishing to send his two sons to Italy to complete their education, offered the position of tutor to Erasmus. He accepted, and his journey was fraught with the most important consequences. After a brief sojourn at the University of Bologna, he was obliged, by the advance of the army of Pope Julius II., to take refuge in Florence, where he met Machiavelli. On his return to Bologna, he was again compelled to flee—this time by the outbreak of the pestilence. By this date he had revised and enlarged the 'Adagia.' In 1508, he went to Venice at the invitation of his publisher, Aldus, who promised to show him new manuscripts and to introduce him to the greatest Greek scholars of Italy. Venice was then in its glory. At the end of eight months, Erasmus went to Padua as tutor to Alexander Stewart, the natural son of James IV. of Scotland. Soon the League of Cambray drove the student thence, and after a brief sojourn at Ferrara, the court of Lucrezia Borgia, Erasmus arrived at Rome in the early part of 1509. Here he met Egidio di Viterbo, general of the Augustinian order, Tomasso Inghirami, "the Cicero of his age," Cardinal Giovanni de' Medici, afterwards Pope Leo X., whom Erasmus always regarded with esteem, and perhaps Raphael. He saw the foundation of the Church of St. Peter, the bull-fights, which he stigmatizes as a relic of barbarism, and the Laocoon, lately unearthed at the baths of Titus. In 1509, declining a tempting offer from Cardinal Grimani, Erasmus returned to England by way of the Splügen, the Rhine Valley, and Flanders. Henry VIII., his patron, had just ascended the throne. The result of his Italian journey is evident in the 'Praise of Folly.' The refinement of his satire and the excellence of his Latin style are the fruits of a three years' sojourn among the most cultured people of Europe. But there was a still more important result: the near and clear view of the Italian clergy which he had taken, satisfied him that they were not as corrupt as Luther painted them. This fact, and the close relations with prominent Italians which he maintained through life, kept Erasmus from joining the great Protestant when the latter passed out of the Roman Catholic fold.

HENRY H. RICHARDSON.

Henry Hobson Richardson and His Works. By Mrs. Schuyler Van Rensselaer. With a portrait and illustrations of the architect's designs. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888.

It is difficult to judge how far the reputation of a professional man extends outside the circle of his profession and clients; but in Richardson's case it is clear that his work carried his name with it far beyond this circle, and that his reputation may fairly be called national. This is an entirely new phenomenon with us, and the wonder is that any architect should have won such a reputation; for Americans, though they build a great many buildings, have on the whole very little interest in their architectural quality. But Richardson's uncommon personality so embodied itself in his works that they will not be overlooked any more than would his own presence. We have heard a friend who made the tour of Europe with him say that wherever he was, he seemed to pervade and possess his whole surrounding, not by arrogance or a domineering instinct, but simply by virtue of the fulness of the life in him. This life showed itself in an inexhaustible energy, in an enthusiasm more genial than combative, not headlong, but sustained, so abounding and at times vehement that few men and few bodies of men could resist it. Add to this, unfaltering convictions, with a mental grasp which seized instinctively the essentials of the matter before him, and an unlimited power of work, and we have a man admirably efficient for the open field of his profession. It was first as a man among men that his personal power asserted itself. It would have made him conspicuous as a politician or an advocate, no less than as an architect. We have heard him say that the famous students' rebellion against Viollet-le-Duc in the Ecole des Beaux-Arts was planned in his rooms at Paris, though it is likely enough that as a foreigner he took no active part in it. Without these gifts of character and the power they gave him, neither talent nor training would have secured him the success he won, but, having all together, he was irresistible. A public official once exclaimed, after Richardson had battled tenaciously half a day for some unacceptable project: "Mr. Richardson, I do not know whether it is conviction or fascination, but I yield to you."

As with the man, so with his work; wherever it is, it challenges notice, and not because it is designed in a style which was new in this country, but because of its largeness, singleness of effect, and vigor. The general impression of Richardson probably is that he had an enormous practice, and that almost all his buildings were large and important; but plenty of architects in the country have in this respect far outdone him. The list of his works given by Mrs. Van Rensselaer, which she believes to be complete, counts only eighty buildings, distributed over twenty years of practice. A few of these were actually designed by Mr. Gambrill during their partnership, and nearly twenty were left for Richardson's successors to finish—some not fairly begun. It was not till the last six years of his practice that commissions came to him in any considerable number, and even then only half as fast as to some of his fellows. There are among his works half-a-dozen churches, but only one on a conspicuous scale. There are a number of libraries, railway stations, and municipal buildings, but, with one or two exceptions, they are not large. Hundreds of such buildings are going up all over the country without attracting attention. Among the whole eighty, the only buildings which by their own conditions are of noteworthy importance, are Trinity Church (Boston), the Capitol at Albany, the Albany City Hall, the Pittsburgh county buildings, and the Cincinnati Chamber of Commerce. Among these, only fragments of the Capitol are from Richardson's designs; he did not live to see the Pittsburgh buildings finished, nor the Chamber of Commerce begun. This is not a large showing. There are architects among us who build public buildings by the dozen and churches by the score. The importance of Richardson's works is the importance which he has put into them, not that of their number or of their size.

It is likely that their small number enhanced the quality of his designs, for the work of the very busy architect is apt to deteriorate. It is easy to point out architects whose early successes showed great promise, but whose talent has been swamped in the multitude of its creations. In no art is facility more dangerous; but there is nothing facile in Richardson's work. He was apparently one of the artists who, as Hamerton says, produce work of the best quality, but have not the power of improvisation. The faculty of instantaneous execution, which has so great a charm in painting that many painters value it above all others, is more convenient than vital in architectural design. Instead of it, Richardson had what are far more valuable to the architect—unusual strength of conception, and a critical faculty that never tired. Starting from a clear idea, tenaciously held, his designs evolved their form through a series of approximations. On the other hand, if facility is dangerous to an architect, fumbling is fatal; but Richardson did not fumble. The final result usually had the decision and the unity of an idea spontaneously expressed, added to the quiet strength of deliberate conviction. The process was often laborious: he never spared labor. It had its inconvenience for his client, and would have been dangerous, perhaps fatal, to his practice but for his rare power of commanding the client's trust and patience. He spent thrice the strength on his work that an average architect would have given it, and often thrice the time; but the result was apt to be three times as good.

The outcome of all this was extreme independence of architectural fashion. Every undertaking was to him a new problem, to be solved at first hand. If the solutions were not always happy, they were always direct, consistent, and interesting. When they failed, it was because some elements of the problem were overlooked. A man of less power would have failed disastrously in this independent effort; a man of less training would have run into every extravagance of design. Pupilage in the French school and some years of work in the offices of Hittorff and Labrouste had taught him what design was, and given him the power to use

architectural forms safely. When he came to his own work, and, like almost all Americans who have studied architecture in Paris, abjured the style in which he had been trained, he had to find a style—that is to say, a harmonious mode of expression for his ideas. How lame his first utterance was for want of this, his first church at Springfield shows, in which, though the composition is excellent, the details are not only ungrammatical, but inelegant and inharmonious. He once said, we are told, that if he could arrange the massing of a design, any one might arrange the detail. To this he never could really have consented, yet his earlier works show more or less in their detail the handling of the clever assistants who worked under him, and with some detriment to the unity of the whole. But as his style shaped itself, his control extended through the whole work, and Mrs. Van Rensselaer's story shows how he wrought it out to the end through the hands and brains of others.

Richardson was eclectic, but with the eclecticism of a man in whom the sense of style was always dominant, whose convictions were positive and permanent. He found a Romanesque style which was peculiarly suited to his mode of design—a style in which the detail was most definitely subordinated to mass and surface. Simple forms underlay his designs. He never forgot the value of a right angle or a round curve—elements of design which he found almost contemptuously neglected: the square and the circle, the most vigorous of elementary motives, were his favorites. He delighted in broad surface, subdued richness, and restrained emphasis. His use of these things was a revelation to younger architects. He found American architecture in the *Sturm und Drang* period, given over in great part to violent striving—restless, incoherent, and exuberant. His example has gone far to turn it back to simplicity and quiet design, an influence for which we cannot be too thankful. It is not easy to imitate the best qualities of Richardson's work, to repeat its vigor, its restrained animation, the beauty of its proportion and adjustment, the artistic charm of its ornamental handling; but the experience of many imitators shows how easily its obvious qualities can be caught. He had his excesses, and his imitators have no difficulty in outdoing him in a baldness or uncouth roughness which were his occasional faults, but not his characteristics. Indeed, there is some color for the complaint of a brother architect that if Richardson's influence should last for a generation, there would not be a man left in the country who could design a moulding. But Richardson was always an artist, and his decorative feeling, preferring surface ornament to lines and mouldings, asserted itself in a refinement in which only an artist could follow him, and which gained as he developed.

Mrs. Van Rensselaer's biography has the qualities which come from a bright mind and a practised pen. It is rather sisterly than judicial in tone; and this makes her presentation of the man himself none the less interesting or valuable. The account of his works is full and long — too long, we should think, for the average reader, and not precise enough or detailed enough for the professional. The criticism is that of the intelligent layman, somewhat tinctured with the doctrinaire maxims of the day, and accented here and there with a technical phrase. The book is issued from the Riverside Press in an *édition de luxe* quite in keeping with its subject—a large quarto, or perhaps folio, of heavy paper, ample margin, and abundant illustrations—of which only five hundred copies are printed. The illustrations are heliotypes from the buildings themselves, or reproductions of the drawings in Richardson's office, and are very well executed. Naturally, the selection is limited by what was available, and we miss some things that we should have liked to see, especially plans and sections to illustrate the heliotypes; but enough are given to show well Richardson's characteristics. The work, we are told, is a memorial of personal regard, not a publisher's venture, and it is one to be grateful for, though it cannot reach a large circle of readers. Now that it has once been issued, it would be possible to republish it in simpler form at a quarter of the cost, and in that way it might come into the hands of the younger generation of architects, to whom it would be most valuable.

RECENT NOVELS.

Monsieur Motte. By Grace King. A. C. Armstrong & Son.

A Nymph of the West. By Howard Seely. D. Appleton & Co.

A Débutante in New York Society. By Rachel Buchanan. D. Appleton & Co.

The Manuscript Found in a Copper Cylinder. Harper & Bros.

A Teacher of the Violin, and Other Tales. By J. H. Shorthouse. Macmillan & Co.

In the history of American fiction nothing is more interesting than the appearance within half-a-dozen years of a host of Southern writers. They have not worked slowly upward from the rank and file, but rushed to the front and won the prize of public favor almost without a struggle. Uncritical readers have devoured everything descriptive of distinctively Southern scenes, life, and character, and professed critics seem to have agreed to declare each new-born Southern story-teller to be the greatest living master of his art. One need not go far to find an explanation of this spontaneous movement towards expression in fiction extending over a third of the Union, nor to arrive at the cause of equally spontaneous homage. The Southerners of this generation have innumerable stories to tell, and the public never fails to detect the presence or absence of that fundamental requirement for good story-telling. It needs but little imagination for a Southerner to tell a tale of hearts broken and homes laid waste, thus securing for an audience the whole comfortable world, ever eager to share through the emotions those tragic experiences in which it has no actual part. But the tenderness of the critics is decidedly more mysterious. Perhaps it may be accounted for most easily by supposing that they were getting tired of abetting the Northern realists in their efforts to show how, in fiction at least, something can be made out of nothing, and shamelessly seized the first chance offering to stand for opinions more rationally tenable. It is questionable whether either a chorus of condemnation or columns of discriminating analysis would have greatly benefited the young Southern writers; but there is no doubt that injudicious, extravagant praise has done them much harm.

The author of 'Monsieur Motte,' we hasten to say, has learned to write with the force, precision, and grace which make style, and which are qualities indispensable for the attainment of rank in the literature of any language. She lapses occasionally into floridity and extravagance, but, for the most part, her language is singularly pure, conveying her thought with perfect lucidity, and describing her scenes with the least effort and the greatest vividness. She totally discards the dialects, verbal corruptions, jargon, which have been reproduced or invented by her confrères with such astonishing facility. She sketches phases of creole life in Louisiana in easily intelligible English, relying for her local color on careful description, and on a thoughtful and sympathetic interpretation of the spirit of a race which she thoroughly understands. Her people speak an English which is French in idiom and incisive brevity, but which, instead of tormenting the reader, enables him to realize their passion, their piquancy, their folly and simplicity, as formal English never could. It helps him to love them and their surroundings, as one cannot read 'Monsieur Motte' without feeling that the author does with all her heart. The book has a personality, and a rarely versatile and charming one. It is strong and tender, merry and sad, refined, yet not falsely delicate or squeamish. It has, above all, that preëminent feminine grace which women so seldom bear with them into the kingdom of letters. The whole story of the quadroon Marcilite's devotion to Marie Motte quivers with passion. It is the passion of half-savage humanity unrestrained by reason. Yet it is womanly to the depths. Nourrice, who recognizes her young master at a ball, and claims his protection, is a hag, yet instinctive loathing for her personality disappears before a compassion, excited by the author's profound tenderness, for a woman born with a social system against her and literally predestined to degradation. Both of these women are drawn with a man's courage, and with that understanding of her own sex which, when possessed at all by a woman, is infinitely more searching than the cleverest man's guesswork. They are women *au fond* as well as superficially, and so are all their sisters of higher degree with whom, as the story progresses, we become more or less intimate. Marie Modeste Motte and her friends, old or young, are not the women of the North, of the colleges, of a generation or two of intellectual cultivation and of struggle with life. They are whimsical, impulsive, fine-mannered gentlewomen. Their only conception of woman's mission is to make herself agreeable, to say enough prayers to save the souls of the men of her family, and, without undue exertion, to "give birth to the mercy of Heaven descending on earth." Not the smallest part of Miss King's success is to have shown them fulfilling this mission so charmingly that it assumes positive dignity and unparalleled importance.

The South has not been permitted to monopolize the attraction of jargon in fiction. The West competes closely, and is, indeed, the land of the "dialect story's" birth. Besides, the West has the advantage of the cowboy, who seems to talk and to behave with a boundless liberty of coarseness, which, by comparison, makes the negro or poor white appear a person of some culture and elegance. It has come to pass that the cowboy spirit pervades Western fiction, and that in most of it the degradation of life is reflected in that of language. 'A Nymph of the West' is a poetical title. It suggests the sweetness and fairness of the flowering meads of May; its sound invites fine fancies like the

> "—noise of a hidden brook
> In the leafy month of June,
> That to the sleeping woods all night
> Singeth a quiet tune."

Several descriptions of Texan scenery occurring in the volume are not without poetical quality, but, for the rest, it is a triumphant specimen of the cowboy school of fiction. The cowboy, in his palmy days, the days of his remoteness and blessed unfamiliarity, was a most picturesque figure. Riding straight in his stir-

rups, chasing down an horizon ever retreating, slinging his lariat with free grace and exquisite precision, he stirred a thrill of admiration in the tamest breast. If we cared to reflect on him at all, there was no reason why we should not endow him with every heroic virtue. But the realistic novelists have changed all that. They have brought him into nearer view, and made cowboy synonymous with a bar-room loafer who swaggers detestably, and always keeps his six-shooter cocked. All the people in 'A Nymph of the West' are latter-day cowboys. The Nymph herself is one not in the least disguised by petticoats; her wretched old father is another, temporarily incapacitated for active business by excessive drinking of whiskey. In this sort of fiction, it may be remarked that the only daughter is always lovely and innocent in proportion to the debasement of the parents. The Nymph's tenderfoot lover, Bruce, is, in the beginning, a sort of cowboy page, but soon wins his spurs by shooting his man at sight. The early chapters are comparatively devoid of incident, so we have leisure thoroughly to familiarize ourselves with the Nymph's domestic life, and with the grammatical eccentricities of herself, her family, and visitors. At the ball given after a round-up, the fun begins. Pistols are more plentiful than fans, and the Sheriff's arrest of a horse-thief warms up the revel. The ball brings in its train several events which show how ruinous to military discipline is residence within the cowboy belt, and how fatally it affects the legal mind and the methods of administering justice laid down by statute.

It is just after this ball that Bruce shoots an irreclaimable blackguard, who is also a captain in the United States Army. Conscious of dazzling rectitude, the murderer delivers himself to justice, and is confined in the jail at the post. The soldiers of the defunct captain's company assault the jail, demanding the body of the tenderfoot, and incidentally shooting a horse-thief. None of the officers pay any attention to this apparently trifling infringement of discipline, and Bruce, the Sheriff, and the jail are saved from annihilation only by the opportune arrival of an irresponsible band, whooped on to the rescue by the Nymph, mounted on a cow-pony. Escaping from an infuriated soldiery, Bruce faces the majesty of the civil law. With an unlimited quantity of free whiskey, his friends proceed to corrupt the whole town from which a jury is to be impanelled, and in this transaction Bruce, the impeccable, is not idle. The trial being fairly begun, the prisoner's counsel rises and submits: "That the gravity of the indictment necessitates that this court adjourn and take a drink." The proposition is at once acceded to, and when all concerned are more drunk than sober, the trial moves rapidly on to an acquittal. The only reason for referring at length to such episodes is, that so many people are apparently blind to their essential coarseness and depravity, and find them profoundly humorous. The author's attitude towards them is decidedly hilarious. There is no evidence that he perceives the shamefulness of life where such scenes are possible, but every indication of delight in its shamelessness.

To comprehend what a wonderful, baffling, and big subject for contemplation American society really is, one need only make a leap from Texas to New York, from 'A Nymph of the West' to 'A Débutante in New York Society.' Generalization becomes an awful impossibility, and preconceived opinions are scattered to the winds. The 'Débutante' is a serious and instructive work. It is revolutionary, too. Hitherto, our novelists have led us to believe that the existence of a rich, American young girl is comparable for happiness only to that of a Peri in Paradise. In the 'Débutante' we discover what rank nonsense the novelists have been treating us to. The author speaks with so much authority, and displays such knowledge of her subject in detail, that there is nothing to do but to denounce her predecessors as empirical, and to pledge ourselves to the cause of the oppressed young girl. A philanthropist out of employment could not do better than originate a society for the relief of our débutantes from the slavery of social usages, more especially from the thraldom of mothers. The extinction of mothers might be advocated, with exception in favor of mothers who are not "bornées." Being *bornée* was the head and front of the Débutante's mother's offending. If the Débutante had been Althea to whom Lovelace sang:

> "Stone walls do not a prison make,
> Nor iron bars a cage,"

she would have answered cordially: "No indeed. At least, not in comparison with my mother's palatial residence on Fifth Avenue. How could the innocent and quiet mind 'take such a dungeon as this for its heritage'? It is exactly on the innocent and quiet mind that all the tortures are brought to bear. That is just what I had when my unnatural mother 'brought me out.' And now, stop singing, Lovelace, and listen while I try to recount my woes unutterable."

The Débutante pours out her lamentations in forty-five letters. She takes herself for a person of rare qualities, stunted—almost blighted—by the frightful conditions of her birth. She knows that, in spite of her mother, she has exalted virtues, hers by inheritance from an excellent and adorable father who always addresses his wife as "Madam." It is a pity that she could not have been more explicit about the virtues, for they were splendid capital. They brought every man whom she met to her feet, and finally provided her with a husband of that incomparable pattern which Nature makes but once, then throws away the mould. To the critical it appears that the gods surely denied the Débutante the gift of seeing herself as others see her. She is inordinately vain and superficial, knowing nothing of human nature from experience and having no intuitions; her judgments are harsh and false. The object of her lengthy recital is obviously not to entertain, for who, except a *bornée* mother, could enjoy endless iteration of miseries? We cannot get rid of the suspicion that the underlying motive is to instruct outer barbarians in matters of etiquette and deportment, and to let the world know how thoroughly a few New Yorkers understand "what's what and who's who," socially speaking. The vulgarest person who studies the volume can hereafter make no mistake about so serious a matter as the meaning of a bouquet sent by a young man to a young woman every Sunday morning; he will invariably speak of a very rich man as *richissime;* he will perceive that there is a distinction somewhere in the use of the words "present" and "introduce," though he can't help sharing the author's uncertainty; but he will continue for ever to say that he "is pleased" when he means that he "is glad." There is no kind of fiction so silly or so profitless as this. Most of the kind are at once offensive and ridiculous, but the 'Débutante' is only tiresome, crude, and very "fresh."

It is said that 'The Manuscript Found in a Copper Cylinder' was written long before Rider Haggard's star rose on the literary horizon. The author is therefore exonerated from suspicion of plagiarism. Yet the adventures of the sailor cast away near the Antarctic circle have a close resemblance to those of Mr. Haggard's heroes. His boat is borne through a crevasse in the ice-wall, swept by a swift, black current past violently eruptive volcanoes, past desolate shores, and, at last, through that invaluable underground river, into an open sea surrounded by cultivated lands. This is necessarily the home of a strange people, and there is considerably more originality and humor in their strangeness than in any of Mr. Haggard's inventions. They live in caverns, loving the six months of darkness, and shunning the equal period of light. To be a pauper among them is to be great, and the severest punishment is to have riches and honors lavished on one. A man who will take all he can get is punished without cessation. Life is a curse to the Kosekin, and death a joy. It is extremely difficult to get any one to consent to live to maturity. They told the castaway plainly that since he protested that he loved riches and life and requited love, he was a person of no intellect whatever. When he had accepted everything they had to give, they became so fond of him that they decided to bestow the final boon of death. The device by which the sailor escaped this supreme honor, and became King of the Kosekin, makes the catastrophe. The story is ingenious and well written, and the evident satire on the ideas and guiding principles of known races gives it some intellectual interest. No novelist can describe an unknown race without referring to the lost tribes, and the insinuated identification of the Kosekin with the wandering Israelites is quite in order. These lost tribes have such a fascination for imaginative theorists that all earthly glory and distinction seems insignificant beside that of being descended from them. If all things are predestined from the beginning, there is no doubt that the tribes were lost, or went and lost themselves, on purpose to torment the speculative for all futurity.

The stories included under the title, 'A Teacher of the Violin,' have to do with the fine flower of nobility. The few characters introduced of lowly birth are all but ennobled by association with the many born to greatness. Thus the teacher of the violin, who is attached to a German prince's court, and his pupil, who is adopted by a countess. Thus, too, the actor who tells the tale of "Helena von Saarfeld," and who had many a bad quarter of an hour while refusing the persistently proffered hand of that distinguished lady. The incidents are devised chiefly to give the characters a chance to show their breeding, and that they all do punctiliously, without any talk or fuss about it. They are very simple incidents of love misplaced or unfortunate, and, as befits the people interested, are more dignified than exciting. The people preserve external coolness and a certain formality, even in moments of intense agitation, and, excepting in the case of the Marquis de St.-Palaye, their courtesy does not appear unnatural or exaggerated. With all deference to the high honor and chivalry of the Marquis, he certainly bears a family likeness to Turveydrop. The style in which the stories are written is as scrupulous and polished as are the manners of the characters. As it is agreeable to come in contact with such models of courtesy, even if they do lack warmth, so it is agreeable to read stories about them, written in an appropriately flowing and elegant manner—one that expresses fire and life chiefly by artistic repression.

Names and Portraits of Birds which Interest Gunners, with descriptions in language understanded of the people. By Gurdon Trumbull. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1 vol., 8vo, cloth, pp. viii, 222, cuts.

A HANDSOMELY made book on the publishers' side, and on the part of the author a novel and genuine piece of work, made up mostly of information not to be had elsewhere. It will not fail to take and hold its own place; and for no small part of the bird-loving public it will answer all the purpose of the more systematic treatises like Coues's 'Key' or Ridgway's 'Manual.' It treats of all the recognized game-birds of Eastern North America, sixty-one in number according to the author's count, belonging to the goose and duck family, the gallinaceous order, and the plover, snipe, and rail families; and the subject is handled in such a way that no one can fail to identify his bird at a moment's notice. For we have here, strange to say, descriptions "in language understanded of the people"; and lest even this may not suffice, a good "portrait" of each species, clear as a professor's blackboard diagram of a proposition in Euclid—and, we may add, equally artistic. We assent with a sigh of resignation to our bold author's thesis, to wit: "Few, even among our most intelligent college-bred sportsmen, can form a very clear idea of a bird's appearance from the 'shop-talk' of scientists, even though provided with a glossary; and it may be broadly stated, with quite a showing of truth, that the descriptions commonly encountered in ornithological works (particularly of to-day) are only intelligible to those who do not need them."

But what of these "names" of birds, standing at the head of the book's title? Mr. Trumbull's descriptions and figures are but a means to his end of giving us the names by which our game is known—known to the people—to our gunners, "a class of men who earn a livelihood by shooting birds"—known to "that helpless but interesting creature, the true sportsman," as our author styles him—but mostly unknown to the compilers of technical synonymy. It is no unusual thing for a bird to have half-a-dozen generic names, a dozen specific names, and several dozen binominal designations variously compounded of these two terms, according to the letter of the law of ornithological nomenclature. Our author, with a fine instinct of self-preservation, selects that one of them which the American Ornithologists' Union has stamped with orthodoxy; provided with which, with his description, and with his figure, as a trigonometrical basis, he proceeds to survey the whole field. He seeks literally the "winged words"; the living and spoken vernacular names are his game; and the number of these that he brings to book are simply astounding.

We cannot count them; but a little ciphering over the eleven pages of triple-column index shows considerably more than a thousand names for three-score birds. They certainly average over sixteen apiece, and sometimes run up to forty, fifty, or more. Comparatively few of these are variants of one another, or among the ἅπαξ λεγόμενα; the great majority are straight-out distinctive names, in which single nouns, as distinguished from descriptive phrases or compounded epithets, are conspicuously numerous. It would be a pretty liberal education in the genesis of language to con over the list Mr. Trumbull gives, and see how this or that "point" about a bird has been seized upon and made a name of. Onomatopœia finds great scope, as would be expected, and the "bow-wow" theorists in philology might take great comfort from Mr. Trumbull's labors; but, after all, what a bird *looks like*, in the first place, and, secondly, what a bird *does*, rather than what it says when it opens its mouth, are, mainly, the seeds of this strange crop of nicknames and bye-words. The names, too, have to a notable extent the quality of spontaneity, naïveness or innocence, so to speak, which vouches for their originality and authenticity; they are such as any son of Adam out of Eden should apply if he were set to the task said to have been given his first parent; and how next to nothing he is indebted to the ornithologists or their books is vouched by the rarity, nearly the absence, of the regular English book-names. Even such common names as "hooded merganser," "Hudsonian godwit," and "pectoral sandpiper" are almost entirely wanting, showing that these terms, though English, are read and not spoken names, except to the literary few. They are, in fact, almost as seldom heard out of library and museum doors as the corresponding technicalities, *Lophodytes cucullatus*, *Limosa hæmastica*, and *Actodromas maculata*.

Let us see the actual genesis of the names. Take the case of a very common duck of our Atlantic coast, whose Latin technical name is *Erismatura rubida*, whose regular book-name is "ruddy duck," from the prevailing color of the adult male, translating *rubida*. The generic name, *Erismatura*, referring to a peculiarity of the shape and texture of the tail-feathers, has been rendered by the persons who never heard of it as 'stiff-tail,' 'quill-tail,' 'pintail,' 'bristle-tail,' 'stick-tail,' 'spinetail,' 'dip-tail,' and 'heavy-tail'—all pat enough terms. 'Leatherback' appears as the equivalent of *rubida* or ruddy: the bird is the duck with a back the color of tanned sole leather. The bird has a broad blue bill; straightway it is called 'blue-bill,' 'broad-bill,' and 'spoonbill.' It has a dark steel-blue crown: it is a 'steelhead.' It is a fat, chunky little fowl; therefore is it a 'butter-duck,' 'butter-ball,' 'butter-bowl,' and 'dumpling-duck.' Its activity makes it a 'blatherskite,' 'bladderscoot,' 'blatherscoot,' 'batterscoot,' and 'bumblebee-coot.' Is it ever inactive, stupid, or tame? Then it becomes a 'sleepy coot,' 'sleepy duck,' 'sleepyhead,' and even a 'sleepy brother'; likewise a 'booby-coot,' a 'noddy,' a 'fool-duck,' and a 'deaf-duck.' But not always thus; when alarmed it can dive like a flash, and it is then a 'dipper,' a 'dapper,' a 'dopper'; even a 'mud-dipper,' and a 'broad-billed dipper,' yea, and a 'diptail diver,' a 'dun diver,' and a 'brown diving-teal.' Then it is hard to kill? Certainly, a very 'tough-head,' a 'hard-head,' a 'hickory-head,' 'hard-tack,' a 'lightwood knot,' a 'shot-pouch,' a 'stub-and-twist.' When it flusters over the water it is a 'dinkey' or a 'dickey'; and, for the same reason, perhaps, it is a 'paddy-whack,' or a plain 'paddy.' Do the people, after all, have some trouble in classifying the bird systematically? It would seem so, for it is not only a 'duck' and a 'diver' of several kinds, but some kind of a 'goose,' 'widgeon,' 'teal,' and 'coot,' and a 'water-partridge,' and a 'rock.' "Just think of it," exclaims our author in his rich embarrassment and consternation; "a duck called a rook under the very shadow of the Smithsonian!"

To mention a locality reminds us how careful our author is to give a local habitation to these airy nothings. Provincialism is rife in such word-building; the name changes with the times and places of its usage. Few of these designations are wide in geographical range; many are confined to a single locality, even to some class of persons in such locality; and such facts are always set forth with particularity. Some of the names once heard are already dead or dying; others are continually entering the current of our speech. With exceptions, the field chiefly gleaned has been our Atlantic coast region; and everybody has been laid under contribution, from the Down-East fishermen to the Crackers of Carolina and the negroes of Florida.

Perhaps the ruddy duck, with its fifty or sixty names, all outside of books, is a little exceptional; but the process and result of name-making are the same in all cases, *mutatis mutandis*. And now we begin to see what a very interesting book Mr. Trumbull has made. It is far from a mere list of names, and our author takes us by the hand through the mazes of myrionymy safely, surely, and pleasantly, if not also swiftly. It is a scholarly, leisurely, bookish book, smelling of the library shelves and the easy-chair, after the muddy boots and shooting-iron have been put away. Well-known faces greet us among those who have stood sponsors at the christenings of our birds, from Catesby and Edwards, Lawson and that old thief, John Brickell, Bartram and Barton, President Jefferson and others of generations gone, to the "Frank Foresters" of yesterday, and the Charles Hallocks of to-day. The ensemble is a charming picture, especially as it is lighted up with the author's own gleams of never-failing good-humor and quiet fun. How many times he laughed outright in writing it we may never know, but the gloomiest reviewer may not be exempt from a certain contagion. Take this, for example, a perennial Joe Miller, as good to-day as ever:

"Wilson relates a funny anecdote connected with the passage of a New York game law in 1791. 'The bill was entitled "An Act for the Preservation of Heath-hen, and other game." The honest chairman of the Assembly—no sportsman, I suppose—read the title "An Act for the Preservation of *heathen* and other Game," which seemed to astonish the Northern members, who could not see the propriety of preserving Indians, or any other heathen.'"

We should never end if we tried the comic aspects of the names in this book, as in the Rev. J. H. Linsley's reverential handling of the name 'godwit.' "The good old preacher, in speaking of these birds, could not take his Lord's name in vain on so slight a provocation, hence he called them 'good wits.'"

How to Judge of a Picture; Familiar Talks with the Uncritical Lovers of Art. By John C. Van Dyke. Chautauqua Press.

THE author of 'Principles of Art' seems to require a good deal of discouragement from pursuing his unintelligent way. For if ever a writer on art gave clear evidence of not having touched bottom in his study, and of having no perception of the fundamental distinctions of sound criticism, it is he. It is a clear case of a blind man leading the blind across a country full of the most disastrous ditches. Take the following from Mr. Van Dyke's chapter on "Tone and Gradation":

"Tone is a word often used out of place as synonymous with harmony, but you will not so confuse the terms, for they are quite distinct in meaning. Harmony is the relation of qualities; tone the relation of quantities. To be sure, they have very much to do with one another, and it is very doubtful if tone may be produced without harmony, or harmony without tone. The distinction between them may be made plainer, perhaps, by saying that harmony has more particularly to do with the problem of whether one color is congenial or well suited to another, while tone involves the degrees of different colors used and their proportionate relationships to one another. If you have had little experience among pictures (and I am addressing only the inexperienced), tone will be something of which you have heard much and seen but little—that is to say,

you may have seen it but have not recognized it."

It is probably only with relation to art that the idea seems to obtain with the general public, that the best person to teach it to those who know nothing of it is one who himself knows very little—*i. e.*, the first principles which are the necessary foundation of any learning, but are the last to be arrived at by the professor, may be dispensed with by the student until the later phases of his education; while the truth is, that the education which is not begun with the first principles is education thrown away. "Harmony is the relation of qualities; tone the relation of quantities" is antithetical, but the most concentrated attention that we are able to bring to bear on it wrings nothing but nonsense out of it. So far as there is a meaning to be conjectured in it, it is our impression that it is not true; but it is not safe to say that a thing one does not understand is untrue, and Mr. Van Dyke's further attempt to elucidate his meaning "by saying that harmony has more particularly to do with the problem of whether one color is congenial or well suited to another, while tone involves the degrees of different colors used and their *proportionate* relationships to one another," does not clear up the mud in the least. We give it up. If this be primary education in art, the less we have of it the better, for the higher stages must give rise to some gruesome reading.

The definition of "values" is another curious case of wisdom confounded:

"If you will hold out your open hand before you, partially close your eyes, and look, not for the outline or shape of a hand, but for patches of light and shade, you will see that the palm which is directly before you has the highest light upon it, and that there is a gradation of light into shadow in the spaces between the fingers, and around the ball of the thumb and the sides of the hand where they lead to the edges. Those gradations of light and shade which necessarily involve gradations of flesh-color and possibly the reflections from side lights, are *values*." "It will be understood, then, that what are known in art parlance as values are the variations of light, the effect of intervening atmosphere, and the reflections from surrounding objects or colors, all combined. Properly speaking, values are nothing more or less than the relations of light and shade."

This is simply stupefying. The author goes on to say that "there is no great unanimity of opinion among artists and critics regarding the meaning of the term and what it includes. A number of writers have tried at various times to define it properly, but it has such a loose meaning that definition is quite impossible"! At the risk of attempting the impossible, we are willing to enlighten the author on the subject, by telling him what values are as understood by one of the greatest masters of them in our day—J. F. Millet. If you throw a black coat on the snow, either in the sunshine or in diffused light, there will be a difference in the pitch of the local color quite independent of the light and shade, and this difference will be substantially the same in either case. The mass of the coat will tell as a dark mass on the snow, and the difference, which has nothing to do with light and shade, is the difference in the values. It is exactly the quality furthest removed from that given it by our auther.

"The word *textures* is not used in connection with silks, satins, and embroideries alone, but is an art term, *referring to the peculiar qualities of any and all objects that are shown in a painting.*" Here is another riddle—we give it up as well.

We have waded through Mr. Van Dyke's book, but conceive the above enough for a fair, if severe, exposition of its merits as a treatise on art. It contains, however, the evidence that the author has a fairly cultivated appreciation of painting in the concrete, and does know the difference, within narrow limits, between good and bad art; but we must offer him the advice of the Scotch judge to a tyro, not to give the reasons for his opinions, but to content himself with pronouncing his judgment, for his enunciation of principles is great nonsense, and the world is too full of nonsense on art already.

Review of the New York Musical Season, 1887-1888. By H. E. Krehbiel. Novello, Ewer & Co.

THIS is the third issue of this useful handbook, and if Mr. Krehbiel, as is to be hoped, will continue to issue one annually, the task of some future historian of music in America will be remarkably facilitated. The present volume begins with the concerts of the unfortunate but charming Italian violinist, Teresina Tua, and ends with the production of Verdi's last opera, "Otello," by the Campanini Company. Among the more important articles are criticisms of the Josef Hofmann concerts, Wagner's symphony, and the operas brought out for the first time at the Metropolitan — "Siegfried," "Götterdämmerung," "Cortez," "Euryanthe," and "The Trumpeter of Säkkingen." Of many of the concerts only the programmes are recorded, but even this part of the book has its value, for since all the important concerts given in New York are included, provincial conductors may use Mr. Krehbiel's 'Review' as a valuable text-book in programme-making, under the guidance of such masters as Thomas, Seidl, etc. The consecutive arrangement of musical events, according to dates, is doubtless preferable to any other; but it would be convenient if the index discriminated, by different sizes of figures, the pages occupied with comment on certain compositions, and those on which the same works are merely recorded as parts of a programme. It would not do to leave these latter altogether out of the index, for their presence allows one to see at a glance how often a given composer figured on the programmes of the season. Thus, in the operatic line, it is significant to find only five entries under Bellini, and 126 under Wagner; and it is encouraging to see so many references to Bach, Schumann, Chopin, Liszt, and Rubinstein, showing that the musical world moves. Four pages are taken up by a letter addressed by Herr Seidl to the New York *Tribune*, regarding Wagner's early symphony, concerning which no one is so well qualified to speak, since it was Herr Seidl who was called upon by Wagner himself, when the long-missing parts had been found, to make the score out of them. Wagner also wanted Seidl to conduct the symphony at Venice, as he dreaded the fatigue involved in the rehearsals, but Seidl was prevented by his engagements from going. "Two months after his death," he writes, "when I was conducting the Nibelung cycle in Venice, I was told personally by the concertmeister, who had played in the symphony performances, that when Wagner had finished, he laid down his bâton with the words: 'Now I have conducted for the last time.'"

The last twenty-three pages are devoted to statistics of the novelties produced at the opera and in the concert-halls and to a general retrospect, in which the operatic problem is discussed in a very sensible manner. The ignorant journalists who prophesied that German opera was coming to grief, are met by the retort that "the Wagnerian dramas throughout the season were worth $750 a night more than the rest of the list." The statistics concerning the receipts and expenditures at the opera, being derived from official sources, are as instructive as they are trustworthy. Fourteen operas were given, involving 451 rehearsals, and ranking, as regards their financial value, in the following order: "Götterdämmerung," "Siegfried," "Walküre," "Prophet," "Tristan," "Lohengrin," "Faust," "Tannhäuser," "Meistersinger," "Euryanthe," "Trumpeter," "Jewess," "Cortez," "Fidelio." Among the curiosities of this list, as illustrating the fickleness and uncertainty of popular patronage, are the facts that "Fidelio," which headed the list last season, foots it this year, and that "Cortez," on which more than half the money given out for *mise-en-scène* this year was expended, is last but one. As regards Italian opera, Mr. Krehbiel thinks "it will not utterly die until the public adopts a nobler attitude towards music than they occupy towards literature and the drama." But "we are in an era of change in art ideals. To cling to the sweets of Italian melody and live in the memories of Mario and Grisi is folly. So young an art as music cannot stand still for half a century, and Roman tastes, though they may clog for a time, cannot permanently bind a people Teutonic in their origin." The following also is worth pondering as showing the change which has come over audiences: "We all know that when Italian opera was in its glory, the public were perfectly willing to accept a listless performance from any one of its great interpreters if he or she would but thrill them with a single air or a single note in an air. Mario was wont to save himself for one glorious outburst, and with it his admirers were satisfied. This would now be impossible."

To the general public who do not care for musical problems, the most remarkable statement in Mr. Krehbiel's book is that, "of the money paid for royalties [at the Metropolitan], nearly $9,100 went to the estate of Richard Wagner, Director Stanton having assumed the *purely moral obligation* of paying royalties on all the Wagnerian works produced." This is certainly extremely honorable on the part of Mr. Stanton and the stockholders, and ought to be held up as an example to our piratic music and book publishers.

Corinne; or, Italy. By Mme. de Staël. Translated by Emily Baldwin and Pauline Driver. [Bohn's Novelists' Library.] London: Geo. Bell & Sons; New York: Scribner & Welford. Pp. 394.

SAINTE-BEUVE, fifty years ago, writing of this book (then a generation old), said: "As time advances, the interest that attaches to such works, which have been recognized to have a real and lasting existence, may change in character, but is not less great. Their very faults become representative, and are not without charm, as the once-admired expression of a taste that has given place to another, which in its turn will likewise pass away." It is this enduringness of interest that makes any adequate study of these works, whether in the form of criticism or of the commentary which an able translation furnishes by its very nature, always timely and welcome. But of an inadequate translation of classics precisely the opposite is true; it is untimely and unwelcome. We regret to say this is the case in the present instance. The publisher of Bohn's Libraries has been unfortunate again, as too often before, in his choice of translators. Their work is a paraphrase rather than a reproduction of the original, and is pervaded by a dulness of perception that turns the abundant flow of phrase in the original into stiff and stupid sentences. The translation is everywhere unsuccessful and

unjust, whether in passages of description, of conversation, or of moral observation, and frequently entirely mistakes the meaning of the text. These assertions may be strengthened by examples. Of the frequent mistakes the following is characteristic: "Lucile avait tort de ne pas exprimer ses craintes," "Lucille was careful not to express her fears." "Dominiquin" is translated "Dominican." The Italian verse,

A pena si può dir: questa fu rosa;

is given as

A pena si suo die fu rosa.

The downrightness and hasty clumsiness of this phrase, "Conscience sometimes becomes morbid under the pressure of sorrow, and one easily accuses oneself of guilt," is no worthy rendering of the delicate harmony in the thoughtful saying: "Quand on souffre, on se persuade aisément que l'on est coupable, et les violents chagrins portent le trouble jusque dans la conscience." When Lord Nelvil says: "La délicatesse avec laquelle vous vous êtes conduit pour monsieur votre oncle, inspire pour vous, M. le comte, la plus profonde estime," it is something very different from "The way you behaved to your uncle, Count, makes me esteem you highly."

This for description: "Ils virent ensemble Pompéia, la ruine la plus curieuse de l'antiquité. À Rome, l'on ne trouve guère que les débris de monuments publics, et ces monuments ne retracent que l'histoire politique des siècles écoulés: mais à Pompéia, c'est la vie privée des anciens qui s'offre à vous telle qu'elle étoit." "They saw Pompeii, the most curious ruins of antiquity. In Rome you simply find relics of antiquity, and in these you just trace the political history of past ages; but at Pompeii the private life of the ancients offers itself to your reflection."

Condemnation must fall on such disrespect shown to a great writer—a writer who gave the most attentive care to the details of this monumental work, and who (in Sainte-Beuve's phrase again) therein "attained to art, to sustained majesty, to harmony."

Sphinx Locuta Est: Goethe's Faust und die Resultate einer rationellen Methode der Forschung. Von Ferdinand August Louvier. Berlin: Georg & Fiedler. 2 vols.

Is this treatise a joke? Is it, like the famous book of 'Allegoriowitch Mystifizinski,' a *jeu d'esprit* at the expense of a certain kind of expounders of 'Faust'? So one is certainly tempted to think at first. But the work is in two good-sized octavo volumes, containing together a thousand pages. The paper and printing are excellent, and there is nowhere a suggestion of intentional humor. To make the text must have required years; to see it through the press was, at any rate, no trifling matter; in short, all indications point to the conclusion that we have to do here with a seriously meant contribution to exegetical literature.

Herr Louvier has discovered that 'Faust' is a mine of riddles, the key to which he has, after infinite perplexity, at last found out. He begins his revelations in a very familiar way by reducing the poem to an allegory: *Faust* is the Understanding; *Wagner*, Scholasticism; *Gretchen*, Naïveté: *Mephistopheles*, Egoism; the *Witch*, Anility; the *Poodle*, Negative Proof, and so on. The poem consists, at every point, of three strands skilfully woven together by the poet, but capable of being separated by the cunning reader: first, there is the poetic 'Faust,' in which the characters are what they seem to be and what people in general suppose them to be; then there is the philosophical 'Faust,' in which the same characters stand for abstractions of the mind; and, finally, there is the historical (*culturgeschichtlicher*) 'Faust,' in which they and their language have mysterious reference to important facts of history, as, for example, the Prologue to Freemasonry, the Easter Holiday scene to Grammar, and the Earth-Spirit scene to Swedenborg and the Rosicrucians.

Thus far, perhaps, the revelations of the Sphinx are not so very remarkable. A reader who is at home among the expounders of 'Faust' has heard, if not the same thing, yet the same sort of thing before. But the Sphinx proceeds, and proceeds in a way to arrest the attention of the most phlegmatic passer-by. Not only is Goethe's poem a triplicate tangle as regards its characters and its dramatic economy, but its ordinary language is not what it seems to be. There is a special "Faust language," consisting of symbolical meanings for familiar words; and this symbolism, we learn, is consistently adhered to everywhere. Thus, when the poet says "sun," he always means *knowledge;* "moon" means *the ideal;* "kettle," *the head;* "city," *the brain;* "wood," *stupidity;* "gold," *thought;* and "to spin," *to meditate.* These definitions are taken from a fragmentary "Faust dictionary," found in vol. i, p. 20. The list there given closes with an "et cetera," which implies, we suppose, that the other words in 'Faust' also have their own meanings, which the reader can readily supply for himself. It is only necessary that the Sphinx should put him on the right track.

Thus equipped for his work, Herr Louvier rides boldly into the fray, and what execution he does among the received opinions of the literary public can be neither described nor imagined. The tragedy of *Gretchen* is the destruction of Naïveté by the Speculative Understanding; *Valentine*, *Gretchen's* brother, is, of course, Common Sense, which perishes at the hands of Speculative Understanding, aided by Egoism (*Mephistopheles*). But what of *Gretchen's* continual *singing?* Ay, there's the rub—that is, there *has been* the rub, says our author. But in the Faust language, "to sing" is *to speak*, and *Gretchen* in her songs is simply bodying forth in words the gradual decadence of the *Meistergesang.* But the beauty of a system is seen always in its applicability to details that are apparently insignificant. It will be recollected that *Gretchen* in frolic hides herself behind the door of a summer-house, where *Faust* afterwards finds her. But now, in the Faust language, all things "wooden" allude to stupidity. So, then: Naïveté takes refuge behind Stupidity, but Understanding recognizes it even in such a hiding-place.

But the *chef d'œuvre* of Louvier's exegesis is to be found in vol. i, p. 165. Readers of Goethe will recall the poodle scene, and the fact that *Mephistopheles*, after his first colloquy with *Faust*, finds himself a prisoner. He explains that he cannot get out of the room on account of the "witch's foot," or pentagram, upon the threshold; which, being imperfectly made and having its outer angle a little open, allowed him to come *in*, though he cannot now get *out.* Hereupon *Faust* congratulates himself upon the lucky accident which has put the devil in his power. After this, *Mephistopheles* causes *Faust* to be lulled to sleep, whereupon he puts oil upon the pentagram and orders one of his minions in the shape of a rat to break the spell by gnawing off the inner point of the pentagram. The hocus-pocus of the scene requires none but historical commentary, and that is sufficiently furnished by any good editor.

But now listen to the Sphinx. This of the witch's foot, we are assured, is one of the most surprising allegories in the whole drama. It must be something more than a mere geometrical figure—probably the learned word "pentagram" should give the needed clue. Now, "pentagram" means "five letters," and since one corner, and that the outer one, of the figure is "a little open," we have evidently to look for a word of six letters of which the last one is wanting. Further, this word, when found, should, if read forwards, indicate something that *lures Egoism in*, and if read backwards, something that *keeps Egoism from getting away.* The needed word is obviously *Gewin(n)*, which read backwards is *Ni(e) weg.* Here, to be sure, a superfluous "e" appears, but the Sphinx disposes of that in this wise: "'That is a lucky accident,' thus does the poet himself excuse this innocent anagram which is not even orthographically correct." The exposition of the Sphinx continues: The inner corner which is gnawed by the rat is the letter "n" (in "Nie weg"); there remains then *-ie weg* and the "oil" means that the pronunciation of this -ie is to be "softened" into *jeh.* But *jeh weg* passes readily (especially in Berlin) for *geh weg.* Thus is the charm broken and the prohibitive "never away" is softened by oil into the permissive "go away."

"Such screech owls there must also be," observes *Faust* to *Gretchen* in endeavoring to persuade her not to think all too harshly of his friend the devil. It might appear as if this philosophy were too simple to be of great practical use—as if it must be too frail a protection against the varied forms of mental inadequacy which we are all continually discovering in our fellow-passengers on the voyage of life. But really there are emergencies to which no other philosophy seems so well adapted. What other resource, to illustrate, is there for him who in these days endeavors, for whatever reason, to keep abreast of what all kinds of people are printing about Goethe's 'Faust'? There are men of the present epoch who hold that the high-water mark of religious civilization was reached when the Romans built their temple to "all the gods." Others look forward to a temple of all Humanity hereafter. The subject is too broad and deep to be treated just here, but we will at least express the hope in passing, that when the disciples of Comte get ready to build the great Pananthropeion of the future, they may not forget to put in a few comfortable niches for cranks. *Es muss auch solche Käuze geben.*

A Trip to England. By Goldwin Smith. Macmillan & Co.

To a vast number of American readers the subject of this little book is one of peculiar interest. Some of them have made the trip, and will be curious to see what Mr. Goldwin Smith may have to say about it; others are looking forward to it with the keen pleasure of anticipation, and will be attracted by the title; while to others the subject is full of deep interest although they have never seen, nor ever expect to see, the land of their ancestors. It is proper to warn those who might buy the book for such reasons that they will in all probability be disappointed. Knowing something of Mr. Goldwin Smith's reputation, they will be prepared to find in it a certain amount of curious doctrine, both social and political—to find him, for instance, abusing "democratic agrarianism," which is about to do away with fox-hunting and to demolish the parks of the aristocracy with its "equalizing plough," and in the next breath hoping that the same plough will destroy all the race-courses! They will not be

very much surprised to find him making light of the terrible misery of London on the ground that it has been "exaggerated for purposes of literary sensation"; nor to learn that in his opinion the true *bel vivere* is the terribly uninteresting life of an English country town as described by Miss Mitford. But they will at least expect a very superior kind of guide-book, and even in this they will be disappointed. It is, in fact, surprising that so able a writer should have thought it worth while to take up the subject at all unless he intended to do it full justice, and to say that scant justice is done to it is to state the case mildly. The matter of this book first appeared in the shape of letters to the Toronto *Week*.

Tenting at Stony Beach. By Maria Louise Pool. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888.

THIS is the second volume of summer travel, in the form of the vacation tour, which the author has given us. Two women and a mastiff camp out on the sands, and naturally have some mild adventures with the natives, and make some observations on their fellows of the boarding-out class. The volume is remarkable for the absence of any appreciation of the aspects of nature. It is scarcely credible that an outdoor book should have so little of the outdoor flavor, in these days when nature, as seen in the quiet of summer, is a literary cult. The interest of the author is almost wholly in the characters of the neighborhood. These are all oddities, and most of them are too odd to be entirely believed in. The method of characterization is that of Dickens and Miss Phelps. There is a large element of the farcical in the story, and the touch of pathos when the incorrigibly lazy man is struck by lightning, just as he has saved a child from being caught in her boat in the storm, is of the crudest description; such a mixture of the sentimental and the theatrical could only be condoned on the ground that the incident was a fact. The very candidness of the volume goes to show that its basis is reality, but the omission of the softening touches of nature, and of any noble or essentially humane elements whatever, gives a wrong perspective. It is the sort of realism which represents a New England village by its shanties of the ne'er-do-weels, and then tells us that is the "dreary" life of the country people.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, Dr. N. Physical Development; or the Laws Governing the Human System. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Amory, T. C. Siege of Newport: a Poem. Cambridge, Mass.
Barnett, M. J. Justice a Healing Power. Boston: H. H. Carter & Karrick. 25 cents.
Barrett, F. By Misadventure. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Bonham, J. M. Industrial Liberty. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Bowser, Prof. E. A. Academic Algebra. D. Van Nostrand.
Bowser, Prof. E. A. College Algebra. D. Van Nostrand.
Braddon, Miss M. E. The Fatal Three. Harper & Bros. 30 cents.
Browning, R. The Blot in the 'Scutcheon, &c. (Poetical Works, Vol. IV.) Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Clark, E. G. The Tale of the Shakspere Epitaph. Belford, Clark & Co.
Clay, Bertha M. Lady Hutton's Ward. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Emerton, Prof. E. Introduction to the Study of the Middle Ages (375—814). Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.25.
Farjeon, B. L. Doctor Glennie's Daughter. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Franklin, Benjamin. His Life written by Himself. Edited for School Use. Boston: Ginn & Co. 50 cents.
Green, Mrs. J. R. Henry II. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Haggard, H. R. Maiwa's Revenge. Longmans, Green & Co. Also, Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Hon. Mrs. Vereker. Chicago: T. S. Denison.
Jones, L. A. Treatise on the Law of Liens. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $13.
Judson, Prof. H. P. Cæsar's Army: a Study of the Military Art of the Romans. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.
Kluge, Prof. F. Etymologisches Wörterbuch der Deutschen Sprache. Part V. Strassburg: K. J. Trübner.
Lowell, J. R. Political Essays. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Lowell, J. R. The Independent in Politics. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents.
McKendrick, Prof. J. G. General Physiology. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Myers, P. V. N. The Eastern Nations and Greece. (Ancient History for Colleges and High Schools.) Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.55.
The Maritime Provinces: a Handbook for Travellers. 6th ed. Boston: Ticknor & Co.
The Septameron. Philadelphia: David McKay.
Todhunter, J. The Banshee, and Other Poems. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.
Tracking the Truth. Chicago; Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Trumbull, G. Names and Portraits of Birds which Interest Gunners. Harper & Bros.
Two Lunatics. New York: Theo. Berendsohn. 50 cents.
Ulbach, L. For Fifteen Years: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Vallery-Radot, R. Madame de Sévigné. Paris: Lecène & Oudin; Boston: Schoenhof.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 9, 1888.

The Week.

THE Presidential campaign of 1888 is the briefest in our history. It is less than three months from to-day to election, but Mr. Cleveland has not yet written his letter of acceptance of the Democratic nomination, while as for the Republicans, "the leader of the party" has not arrived in the country, and is not expected to sound "the keynote of the campaign" until he makes his long-advertised speech at Portland, Me., on the 15th inst., which will leave but a trifle over two months and a-half before the day for voting. It was very different in 1840, when the grandfather of the present Republican candidate for care-taker of the White House was running for the Presidency. William Henry Harrison was nominated in December, 1839, and the campaign was well under way before the end of the winter. This year, for the first time, there are no "October States"—that is to say, none that count, for Georgia, which still elects her Governor in that month, is too one-sided to carry any weight. Pennsylvania held its last October election in a Presidential year in 1872, Indiana in 1880, and Ohio in 1884. It is a tremendous gain to the cause of good politics to get rid of the demoralizing influence caused by the attempt of both parties to secure the "moral effect" of a preliminary victory by such tactics as the notorious "soap" campaign of 1880 in Indiana. Vermont and Maine still hold State elections in September; but as the result in each case is a foregone conclusion, they do not count. The same thing is true, not only of the Georgia election in October, but of the Arkansas in September, and of the Alabama last Monday.

The Republican policy becomes more clear every day. It is now openly admitted that, if the Republicans carry the election, the Nominal Candidate is to be merely care-taker of the White House, while the Greatest Living Statesman is to be the real Head of the Administration from 1889 to 1893, and then run for President in name as well as in fact. The programme is thus authoritatively stated in a Washington despatch to the Lewiston (Me.) *Journal*, Congressman Dingley's paper: "It is a part of the Republican writ that Mr. Blaine shall be Harrison's Secretary of State; and further, that after Harrison's day will come Blaine's in the Presidential chair. The call for Blaine's nomination as the next Republican leader will be irresistible."

Senator Edmunds of Vermont is not the "Republican United States Senator" quoted by Mr. Foster in his famous "fat" circular as authority for the statement that "the manufacturers get practically the sole benefit of the tariff laws." The St. Louis *Republic* states that he has denied the authorship in a letter addressed to a Missouri friend, which has been published by a local paper in that State. The *Republic* adds that "he denied not only for himself but for Senator Morrill," and it makes this further important statement: "The *Republic* is informed on excellent authority that the real author is Senator Plumb of Kansas." Mr. Foster described his Senatorial correspondent as "a Republican United States Senator from a State which never had a Democratic representative in either house of Congress, or a Democratic State officer." A strict interpretation of this language would rule out both Senators from Kansas, as that State had a Democratic Governor a few years ago. But Mr. Foster is not a second Horace Greeley in the matter of election returns, and he has very likely seen in the *Tribune* under its present management a reference to Kansas as a State that always goes Republican, which he blindly followed. At the same time the necessity for further speculation as to the identity of the Senator would be removed if Mr. Foster would accept our invitation, now again renewed, to send this paper an authorized statement as to the matter.

The lengths to which protectionists will go in attributing all benefits to the operation of their fetish it is impossible to tell. We have been sufficiently accustomed to that kind of thing, but we confess to a little feeling of surprise on finding that Judge Kelley, in the August *Forum*, claims that one of the causes of the lowering of transportation charges for Western grain in the last twenty years has been the encouragement given by Congress to the production of steel rails in America. By what possible process of reasoning Mr. Kelley arrives at the conclusion, that our railroads have been aided in the substitution of steel for iron rails by being compelled to pay $17 a ton more for them than they might have imported them for, is a mystery. In former years protectionists contented themselves with saying that it was a good thing to make all our own commodities, even if it made them somewhat dearer; that we should in time be able to make them without protection, and so forth. But now it has become the fashion to say that things are all the cheaper for having protective duties laid upon them; and probably Mr. Kelley had in mind this new and misty doctrine when he spoke of freight rates having been reduced by the facilities which a 75 or 100 per cent. duty affords for the purchase of steel rails.

We called attention the other day to various signs that the workingmen are mastering the great lesson taught by the Foster circular, that "the manufacturers get practically the sole benefit of the tariff laws," such as the hearty support of the Mills bill by Congressman Smith of Milwaukee, sole representative of the Labor party in the House, and by others, like Mr. Weaver of Iowa, who were elected in part by labor votes; the change of Congressman Lawler of Chicago from an opponent of the Morrison bill two years ago to a supporter of the Mills bill now, with the hearty approval of his constituents, 95 per cent. of whom he estimates to be wage-workers in the greatest manufacturing district of his city; and the vigorous opposition not only to Gen. Harrison personally, but also and much more to the high-tariff attitude of the Republican party generally, shown by nearly all of the 200 labor papers published in the United States. To these must be added the very striking proof of the political drift of the laboring men shown by the action of their mass meeting in Indianapolis last Thursday. While the resolutions adopted show some special personal feeling against the Republican candidate as a man, they are chiefly directed against the attitude of the Republican party regarding the tariff. Evidently it is not going to be so easy to "work the free-trade racket among the workingmen" as the Republican managers expected.

When Gen. Harrison committed himself to the scheme of subsidizing South American steamers, he overlooked the fact that when this question came before the House only a few days ago, scarcely half of the Republicans could be rallied to the support of a subsidy scheme; and leading men from the West, like Mr. Henderson of Iowa and Mr. Nelson of Minnesota, made it clear that the farmers have concluded once for all that this policy must not be resumed. Gen. Harrison also overlooked the letter sent Mr. Nelson by the ship-owners and importers of Baltimore, commending his course, and protesting against the ruin threatened their business by the proposed subsidy. They can speak from experience, the Garrison and Roach subsidies, in their time, having pretty thoroughly crowded out the Baltimore clippers. By the way, in all this patriotic talk about our flag on the sea, why are our sailing vessels always left out of the account? In building and navigating them we have some chance of holding our own against competitors. The Baltimore clippers are now carrying a considerable part of our South American trade. Their freights can profitably be put at a figure low enough to compete with the English steamers, and their trips occupy but little longer time. New York importers use them much and value them highly. Why should somebody be paid to get their business from them? Gen. Harrison says that if our merchants but had more frequent and more regular mails, they could at once enlarge their business in South America. A correspondent points out that, as transactions of importance are conducted by cable, this is a rather obsolete delusion. He also had to have his fling at "tramp" steamers, apparently not understanding the significance of the presence of "tramp" steamers in all waters. It simply means that the

business of building steamships has been overdone, there being, according to Mr. Wells, an excess of 25 per cent. over the needs of the world's commerce, so that they swoop upon an offered cargo, like a crow upon carrion, cut freights to the lowest point ever known, and make the project of special legislation to get more steamers afloat ridiculous to a degree.

The "rebel-flag incident" was brought into the debate in the House last Thursday. Mr. McKinney of New Hampshire, in the course of a speech on the pension bill, remarked that "the only return of Confederate flags by the Government took place under a Republican Administration." This was disputed by Mr. Boutelle of Maine, but Mr. McKinney affirmed that twenty-one such flags were returned by Edwin M. Stanton, Secretary of War, and that not one had been by Mr. Cleveland's Administration, although a Republican official, to wit, Adjutant-Gen. Drum, had recommended in writing that they should all be returned. Then Mr. Boutelle questioned the Republicanism of Gen. Drum, but did not go to the length of denying it. Mr. McKinney reaffirmed what he had said as a fact within his own knowledge, and repeated that the only rebel flags returned had been returned by Republicans. This incident recalls the confession made by Gov. Fairchild of Wisconsin, after he had invoked "three kinds of palsy" on the author of the rebel-flag order, that his information about it came in a telegram "from his friend Gen. Drum." It is very clear now that when Gen. Drum sent the telegram to his friend Fairchild he expected to receive congratulations in return, and not any kind of palsy.

Probably no harm will come from the passage of Senator Cullom's resolution to investigate the relations of Canadian railroads with transportation across the continent, although there was a good deal of rubbish mixed up with it. The Canadian Pacific Railway, we are told, is now carrying 42 per cent. of the tea that we consume. Well, what of that? If they are doing so, they must be doing it at a loss, because they have a more difficult and expensive line to operate than ours. If they are doing it at a loss, they are giving us some of their money, which Senators ought not to object to except upon strictly political grounds. If they are doing it at a profit, then our own railroads are to blame for allowing the Canadians to pick up business under their noses. So as to business taken from American ports on the Pacific to American points east of the mountains: we venture to say that every pound of freight so carried has been carried at a loss, or at least without profit, the Inter-State Commerce Law being non-operative as to that traffic. It will probably be found that not more than 5 per cent. of the traffic naturally belonging to American lines has been taken by the Canadian Pacific, and that upon this 5 per cent. the Canadians have no reason to congratulate themselves. But there can be no objection to the investigation except that it involves a certain amount of useless bickering, and plays into the hands of those who seek to multiply difficulties with foreign countries in order to help the "home market."

The continued indifference of the Post-office Department to the doings of Postmaster Jones of Indianapolis is one of the crying scandals of the day. The impunity he has enjoyed, and continues to enjoy, has done more harm to the Administration than all the "work" of one thousand Joneses could repair in a year. For the President makes a great mistake if he supposes that the mischief done by a man like Jones is confined to the State in which it is carried on. As we long ago pointed out to him, it is not possible, in these days of telegraphs and cylinder presses, to confine the results of abuses to States in which the reform sentiment is feeble. The idea that the spoils system can be allowed to thrive without damage in States in which it is vigorous, provided it be cut down remorselessly in States in which the reformers are numerous and powerful, has been proved to be utterly fallacious. Indiana or Maryland scandals cannot be confined to Indiana and Maryland. The whole Union hears of them. Thousands in other States who supported Mr. Cleveland in 1884 are disgusted or alienated by them, and led to doubt whether he has done any good at all, or to underestimate grossly the good he has done. The reports which the Civil-Service Reform Association in Indianapolis continues to make on Jones's doings are simply sickening, and, as far as we can learn, they are neither denied nor deniable. The last one, besides the record of apparently unjustifiable dismissals among the carriers to make room for Democratic workers, tells of one shocking appointment, that of a man named Tompkins, who had, as shown by the records of the Marion County Criminal Court, pleaded guilty in November of last year to an indictment of giving liquor to a minor—namely, a school-girl of thirteen—whose acquaintance he made at the post-office while he was serving as a clerk, and whom he enticed to "a resort" out side the city. The charge is that, though Tompkins was suspended when arrested for this offence, he was, after his conviction and the payment of his fine, restored by Jones to his clerkship, "and is in that position now," the report says. "Nearly all these facts," it adds, "have been brought before the Administration." We hope and believe this one is not among the number. We cannot believe that the President is knowingly allowing Jones to get *full* swing.

Signor Cesare Rosmini, in the current number of the *Giornale degli Economisti*, presents the Italian side of the immigration question which is now awaiting solution at the hands of a Congressional committee, reviewing at length the bill introduced into the Italian Parliament by the Crispi Ministry. Such a law has long been demanded by Italian statesmen and economic and statistical societies, but the steady opposition of Signor Depretis defeated all action in this direction. On July 29, 1887, however, Depretis died, and in the speech with which the King opened the XVI. Parliament, November 16, he announced that the Government would request the assent of that body to an emigration law; and a month later such an act was introduced. Its most important provisions are as follows: The licensing of domiciled Italian citizens as emigration agents for one year by the Minister of the Interior on the proposition of the prefect of the province. The agent must deposit 1,000 to 3,000 lire ($200 to $600) as security against sudden losses of emigrants resulting from his action or negligence, to be disbursed on the award of a Governmental commission. A copy of the contract must be given to the emigrant. The agent is forbidden under penalty to ask or receive compensation from emigrants, except for sums actually disbursed on their account; to counsel, induce, or excite emigration; to furnish emigrants with shipping, to mediate between them and the shipping company, or to accompany them to the place of embarkation or destination. Clergymen and local officers who promote emigration, even without the desire of gain, are likewise liable to punishment, as are all who procure or give shipping to emigrants unprovided with proper papers. The spreading of false information, with fraudulent intent to promote emigration, is punishable as swindling. Finally, the Government is armed with full ordinance power.

Mayor Hewitt announces that he is not a candidate for another term, that he does not want to be Mayor again, does not expect to be, and does not intend to be if he can help it; but that there are things that he wants to see started, and things that have been started which he wants to see carried on to completion, and that "if the people should go ahead and elect me, that would be something I could not help and could not run away from," and he "would have to take it as a matter of duty." There ought to be no doubt about the action of the people. Mr. Hewitt has his weaknesses and infirmities, but the average of his official action is exceedingly high, and the city will be blind to its own interests if it does not command his services for another term, now that it is evident he would obey its command.

The fight between the Liberals and Tories over the Commission Bill, providing a judicial tribunal to inquire into the charges of the London *Times* against the Parnellites, practically ended last week in the reporting of the bill from the Committee of the Whole, after a debate of extraordinary acrimony. The Government has been dragged into proposing it little by little, and little by little has made it as disadvantageous to the Parnellites as possible. The *Times* pamphlet was originally really a campaign document of the kind with which we are very familiar in this country, and fortified, in order to make it more sensational, by a copy of a letter purporting to have been written by

Parnell, expressing satisfaction with the assassination of Burke and Cavendish. Incautiously the Ministers were led, both on the stump and in the House of Commons in the fury of debate, to refer to it now and again as a true description of the Irish Home-Rulers, probably hardly foreseeing the consequences of treating seriously accusations of this kind against members of Parliament, and thinking they could confine themselves to taunting Parnell with not bringing a libel suit—and probably forgetting, too, as they often do in their rage, that the Irish really are members of the House. This gave the Irish an advantage, of which they promptly availed themselves to ask for a Parliamentary Committee of Investigation, which was refused; but the refusal made even fair-minded Tories uneasy about the situation.

The matter then lay quiet for a while, until the Attorney-General, a member of the Cabinet, in another incautious mood, took a brief for the *Times* in the O'Donnell libel suit, and produced the *Times's* pamphlet in his speech, strengthened with more assassination letters from Parnell, and in fact committing himself to the assumption that Parnell was an accessory to a murder. Coming from the highest law officer of the Crown, this was, of course, a prodigious blunder, and really committed him to a criminal prosecution of Parnell, and made the cry, "Why don't you sue the *Times?*" absolutely ludicrous. After this there seemed nothing for it but to grant a special investigation of some kind. The former refusal made it impossible to grant a Parliamentary committee, so the plan of a judicial commission was devised. The Parnellites wanted the inquiry confined, and it looks as if it was originally intended to be confined, to the authenticity of the letters, but the *Times* and the Attorney-General seem to have been greatly alarmed over this, because it is now admitted that the authenticity of the letters cannot be proved, and they therefore induced the Government to extend the inquiry to all the charges made by the *Times*, and to "other persons" besides members of Parliament. In this way, if the evidence about the letters breaks down, the effect will, it is hoped, be neutralized or softened by a cloud of other testimony about the crimes of the National League and the violent speeches of the agitators. The result has been reached by an amount of subterfuge, evasion, self-contradiction and wriggling on the part of the Ministry which makes the affair one of the most discreditable chapters in English politics. But, in spite of everything, the inquiry must do good. The three judges are men who will not be led astray by clap-trap or elocution, and their report will reduce the *Times* charges to the proper dimensions. One has only to glance at these charges to see that a tribunal like this must make sad havoc among them.

We learn from the London *Economist* that the Telegraph Department of the British Post-office is being worked, not only at a loss, but a loss which is increasing every year. The annual loss was £112,000 in 1881-2, and £471,000 in 1886-7. In the expenditures of the telegraph service is of course included interest (at 3 per cent.) on the capital invested in the purchase of the telegraph lines, for which the State paid, according to the *Economist*, much too high a price. But a very large portion of the deficit is caused, according to the report of the select Committee on Revenue Estimates, by the low rates for press messages, the loss in this branch of the work being computed to reach nearly £200,000. If this estimate is well founded, the *Economist* thinks there ought to be no hesitation in advancing press rates to the paying point, and is of opinion that no self-respecting newspaper would oppose such a step. There is no valid reason, says the *Economist*, why newspapers should receive this disguised subsidy; although they confer great benefits upon the country, they are after all business undertakings, in general amply able to pay their way, and if, while making money, they are performing a public service, the same may be said of the butcher and the baker.

Unionist circles in England either believe, or affect to believe, that the Tammany Society in this city is composed exclusively of Irishmen, and that the chief business of the organization is the planning of raids on the city treasury. We think it was Mr. Arthur Arnold who pointed out in a magazine article that the Tweed Ring also contained Irishmen only, and that its operations afforded a fair illustration of what would go on in all the Irish towns in case Ireland obtained home rule. We need hardly say that this view has obtained frequent and powerful support from our friend Prof. Goldwin Smith, writing from his eyrie in Toronto, and that it has done good service on the Unionist stump. Unluckily, however, the Government investigation into the doings of the London Board of Works has revealed a state of things which shows that even among the Saxons of that city "pulls" and "boodle" are by no means unknown. In fact, it has ruined the Tammany argument against home rule. The *Daily Telegraph*, a furious Tory and Jingo sheet, thus speaks of the revelations now made:

> "Nobody will now dispute that probably for a good many years past the chair of the excellent Lord Magheramorne has been planted at the side of one of the most corrupt organizations that the history of any modern community can show. Corruption seems to have been the very oxygen which—if that respectable and valuable gas will excuse us the metaphor—a certain class of the Board's officers and servants habitually inhaled. It was the breath of their official life, the ozone of their administrative existence. All these gross scandals and abuses, all this giving and taking of commissions, all these levyings and payments of blackmail, were going on for years under the very eyes—nay, under the very nose—of this blameless official and most estimable man; but no whiff of the vile odor of all these malpractices seems ever to have assailed his nostrils, no faintest jingle of ill-gotten gains seems ever to have reached his ear."

The coöperative experiment in England is of much greater age than might be inferred from noting that the recent Coöperative Congress at Dewsbury was numbered the twentieth. Back at least to 1849 and the Christian Socialism of Maurice and Kingsley, does the movement date. Indeed, we believe that Mr. Neale, the President of the Congress, was himself associated with Ludlow and Maurice in the organization of the first workingmen's coöperative society. However that may be, the Dewsbury meeting served to bring out the great proportions now reached by an enterprise whose beginnings were of the humblest. The United Kingdom now has 1,350 coöperative stores, supplying more than 920,000 members. Their sales amounted to more than $120,000,000 last year, and the profits shared reached nearly $15,000,000. This last sum represents the annual saving now effected by dispensing with the profits of middlemen. It cannot be denied, therefore, that the experiment in distributive coöperation has been a great success. Yet, on its face, it is but a partial and self-limited solution of the question it attacks. Distributive without productive coöperation is a one-legged affair, and the record of experiments in productive coöperation is almost wholly one of failures. The Congress voted to take up that work anew, but the past is not reassuring. Merely distributive coöperation, even if carried to the greatest possible extent, and made to reach all of the 5,000,000 families of Great Britain, might not mean a higher standard of living. As Lassalle pointed out, it might mean lowered wages, under the stress of competition, thus really neutralizing the saving now effected by coöperative stores.

The distinct promise made by the new Emperor, in his speech to the German Parliament, to enact laws for the benefit of the poor, has a partial fulfilment in the measure of socialistic legislation which has recently passed the Bundesrath. The first of Bismarck's laws in the interest of workingmen, along the line of the demands of the Socialists, was, it will be remembered, that providing for a pension to workmen disabled by an accident. The new law extends the system to invalided workingmen and those who may reach the age of seventy years. The scheme is to operate in the following manner: An insurance fund is to be accumulated to which workingmen themselves, employers, and the Empire, each contribute equally. Men are to subscribe five cents per week and women about four cents, each employer of labor is to add as much as the sum drawn from all his work-people, and the Government will give its third. From the sum thus obtained, a pension of sixty-two cents a week will be paid to any who are kept from working by sickness, and to all who have passed their seventieth year. Measures thus purely socialistic seem now to be the settled policy of Bismarck, undertaken in the hope of drawing the fangs of the Socialist party. Thus far he has certainly met with little success in that purpose, as the Socialist vote keeps on growing, and the Socialist party, far from being conciliated by his half-way laws, laughs at them and pushes on its propaganda with redoubled zeal.

LAODICEAN POLITICS.

DR. STORRS has written a long letter to the *Independent*, explaining the saying attributed to him by Dr. Cuyler, that he was so perplexed and displeased by the Republican platform that nothing seemed left for him but to "take to the woods." He qualifies this now as an "idle word," representing "a real feeling of uncertainty and unrest" from which he has not altogether escaped, "though it becomes increasingly probable that he will again vote for the Republican ticket"; at least, that "seems the conclusion towards which his mind drifts," though his dislike of the platform is as great as ever. But he thinks that, on the subject of temperance, reliance is rather to be placed on the Republican party than on the Democrats, and, as to the tariff, although he again denounces the utterances of the Republican platform as absurd, nevertheless, "in view of the majestic history of the party," etc., he "waits to see if such a revision of the tariff as appears to him demanded will not be accepted by the party as a near and an imperative duty."

The letter is interesting as an illustration of the way in which the mind of a good man who does not give particular attention to politics, and lives under strong habits and traditions, works about election time, and postpones or fends off the disagreeable necessity of taking any positive step in the direction of a change for the better, even when he acknowledges that such a change is needed. It is still more interesting, however, to the student of American politics, as an illustration of the agencies which have brought the Republican party into its present troubles. If we were asked by a young man to explain to him the process by which the party of Greeley, and Sumner, and Lincoln, and Chase, and Seward had become the party of Blaine, and Quay, and Elkins, and Shook, and Reid, and Ford, we doubt if we could do better than put into his hands Dr. Storrs's letter, with some such comment as this:

A party begins inevitably to decline in force when its founders die out and its principal aim has been accomplished; and it must necessarily do so because it is not a church, and is, therefore, not a divinely appointed depositary of revealed truth, or a divinely appointed means of individual edification. It has no corporate existence whatever. It is simply the agreement, necessarily transitory, of a large body of voters to try to embody some particular idea or set of ideas in legislation, or intrust the execution of the laws to the hands of a particular set of men. The only way in which we are made aware of its existence or of its aims is through the pledges it exacts of the legislators whom it elects, the platforms in which it enunciates its principles, and the kind of men it puts in high office.

Except through this manifestation, no one knows anything about a party. Its members have nothing in common but their momentary agreement to say certain things on certain topics, and to support these things by voting together at certain elections. But we inevitably get into the way, in countries of universal suffrage, of talking of the men who take charge of the machinery as "the party"—that is, the men call the conventions together and regulate their proceedings, and we finally come to think of them as "the party." And after talking and thinking of them as the party, for a time, we soon get into the habit of ascribing to them a corporate existence, with a sort of transmitted goodness and purity, or spiritual efficacy, like "holy orders" in the Catholic and Episcopal Church, so that each of them, however unworthy personally, will, in his relations to the party, and in his action for the party, be moved by a special inherent and perpetual grace, of which he cannot, as long as he speaks for the party, divest himself by any ordinary sin or iniquity. Under this view the party, of course, never ceases to be the party of the original founders; and Blaine, Quay, Elkins, Shook, Reid, and Ford continue to be, and are for for all party purposes, Greeley, Sumner, Lincoln, Chase, and Seward, to the eye of the faithful man.

Once this corporate continuity of character and aims is established in behalf of the party, and men like Dr. Storrs are got to accept it, of course persistence in any line of error or folly becomes easy, and change for the better hard. "The party," for instance, has for twenty years been promising to revise the tariff, but has steadily refused to do so. Dr. Storrs says this ought to be done, but when he asks the party why it is not done, the answer is simple—in fact, he makes it himself. "Matt" Quay will say: "You trusted Lincoln to do what was right eventually, did you not? Then why do you not trust us? For all party purposes we are Lincoln, and Seward, and Sumner, and Chase rolled into one. We are heirs of all their purposes and aspirations, and just as sure to come out right in the end as they were. You admit that our past, including that of Blaine, Dorsey, Shook, and Reid, is 'majestic,' and you must surely see that, this being the case, although we have for twenty years or so never shown the smallest intention of altering the tariff, except to raise it, we are pretty sure to reduce it before long. In fact, we cannot help ourselves. The reduction of the tariff being, as you say, a 'near and imperative duty,' and duties of this sort being very attractive to us, we are almost certain to buckle down to the work within a few years. If we do not, we shall transmit 'the majestic history' which we have received from our precursors, to other managers who will come after us, and, you may rely upon it, the tariff will be revised, either before you die or afterwards. In the meantime, do not lose heart or hope, but vote our ticket as usual. We are as sound on the liquor question as on the tariff, although it may not seem so to the casual observer. Our brothers Shook and Reid may now and again seek to 'give Republican saloon-keepers the protection to which they are entitled,' but this ought not to cause you to mistrust them, because, in virtue of the law of the party's being, the persistence of such men in error is impossible. How often has the Christian Church fallen into corrupt ways, and made discreditable concessions to sinners; but how surely has she in the end come back to her primitive purity."

CAMPAIGN LYING.

LATE in the canvass of 1880, after the Republicans had succeeded in making the tariff an issue, the Republican National Committee issued from their headquarters in this city and Brooklyn the following card:

[From a pamphlet issued by the Free-Trade Club of London.]

"Let it be understood, once for all, that the salvation of England depends upon the destruction of American manufactures, and that the only possible way in which American manufactures can be destroyed is by free trade. This can only come through Democracy, and Democracy can only secure control of this republic by the votes of Irishmen. How England must laugh in her sleeve as she sees the men who left their homes vowing vengeance, serve her interests by working for a party which, if it gets control of the country, will inevitably carry out the policy she most desires!"

Mr. David A. Wells promptly pounced on this as a fraud and exposed it, challenging Stephen W. Dorsey, the precious scamp who, as Secretary of the National Committee, then had charge of the "majestic history" of the Republican party, to produce the pamphlet. Dorsey, after waiting three weeks, and submitting to nearly as much prodding as Mr. Foster about the "fat" circular, came forward, and in thoroughly characteristic fashion flatly denied that the Committee had issued any such card. This was too bold, however, for a cloud of witnesses at once appeared to testify to the issue of whole bundles of it, both in this city and Brooklyn, and Dorsey disappeared into the obscurity in which he has ever since lived, except when he was under trial as a Star-route thief. There never was any such pamphlet, or any such club as "The Free-Trade Club." The whole thing was a pure invention, and yet it was simply the most barefaced of many similar ones.

Proofs that our Republican friends are again resorting to the same tactics pour in on us now every day. Devices of this kind are very hard to meet, because they are rarely resorted to through the newspaper press, and therefore one only hears of them in a measure accidentally. The instrumentality is usually oral gossip, or hand-bills addressed to workingmen. An illustration of the former of these methods came to us within a day or two, from a respectable correspondent in the West, whose letter we reproduce, suppressing the names.

DEAR SIRS: A gray-haired lawyer, formerly of your city, and a friend of Levi P. Morton, always damages my arguments, based upon your facts and lines of thought, by declaring that the *Evening Post* property is mortgaged for $500,000 to two members of the Cobden Club at 2 per cent. Innuendo that you are bribed.

The statement, to be sure, has nothing to do with the value of the arguments, but hurts me on facts with two doubtful men in our office, and if you can see no objection to denying the statement, you would confer a favor on me by so doing. His name is ——, and to my denials he said it was matter of record to his knowledge.

No offence whatever if I receive no answer.

Yours respectfully, ——.

We presume, in the ordinary relations of life, this "gray-haired lawyer" is a scrupulous and truthful man; but when the tariff is attacked, he has no hesitation in becoming a deliberate and circumstantial liar. As a general rule these oral lies are, in order to make them effective, backed up by "personal knowledge" of the facts. In the canvass of 1884 a reader in this city made known to us that a friend of his, living a short distance in the country, had accounted to him for the course of the *Times* and the *Evening Post* by alleging that he knew personally of the pecuniary inducements applied to the editors of these journals, respectively, in order to get them to support Cleveland. On hearing this, we made the most tempting offers to persuade him to come to town and expose the wretches to public disgrace in the presence of any reputable witnesses, but never could induce him to open his mouth or move an inch again. He will probably now carry his secret with him to the grave.

The Chicago *Tribune*, we perceive, has just been having a similar experience. A report has been spread through several country newspapers that the editor had received money from the Cobden Club, in the usual way, for "supporting free-trade doctrines." The editor calls for "names, dates, and specifications," and promises, if the author of the story will come forward, to convict him in the courts of lying. But he will never get any names, dates, or specifications, nor will the author appear. Such tales are not intended to be proved. They are intended to close the ears of ignorant people between now and November to facts and arguments that would probably otherwise affect their votes. It is, as the Chicago *Tribune* says,

"amazing that intelligent men should be fooled in this day and generation by the silly old Cobden Club hobgoblin. The Cobden Club is a poor organization, half dead and half alive, without any funds, and never having had enough to pay the small expense of circulating documents."

But intelligent men are not fooled by it. It is meant for the more ignorant workingmen, and particularly the Irish, who seem to be in this country the chief prey of demagogues and impostors. The opponents of tariff reform are at this moment circulating another forgery, purporting to be an extract from the London *Times*, to the effect that "the only use England has for Irishmen now is to send them to the United States to vote for Cleveland and free trade." Of course this is an impudent invention, like Dorsey's in 1880, but it will probably be of use to its concocters. Retract it, or apologize for it, or feel ashamed of it, they never will.

Another and very common form of campaign lying is the issue of hand-bills addressed to workingmen — or "wage-earners," as they are called—showing, sometimes by anecdote, sometimes by argument, and sometimes by figures, the dreadful consequences to American labor should the Mills bill become a law. We have a sheaf of these documents lying on our table now. Of the arguments we have nothing to say on the score of dishonesty. There is hardly any fallacy so gross, on questions of trade and taxation, that it may not be held and used in good faith. But the columns of figures intended to give a comparative view of the money received by workingmen in this country and in England, and of the cost of clothing, provisions, etc., in the two countries, are generally curious and interesting examples of what may be called oscillatory falsehood. The writer does not lie straight down either one column or both, but oscillates from one to the other. If he tells the truth, for instance, about the wages paid in one trade in London, he will lie about the wages paid in the same trade in New York, or vice versa. And when he tells the truth about the cost of a particular article in New York, he will lie about its cost in London, and so on. There is no way that we know of directly counteracting the mischief done by these leaflets. No authority is given for their statements. The author's name is unknown, and so is the source from which they are issued, and they cannot be followed in their circulation. They are probably the most flagrant appeals ever made in American politics to sheer ignorance and gullibility, and can only be met by the equally diligent diffusion of facts taken from official documents and capable of verification.

THE FIGURES AS TO TARIFF REDUCTION.

Many inquiries are now being made as to the way in which the average rate of duty, and the average reduction of duty proposed by the Mills bill, are estimated. Some complaint has been made that the slight reduction of the average duty shown by considering only the dutiable list is deceptive. One or two inquiring correspondents have remarked that if the Mills bill had put all but a few articles on the free list, and had placed a duty of 100 per cent. on those, there would have been, on the basis of the dutiable list alone, an increase of rate, although the customs duties had been practically abolished. The *Tribune* a few days ago seized this idea and made it the basis of an elaborate attack. It will doubtless be of service to many readers to give some consideration to this and related matters.

In the first place, then, speaking broadly, the dutiable list is the proper basis for estimating the scale of the existing protective tariff. What people want to have an idea of, in the present discussion, is the rate at which the protected interests are protected, or, in other words, the percentage of discrimination that is given to them as against foreign producers. That percentage, in the case of the year ending June 30, 1887, was 47; namely, our imports of dutiable articles amounted to 450 million dollars, and the duty collected on them was 212 million dollars. Our imports of articles on the free list in the same year amounted to 233 million dollars. Now, if we were to add this to the amount of dutiable imports, and reckon the percentage of duty on the whole 683 million, we should find the average duty to be 31 per cent. But evidently this would not be a correct measure of the protection afforded by the present tariff. The free list consists of articles which receive no protection, most of which cannot receive any, and of all of which it may safely be said that there has been no demand worth mentioning for their protection, or they would certainly never have been put upon the free list by a Republican Congress. Of the whole importation on the free list one-third was coffee and tea, one-eighth chemicals, one-eighth hides, skins, and furs, one-twelfth unmanufactured silk; one-twelfth consisted of American products returned unaltered, and brown sugar imported free under the treaty with the Hawaiian Islands, and the remaining one-fourth partook of the general character of the above.

To compare the average rate of duty under the proposed bill with the present rate, Mr. Mills has taken the actual imports for the year ending June 30, 1887, of articles on the dutiable list of his bill; has found the aggregate amount of duty which these articles would have had to pay under the provisions of the bill; and has found what percentage of the total importation this duty would have been. It turns out to be (taking the bill as amended and sent to the Senate) 42½ per cent., as against 47 per cent. in the present tariff.

It must at once be admitted that these figures do not fully represent the reduction of the rate of protective duty. Some articles have been placed upon the free list against the strenuous protests of protectionists; the chief of these is raw wool, and the next in importance are raw flax, lumber, and salt; tin-plate belongs in a somewhat different category, as it is not produced in this country, though there has been a considerable outcry about putting it on the free list. The total amount of duties remitted by articles being placed on the free list is $20,000,000, and to this amount the articles above enumerated (including tin-plate) contributed about three-fourths; the remaining articles placed on the free list are chiefly chemicals, and other materials of the same general nature as those previously placed on the free list by Republican Congresses.

It would be a mistake, however, to suppose that any great reduction would have been shown if we had made the whole importation, instead of dutiable articles only, the basis of our calculations. The total importations of the year amounted to $683,000,000; the remission of duty which the Mills bill—free list and all—has made on these is $50,000,000, which is 7¼ per cent. of that total; in other words, if we considered the aggregate imports instead of the dutiable list alone, the average rate of duty on the imports actually made in the year 1886-87 would have been 7¼ per cent. lower by the Mills bill than by the existing tariff, instead of 4½ per cent. as found above.

To all these calculations several objections may be justly made. In the first place, it may be said that the placing of certain arti-

cles on the free list will cause an increased importation of them, so that the figures of the year 1886-87 should be increased for the purposes of this estimate. Secondly, it may be said that where a duty was practically prohibitory, the imports under it were too small to appreciably affect the average, and its reduction would not be perceptible; of course, this remark cuts both ways. A point much more important to notice is, that, in a prominent class of cases, the reduction of protection is not as great as would appear from the figures. The chief illustration of this is in the item of woollen goods, the duty on which has been reduced by just the amount that had been laid on to compensate for the duty on the raw material. The average duty on woollens has been reduced from 59 to 39 per cent., and the reduction of duties thus effected amounts to $12,000,000, which is two-fifths of the total reduction made on the dutiable list; and this reduction, so large a part of the whole, while being so much saved to consumers, cannot be regarded as a diminution of protection at all. This consideration alone far outweighs all the objections that may be made to the figures by high-tariff advocates.

Finally, it must be said that no method of averaging, based on amounts of imports, can give an accurate idea of the actual rate of protection. In making such an average, the weight attributed to each article is made proportional to the amount of it imported, whereas, to measure its importance in a scheme of protection, it ought rather to be made proportional to the amount produced at home, though even this would be open to serious objection. Nothing can be substituted for an actual examination of the chief provisions of the tariff; and any one who will take the trouble to make such an examination will see how carefully the Mills bill has been framed, in almost all its points, to secure cheaper necessaries and cheaper raw materials, with extremely little disturbance of existing industries. But, as few can take the trouble to satisfy themselves of this the brief rough statement that can be made in a word must serve on most occasions. And we trust that the considerations above presented suffice to show that when we say that the Mills bill makes the average rate of duty on dutiable goods 42½ per cent., instead of 47 per cent., and that it places raw wool, raw flax, hemp and jute, lumber, salt, tin-plate, certain chemicals, and a few other articles on the free list, we give as fair a statement of the proposed tariff reduction as can be made in a few words.

THE NEW VIEW OF CHEAPNESS.

SOME months ago, Gen. Harrison, the Nominal Candidate of the Republican party, said in a speech in Chicago:

"I am one of those uninstructed political economists that have an impression that some things may be too cheap; that I cannot find myself in full sympathy with this demand for cheaper coats, which seems to me necessarily to involve a cheaper man and woman under the coats."

As about 90 per cent. of the male population of this country wear ready-made clothing, and, as a matter of necessity, take great pains to get it as cheaply as possible, this seemed a very hard saying, and we have commented on it with some severity. The Chicago *Herald* has since taken the same view of it, and asked, as it seemed to us, with much force:

"Why should a cheap coat involve a cheap man under it? And if a man is obliged to wear a cheap coat, why should he not be allowed to buy the best one possible for the money he can lay out?"

Upon this it was taken to task with much sharpness by Gen. Harrison's home organ, the Indianapolis *Journal*, which asked very sternly:

"Do you not know, as a matter of fact, that tailors and seamstresses, men and women, now sew for very low wages, and that to cheapen clothes would be to lower wages, thus bringing tailor and seamstress nearer to the starvation point and making cheaper men and women?

"Do you not know that this was what Gen. Harrison meant?

"Do you not know that a very large majority of the male population in this country, probably 90 per cent., wear ready-made clothing the year round?

"Do you not know that a common, a good, or a first-rate ready-made all-wool suit of clothing can be bought in this country to-day as cheap as or cheaper than in any other, and, we may add, much better made and better fitting?

"Do you not know that the repeal of the duty on wool could not possibly reduce the price of ready-made clothing unless a reduction of wages followed?"

We were, on reading this, beginning to feel sorry for the wretched *Herald*, whose ignorance or cruelty was thus remorselessly exposed, when our eye fell on the following from another Republican organ, the St. Louis *Globe-Democrat*, quoted with approval on Monday by the great organ of all, the New York *Tribune:*

"We beg leave to remind our Democratic friends once more that the price of whiskey has been quadrupled and that of clothing quartered by the Republican party in the last twenty or twenty-five years."

It would thus appear—if the Indianapolis school of economists be correct in their doctrine, that "to cheapen clothes is to lower wages"—that the Republican party has cut down wages in the clothing trade 75 per cent. within the last twenty-five years, and has poured brine on the wound by raising the price of whiskey in the same proportion. A more extraordinary confession to be made by a party which is going into this canvass as the friend of the workingman, it would be difficult to conceive.

We now see that the more Gen. Harrison's objection to cheap clothing is discussed, the harder of comprehension it becomes even to his own supporters. The only way we can think of in which he could clear the matter up, would be to put himself, in another speech, in the place of a laboring man—whether mechanic, or operative, or farmer, matters not—and give us a sample of the reflections with which such a man should prepare for the purchase of a suit of clothing, say in the fall, when the chill in the air warns him to get ready for the winter. His means are of course small. To provide his family with lodgings, food, and clothing tasks his resources to the uttermost, and often leaves him unable to make any provision for sickness or loss of work; every dollar is precious to him. But the time comes when he must have a new suit of clothes. He knows of one store where he can get it for $15, but he knows, or has been told, of another where he can get the same thing exactly for $12. Now, what we want from Gen. Harrison and his organ, and what they ought to supply, is an outline of the debate with himself which the poor man ought to carry on before deciding at which store he will purchase. If he follows Gen. Harrison's advice, and buys the dear suit, in order to avoid becoming "a cheap man," his wife and children and neighbors and creditors will think him a crank, will consider that he has wasted three dollars, and will begin to fear that his earning days are nearly over; while if he buys the cheap suit, he will, according to the Indianapolis *Journal*, not only feel cheap himself, but lower wages. Such a situation is sure to be most puzzling to the untaught mind of the average poor man, and he ought to be helped in dealing with it by an argumentative tract from some high Republican authority.

We would respectfully suggest that Gen. Harrison should put into the same speech an outline of the letter which an American commission merchant or manufacturer in New York should write to his agent in Brazil or Chili in order to procure orders for American products from those countries, when that "regular [subsidized] mail communication" is established which, the Nominal Candidate says, is all that is necessary to give us profitable commercial intercourse with those countries. As matters now stand, we speak advisedly when we say that not a single manufacturer or dealer in this country knows what to say in such a letter, particularly as he would have to begin by repeating Gen. Harrison's warning that we will never allow any foreign goods to be offered for sale in our markets, on equal terms. At present, without the further light which Gen. Harrison may hereafter throw on the subject, it would have to be something of this sort:

NEW YORK, November 8, 1888.

DEAR SIR: We take the liberty of enclosing herewith a price-list of the leading articles of American manufacture, in which we shall be pleased to execute your orders in this market. You will note, doubtless, that the prices are all, or nearly all, from 30 per cent. to 50 per cent. higher than those of similar articles in England and on the continent of Europe, which you will, we feel sure, not object to pay, both in order to maintain your own self-respect and to enable us to keep up the wages of the laboring man in this country. It is proper to add that should you think of paying for the same in goods of your own the like of which are produced here, even in small quantities, it cannot be permitted, this market being reserved exclusively for American sellers. Any dealings we have with you will, therefore, have to be for coin, and particularly silver, of which we are now seeking to accumulate as large a store as possible. You will be rejoiced to know that, owing to the regular mail communication with your country recently established by our Government, we shall be able to forward you a communication of like tenor and effect with this one, every week, which must, we are sure, inure to our mutual advantage.

Trusting to hear from you in due course, and thanking you in advance for the orders you would probably like to send, but will not send, we remain, with great respect,

Your faithful servants,

LUNKHEAD & CO.

THE CANADIAN NORTHWEST.

THE negotiations in progress between the Northern Pacific Railway Company and the Provincial Government of Manitoba, respecting an entrance to and a commercial alliance with that country on the part of the railway corporation, have a deeper significance than appears upon the surface—deeper, perhaps, than the negotiators themselves are aware. As regards the details of the bargain, we have no knowledge beyond what the telegrams from Winnipeg furnish. These imply that the Manitoba people turn over to the Northern Pacific Company the line from Winnipeg to the border recently undertaken by their Government, and that the company will build a new line from Winnipeg to Portage La Prairie, to connect there with the Manitoba and Northwestern Railroad, which is already in operation for a distance of upwards of 140 miles into the heart of the great Valley of the Saskatchewan, and will extend the latter line still further northwestward, the Manitoba Government to guarantee the bonds of the new roads to the extent of $6,500 per mile.

We do not assume the correctness of the details of this arrangement, but as to its general features and its quite inevitable consequences we have no doubt. The Canadian Northwest is to receive a new development, its interests are to be allied with those of our own Northwestern States, and eventually there will be a commercial union on the basis of reciprocal free trade, to be followed by political union in the fulness of time. These unions will not be confined to the northwestern provinces of Canada, but will embrace all the British mainland of North America, and when the time comes that the people of Canada see their interest and their inclination this way, the mother-country will offer no opposition.

If the political union of the two countries is desirable, commercial union is the surest step to bring it about. This is the opinion of all parties in Canada, both those who favor and those who oppose it. The obstacle to union at the present time, as in the past, lies in the hearts of the people. Commercial antipathies, rivalries, jealousies, and fishery disputes growing out of hostile tariffs, have borne their natural fruit. Good feeling, the necessary precursor to union of any kind, does not grow out of unfriendly acts. When we abrogated the Treaty of 1854 we turned Canada away from our doors, forced her to seek new commercial relations, and postponed by a quarter of a century the consideration on her part of the question of entrance into the American Union. We will not now ask whether we were justified in abrogating that treaty. It is certain that we had some provocations growing out of the civil war, but in the greatness of our victory we might have overlooked them, and it would have been to our advantage to have done so.

At the present time we are told there is no party in Canada that dare avow the wish to link their fortunes with the United States; that there are men of prominence and influence here and there who do not hesitate to favor such a policy, but that they have no following worth making account of. This is probably true of old Canada, though not in the same degree as in the past. It is not true, however, of the Canadian Northwest. The prejudices of the olden time are scarcely felt in the new territory of the Saskatchewan, while the reasons for union between these people and their neighbors across the border are much stronger than anywhere else in the Dominion. The long distance that separates them from any civilized communities of their own confederation, the bleak and sterile nature of the country to be traversed, forbidding the hope of any considerable settlement of it at any future time, the cost of transportation, and the loss of time—all conspire to turn the eyes of these people southward for trade and for social sympathy. How powerful these influences are, the recent breaking up of the Canadian Pacific Company's monopoly in that country, at a cost to the Canadian Government of $15,000,000, abundantly testifies. The maintenance of the monopoly would have led inevitably to the disruption of the Dominion.

And what is the Canadian Northwest? Few people in the United States have any adequate or proximate conception of its extent or value. It embraces an area of fertile land, fit for the homes of civilized people, of 200,000,000 acres, equal to the territory of Dakota and Montana together, abounding in coal—both anthracite and bituminous—natural gas, the precious metals, furs, timber, and water power, while in the attractiveness and variety of its natural scenery it surpasses anything in the United States or Europe. The climate of this region is somewhat, but not greatly, colder than that of Dakota, the isothermal lines running southeastwardly from the Mackenzie River to the southern bend of Lake Michigan. It is not too cold for the hardy populations of northern Europe, who eagerly seek to better their fortunes by occupying the country. One hundred and fifty thousand people now live and thrive there, and millions may do so as easily.

MANIPULATION IN WALL STREET.

THE lately renewed activity in Wall Street is ascribed by some well-informed and experienced heads wholly to "manipulation." This explanation, however true it may be, needs itself to be explained. The dulness and deadness of the past twelve months, and the decline in securities that followed the bursting of the Manhattan bubble, were ascribed in like manner to manipulation. So it appears that manipulation works both ways with equal facility. Down or up is all one to the manipulator. He is at home in any state of the weather, and as ready to turn a dishonest penny by a rise as by a fall. But what is manipulation?

It cannot be supposed that manipulation is a final cause—certainly not manipulation which takes opposite directions at different times. It is the resultant of other things. As generally understood, manipulation signifies a common understanding and design on the part of a clique of operators to raise or depress values in order to get other people's money, either by "shaking out" their securities or by "unloading upon them" at fictitious prices. This feat may be accomplished in a variety of ways, by making money tight or easy, by spreading false rumors, by selling short or buying long; but obviously such manipulation can be only short-lived. Money cannot be cornered, false rumors are soon corrected, and both selling and buying have very narrow limits when confined merely to cliques. Moreover, the cliques are subject to the laws of trade. It is to their interest to "manipulate" in accord with the facts of the business world in all cases. If they sometimes make mistakes, they never do so designedly. It is their intention always to go with the tide, never against it. Manipulation is therefore only anticipation expressed in acts. It may be based upon error, but it is nothing else than an attempt to reap a profit from something which is going to happen, but which the mass of the community have not yet divined or grasped.

Again, the manipulators are no select body of persons. They are Tom, Dick, and Harry to-day; Jones, Brown, and Robinson to-morrow. It may and often does happen that two sets of manipulators are working at cross purposes at the same time, having conflicting ideas of what is likely to come to pass, as whether crops are to be good or bad, whether railroad companies are going to make war upon each other or not, whether trade is to be profitable or unprofitable, whether the situation in Europe is peaceful or otherwise. Simultaneous and concerted manipulation in one direction is never long continued unless supported by facts. If we look back at the manipulations of the past year, we shall find that they were based upon a pretty general belief that business was dull and was likely to continue so for a good while; that times were bad and profits low, and that those who "bet their money" on that opinion would win. Accordingly, all the manipulations that have been complained of — and they have been almost incessant for twelve months — have been "on the bear side," and they have been pretty generally successful because the facts were on that side.

If now manipulation has taken the opposite tack, it means that the majority of those who make it their business to forecast the future of trade and industry anticipate better times. If the improvement in Wall Street is due to manipulation, the manipulation itself is due to a belief that there is a turn of the tide. This may be a wrong belief, but it certainly does exist. People do not manipulate for fun, but for profit. When we find a persistent and continued manipulation for a rise, we may be sure that the operators think that there are good grounds for a rise. Is this belief well founded? We shall not dogmatize on this subject, although the improved tone of Wall Street is the best evidence within reach that it is so. Wall Street is the focus of the country in the business sense. Whatever is known or can be known anywhere is known there. There all the streams of intelligence converge, and it

would be as easy to manipulate Niagara Falls up stream as to manipulate the money market, for any considerable time, counter to the true business situation of the country. All the professional operators conjoined with all the newspapers and stump speakers could not, more than momentarily, change the true set of the current.

With the single exception of the woollen industry, all trades are now fairly and increasingly prosperous, and we hear less of labor troubles than usual. The cereal crops, although not wholly out of danger, are highly promising, and the foreign demand for them is more encouraging than it has been in recent years. The small towns in the interior, and especially in the West, are full of business enterprise. The slackening of railway construction which was noticed at midsummer has been followed by a new season of activity, and as a necessary consequence the demand for iron has revived. These are some of the facts, probably the chief ones, that have changed the balance of manipulation in Wall Street from the bear to the bull side. They are all taken into the account, as they should be; but no manipulator or other business man imagines that the Mills bill will interfere in the least degree with the prosperous current that appears to have set in. Whatever politicians may say, nobody will bet a dollar on the theory that a small reduction of duties on imports and an enlargement of the list of free raw materials will check or interrupt the revival of industry. On the other hand, we ought to reckon on the probable reduction of the Treasury surplus, however that may come about, as one of the most important factors contributing to the present improved situation.

There is always danger, in times like these, that speculation will be overdone, but if we have not yet passed the stage of manipulation, if the upward movement is all the doing of the professionals, if the public are not yet in the swim, that danger is not imminent.

THE COPYRIGHT BILL IN THE HOUSE.

Although it is now more than two years and a half since the Chace bill was introduced into the Senate, it has only been before the House of Representatives officially a little more than four months. On March 19 the Senate Committee on Patents made its second report upon this bill, and on the same day, by prearrangement, Col. Breckinridge of Kentucky presented to the House (without remarks) a duplicate of the bill as formulated by the Senate Committee, after the public hearing held in March. This text included the so called "typographical amendment"—stipulating that only such books should be copyrighted as were "printed from type set within the limits of the United States," and the slightly modified prohibition of importation. The bill was read twice, ordered to be printed (as H. R. No. 8715), and referred to the House Committee on the Judiciary. After a public hearing of arguments in favor of the bill before this Committee, it was placed in the hands of a subcommittee, who drew up a favorable report, and on April 21 it was reported back to the House by Mr. Collins of Massachusetts, whereupon it was referred to the House calendar, and was again ordered to be printed with some slight verbal alterations.

The report was also printed as House Report No. 1875, a document of two pages. It begins by pointing out the insular position occupied by the United States in excluding aliens from laws protecting literary and artistic property, and says:

> "This bill proposes that the creators of this class of property, whether citizens or foreigners, shall be protected in the enjoyment of it within the limits of the United States. It is now the only species of property which stands unprotected by our laws. Its recognition and protection seem to rest upon the foundation of common honesty. The persistent confiscation of it has been a reproach to our people, a serious discouragement to our authors, a marked injury to our publishing trade, while working demoralization and debasement of our literature."

The passage of the bill will, the Committee are satisfied, "encourage and stimulate American authorship, designing, engraving, and all the arts that enter into the making of good books. By it our authors obtain a wider market—that of the whole world—while they are saved from the competition of the unpaid work of the foreign authors. It will unquestionably raise the standard of literary taste, also, by banishing the 'trashy' and the 'gas-light' literature from the field." The unanimity of "authors, publishers, type-setters, electrotypers, binders, booksellers, and all others engaged in making and distributing books" in their advocacy of the bill is dwelt upon, as also the care taken to insure that the books copyrighted shall be entirely manufactured in the United States. Finally, the Committee revert to the question: Will the price of books be increased under international copyright? and answer it in the negative, believing it certain that "the best books written by men and women all over the world will be sold in the United States for less than they are sold now"; and that "the general consensus of opinion, the argument pushed almost to a demonstration, is that all other books will be sold for as low a price as they are now," the experience of European countries before and after international copyright being considered by the Committee as conclusive on this point.

On Wednesday, May 9, the Senate passed the Chace bill, and on Friday, the 11th, the Speaker laid the Senate Act before the House of Representatives, whereupon it was read twice and referred to the Committee on the Judiciary. On May 24 Mr. Collins from that Committee presented a second report (No. 2311), noticeable for its brevity. It reads as follows: "This bill differs but slightly from the House bill of the same title already reported. The Committee report the Senate bill favorably and recommend its passage." Both report and bill were ordered printed, the latter being marked with the Senate number (S. 554), and entitled: "An act to amend title sixty, chapter three, of the Revised Statutes of the United States," such having been the title of the Chace bill from its first presentation in Congress. The Senate "act" was referred to the House calendar, taking the place of the prior House bill, under date of April 21. All bills entered before that date would, in ordinary course, take precedence of it. The edition of the House calendar prepared for Monday morning, July 30, indicated that on that day there were 147 bills in the Committee of the Whole House, 88 bills on the House calendar, and 402 on the private calendar, or 637 bills in all, waiting to be considered before it became the turn of the Copyright Bill. This condition of affairs precluded any hope of the latter being reached during this term in its regular turn. The alternative was to secure the setting aside of a future day for its discussion. This could only be brought about by obtaining unanimous consent to introduce a resolution to that effect, and on Monday week Mr. Collins presented a resolution setting apart Thursday, December 6, for the debate of the bill, and asked unanimous consent to have it considered. To this Mr. Rogers of Arkansas objected, and the resolution was lost. As a single objection to any similar resolution would defeat it, it is clearly not probable that a discussion can be secured this session, and the whole matter must therefore go over until next winter, when, Mr. Rogers said, he expected the bill to pass.

PHILIP H. SHERIDAN.

The death of General Sheridan closes the active service of the military officers for whom special rank was created by act of Congress. It is thus a reminder, serious and forcible, of the rapidity with which the generation is passing away that took an active part in the great civil war. Gen. Sherman remains, with the earnest good wishes of the nation that he may long enjoy a green old age; but he is upon the retired list, while Sheridan, a much younger man, falls in the midst of the active duties of commandant of the army at the comparatively early age of fifty-seven.

Grant, Sherman, and Sheridan are placed, by the popular verdict from which there is no appeal, as a trio of great men standing apart from all the other military chieftains on the national side in the great struggle with secession. It does not matter that Sheridan's active service was chiefly in lineal rank below that of Meade and Thomas, and that his appointment to the grade of Lieutenant-General over them was after the war had closed. The popular mind has taken the ultimate rank as the index of the war service, and, by an *ex post facto* decree, assigned its importance to a grade corresponding to the final recognition in rank which he received. It will be the historian's duty to recall all the incidents of his brilliant career, and to weigh all the circumstances which test his claim to highest military honors. To the people he will always be what Blücher was to the Prussians, the "Marshal Vorwärts," who was to them the embodiment of patriotic devotion and boiling, aggressive energy.

Sheridan was never tested by the supreme responsibility of the command of a great army in an important campaign, as Meade was at Gettysburg and Thomas at Nashville. Even his justly famous campaign in the Shenandoah was so connected with that of Grant against Lee as to be subordinate to it, and to be free from that accountability for decisive events which is by far the heaviest burden a general has to bear. It cannot be too often repeated

that the difference between the intellectual tests applied to the commander of an independent great army and to his most important subordinate are different in kind, and that the most glorious success in the latter is no proof of ability to sustain the former. Military history is full of examples of brilliant marshals who were unequal to supreme command.

It was Sheridan's great merit that he proved equal to all the increased responsibilities that were put upon him, and that his powers were manifestly and rapidly growing when peace put an end to his career in war on a great scale. He had been much slower in reaching prominence than numbers of his great rivals. It is doubtful if he himself had much confidence in his own military capacity till much experience in brigade and division commands had educated him to trust his own judgment, and to follow the inspiration of his moments of battle enthusiasm.

Born in March, 1831, he was just thirty years of age and a captain in the Thirteenth Infantry when the war began. His career at West Point had not been specially promising; indeed, he had for some reason been obliged to spend an extra year in completing the course. Seven or eight years had been spent in garrison life on the frontier and in the petty conflicts with the Indians of the Pacific Slope. The first organization of our great army of volunteers made it necessary to use many officers of the regular line in staff duty, and Sheridan probably regarded it as a lucky thing that he was assigned to duty as a quartermaster. A full year was spent in routine administrative duties, but in the spring of 1862 he was serving in this capacity on Halleck's staff after the battle of Shiloh. In the stir of an actual campaign the hot blood of his Irish ancestry showed itself in flashes of energy and originality even in his duties as quartermaster, and the opinion both Halleck and Grant then formed of him bore fruit later in the war. His transfer to a regimental command came, however, from the appreciation of him then formed by the officers and men of a volunteer regiment, and on their request he was made Colonel of the Second Michigan Cavalry. To be a captain of regulars and colonel of volunteers was then but a step from brigadier, and though a brilliant affair at Booneville was the occasion of the promotion, it was, in the rapid increase of the army, almost a matter of course. His new commission dated from July 1, 1862.

In the rearrangement of departments after the Corinth campaign, Sheridan was assigned to the Army of the Cumberland and shared its fortunes till the spring of 1864. He commanded a division under Buell in the battle of Perryville, and under Rosecrans in the battles of Stone's River and Chickamauga. His military reputation grew solidly, but his division had formed part of the right wing of Rosecrans's army, and was involved in the disasters which were the opening scenes in both the great engagements last named. His personal conduct was always heroic in battle; but it cannot be said that he had yet shown the power to grasp and control large bodies of men in a decisive moment. At Stone's River he had rallied his broken brigades and stubbornly defended the new line which was formed, and against which Bragg's assaults finally failed. At Chickamauga the break in the line occurred beyond his left, but his division was carried away in the disorderly retreat towards Chattanooga, and did not again come actively into the fight.

At Missionary Ridge he had part in the enthusiastic assault in which the men of the line, without orders, instinctively continued the rush after Bragg's retreating skirmishers up the hill, and carried the crest by that extraordinary and spontaneous inspiration which, as we now know, was as unexpected to their commanders as it was to the enemy whom it crushed. It is no reproach to the reputation of Grant or of Sheridan to recognize the fact that here, if ever, the goddess Fortune asserted her old-time control over the events of war. They were worthy of her favors, and knew how to use them. The glory of the result illumined all the actors in it, and begot a popular confidence which went far to sustain them in the desperate struggles of the next year.

Sheridan had been made a Major-General of volunteers after Stone's River, and his reputation was that of a good division commander, faithful to his superior officers, and with personal characteristics of impetuous courage and hot, enthusiastic nature which belong to brilliant personal leadership. His associates did not think of him as of one likely to show the broader intellectual comprehension of the problems of war or the strong grasp of a great leader. Army reputation among regular officers was so much a matter of class standing in the Military Academy, that it may be doubted if Sheridan himself, at this time, did not yield to the habitual assumption that the men who had stood higher than he at West Point were much more competent to command. He was afterwards accustomed to speak of these phases of his experience as "tests" through which he had passed, and by which he himself as well as others had learned what higher work he was capable of.

His transfer to the command of the cavalry of the Army of the Potomac was probably determined by Grant's feeling that he especially needed a leader then who could show an example of personal energy and enthusiasm which would beget a like spirit in his subordinates. The Confederate General Stuart had, rightly or wrongly as he thought, overtopped the cavalry leaders of the Potomac army in the matter of enterprise and personal prestige, and it is probable that Grant looked more to this quality in Sheridan than to his strictly intellectual endowments.

A few weeks' service, however, proved to Grant that his subordinate had qualities which surpassed his expectation, and his confidence in Sheridan grew rapidly and steadily to the very end of the war. The Shenandoah campaign satisfied him that he had no one so fit to be trusted with a detached command with powers of independent action; and whatever criticisms have been made upon the severity towards the inhabitants which marked the mode of carrying out his orders, there is no doubt that that favorite route for diversions against the advance of the Army of the Potomac was thenceforth closed. Here, as at Missionary Ridge, Fortune favored Sheridan, and his ride to Winchester, which in fact little resembled the popular account embalmed in story and in stirring verse, gave a romantic interest to his career, more effective with the public than the sterner and solider events of the campaign. He took the tide at the flood, and popular confidence stimulated him to double effort and greater trust in himself.

Under his handling, the cavalry of the Potomac army became practically a mounted infantry, using its horses for rapid locomotion, but fighting dismounted with fire-arms of sufficient range and with a sufficient steadiness of line formation to put them upon nearly equal terms with the ordinary line of battle. Its self-confidence and prestige rapidly grew, and the fruits of hard discipline and experience through the preceding campaigns were reaped under the new leader in an almost unbroken series of victories in combats great and small, from the Wilderness and Todd's Tavern to Five Forks and Sailor's Creek and Appomattox. The death of Stuart emphasized the change that came in the relative power of the cavalry arm in the opposing forces, and the Confederate Army, horse as well as foot, was kept pretty steadily on the defensive till the final surrender. In the closing campaign Sheridan was often intrusted with a mixed command which answered more nearly to the control of a wing of the army than to any other, and Grant lost no opportunity of showing his complete trust in the judgment as well as the dash of his favorite subordinate.

Sheridan's relations to other officers were usually cordial, but the ardor of his temperament led, at times, to collisions in which he was not always right. At Missionary Ridge he had charged Wood's division with appropriating cannon gathered, as he said, in the line of march of his own victorious brigades. Both in substance and in form the assertion was unjustifiable, as investigation has shown. It left wounds which never quite healed. A similar hastiness of temper was no doubt the cause of his unfortunate act in relieving Gen. Warren of command in the very moment of victory at Five Forks. The power to do so had been left in his discretion, but its exercise was in total misapprehension of Warren's spirit, and in ignorance of the wise and gallant conduct by which Warren was in the very act of achieving success. It crushed an officer who had few equals in the service. There is justice in the argument that the burning zeal and energy which brooks no delay in quick surmounting of obstacles, must almost necessarily ride over some whose misfortune it is to seem to be in the way; but as one and the other pass away from earth, we owe it to truth to point out the injustice or the error. The country owes a generous sympathy, if not a remorseful vindication, to one who suffered in her cause for faults mistakenly attributed to him, as well as an admiring tribute to the successful hero.

In the Franco-Prussian war Gen. Sheridan represented our army at the headquarters of the Prussian King. It has been much regretted that he published no memoir of his observations in the campaign of Sedan. In private conversation he indicated the opinion that our civil war had had great effect in modifying the tactics as well as the weapons of European armies, and that the military leaders of Germany and France had learned more from our experience than could be taught us by theirs. This meant that the European war had been the occasion for testing changes and improvements originating here, and for putting them into general practice, rather than for originating new methods. He had formed clear ideas as to the relative merits of the continental systems, and of the armies affected by them; but whether from disinclination for the theoretic presentation of such questions, or from an unwillingness to criticise either Frenchmen or Germans, he maintained a reserve in all public references to the subject.

His personal attachment to Gen. Grant was always warm and devoted, and the points of his public performance of duty since the war which have been most criticised were those in which, as in Louisiana and Texas, he was attempting to enforce what he believed to be the policy of his chief. Political life he was sincerely averse to, and limited his activity as far as possible to the strict performance of military duty. His devotion to the country

was unquestioned and unquestionable. His patriotism was pure and sincere. His great services and the romantic brilliancy of his career forbid that his fame should be forgotten, and it is likely to grow only more solid and glorious with time.

A COUNTY-SEAT WAR IN KANSAS.

GOODLAND, KAN., July 30.

ONE evening, early in the fall of '87, four men were driving through the streets of a small town in the extreme western part of Kansas. As they passed the principal drug-store, one of them cried out, "What's the matter with Eustis?" and they all shouted in chorus for reply, "She's all right!" A straggling group of men on the sidewalk gave them a cheer, and they drove on into the country.

Four miles of level road across the prairie brought them to a sod house, just as the lamps were being lighted. The homesteader came out and gave them a homely and hearty welcome, took the care of their horses upon himself, and ushered them within. Inside, one hardly realized that one was on the frontier. The walls were perfectly white and smooth, and hung with engravings. A deep window recess was filled with house-plants, and five or six men were talking around a cheerful coal fire. One of them was a candidate for the Legislature, another for a county office. They were all on their way to a political meeting, and had made this their rendezvous.

As soon as the party of a dozen or more had eaten supper, they drove some eight or nine miles to the schoolhouse at which the meeting was to be held. One to whom such a scene as the interior formed was new, could not but be impressed with its peculiarities. As a matter of course the building was made of turf. It was newly built, and nothing had been done towards finishing it. There was neither window nor door in the openings left for them, and the floor was the natural ground with the buffalo grass scraped off. From one of the planks which supported the roof hung a badly smoked lantern. Gathered in one end of the house was a small heap of pine blocks and shavings, from which every now and then some one would economically feed the feeble fire which burned primitively upon the ground, and which furnished most of the light and all the warmth for the audience. About thirty men were assembled. Some were perched in the deep window-seats; others, talking, in small groups, leaned against the turf walls, while most of them squatted, Indian-fashion, about the fire, and smoked or chewed tobacco.

Truly, it was not a promising outlook for an interesting and edifying discussion of public affairs. Yet the chief question at issue was so important, locally, the people present were so absorbed in its settlement and so anxious to see its bearings, that for three hours the little meeting continued, under the disadvantages of cold and partial darkness and the absence of seats, listening to the debaters. These spoke with energy always, generally with directness, and sometimes with genuine power. Entire courtesy was shown throughout, and the proceedings were marked with more dignity than one would have thought possible under the circumstances.

Many of the new counties in the West nowadays, at the time of their organization, pass through a fierce fight over the question of locating the county-seat. Sherman County was no exception, and this meeting was the first one of a campaign which was to finally settle the point of so much importance to town-site speculators—of importance to them because it meant financial loss or gain; why the homesteaders were so interested it is hard for one to understand. They were tired, for one reason, of a fight which had now been going on for two years, and which divided their county into factions; they had personal grievances against the citizens of one town or personal likings for those of another. At any rate, as a rule they felt more intensely and were more bitterly partisan than those whose property was at stake.

At the time the meeting above described was held, six towns had been started within a radius of four miles, near the centre of the county. Three of them had given up the struggle, and the buildings had been moved to one or the other of the remaining three. The town of Eustis had been designated by the Governor as the temporary county-seat, and one election had been held at which no town had received a majority of the votes cast. Goodland, the town which was eventually successful, had been laid off but a month before within a mile of Eustis, and consisted almost entirely of buildings which had been moved from other towns. Some of the buildings now here, by the way, have been moved across the prairie for several miles as many as five times.

Goodland was backed by a town company which put plenty of money into the campaign. The town was also supported by a secret organization among the farmers, many of the members of which were promised town lots in case of success. At the election for county officers each town had a full ticket in the field. The Goodland candidates were elected; the Eustis ticket was a poor second. The third town—named Voltaire, yet the first to have a church—was so discouraged by the vote for officers that the fight for county-seat was given up. The remaining two weeks before the county-seat election were devoted by both the Goodland and Eustis leaders to capturing the Voltaire vote. All sorts of deals and offers—which probably amounted to buying and selling—were made in the strictest privacy. Influential men in different neighborhoods were "seen," and many a thrifty bargain was driven. Both towns had already made liberal donations of public buildings and land to the county as a bid for support, and on election day the money was given directly and almost openly to the voters. About fourteen hundred ballots were cast, and, it is said, nearly five thousand dollars spent. In one township, which threw but a few more than a hundred votes, thirteen men, I am told, stood in a row while their leader negotiated for the lot at a hundred dollars. In another, three men held off for fifty dollars until the money gave out on both sides, and then went home disgusted without voting. Some took pay from both sides, and then voted as they pleased; others, and I am glad to believe a majority, refused all offers of money, and voted according to their convictions. When the count was made, Goodland had received a majority of nearly two hundred.

The Eustis leaders, however, were far from giving up at this stage of the game. They immediately began a policy of obstruction and delay. The commissioners were enjoined from canvassing the vote, the election of all the county officers but one was contested, and measures were even taken to keep the matter in court for several years. In the meantime Eustis, of course, remained the county-seat. The Lincoln Land Company, a corporation which is officered by men connected with the Burlington and Missouri River Railroad Company, and which owned a half interest in the Eustis town site, expected to secure the extension of the railroad into the county, and, by placing the station at Eustis, to discourage the Goodland people into giving up and moving over.

For two months matters advanced slowly, and to a superficial observer it began to look as if the Eustis leaders would make good their boasts and wear out their opponents. Negotiations were constantly on foot for a compromise on some sort of a basis, and the citizens of Goodland acknowledged that their town company was trying to sell them out. They refused to be sold out, however, and concluded to cut short matters of negotiation and legal procedure alike. A committee of the homesteaders' secret society first waited upon the Commissioners and informed them that they must canvass the vote for the new Board; that if they refused to do so, and made answer instead to the alternative writ from the Supreme Court—as they were allowed by the court's method of procedure to do—they, the committee, could neither foretell nor be answerable for the consequences.

In spite of the committee's advice, which amounted practically to threats, the Commissioners refused to count the vote, and made answer to the writ instead, and war was practically declared. It was generally understood that both towns had been quietly collecting guns and ammunition. There was one brick building in Eustis, to the second story of which the county records were moved and a guard placed over them. The only stairway was on the outside, and it was fully commanded from the upper windows of a building just across the street. Behind these windows some ten or a dozen repeating rifles were quietly stored, and an equal number of men told off to use them in case of necessity. Every three or four days during the first fortnight in January some one in Eustis would be arrested on a trivial charge, taken before a justice in Goodland, and placed under bonds.

One day, the 13th, quite a number, including most of the county officers, were taken in this manner as prisoners and witnesses, while others went along to sign their companions' bonds. This was simply a part of a well-laid plan to carry off the county records by force. While these men were delayed in Goodland on one pretext or another, a mob of fifty or sixty well-armed homesteaders, headed by one or two determined citizens of Goodland, started across the level stretch of prairie for Eustis. One man belonging in the latter place noticed their departure, and, driving his horse well to one side of them, hastened into town to give warning. The mob fired on him several times, but failed to stop him.

Many of the people of Eustis were of the opinion that all the bravery was on their side, and it was hard to make them realize that their enemies were forcing the fighting; but when the squads into which the mob had divided came marching in from four different directions, with their rifles on their shoulders and determination in every countenance, the contempt with which some had treated the news of their coming gave way to other feelings.

The leaders of the mob were evidently informed as to the disposition of the Eustis forces. The twelve chosen men had hurried to their quarters across the street from the stairway, which was the key to the situation, and it was around the building they were in that the little handful of men gathered. A good deal of loud talking and profanity was indulged in at first, but it was soon quieted by the leaders, who declared that they had not come "to take the records by law, but by force," and that "one Winchester in the hand was worth two mandamuses at Topeka." They told the deputy sheriff

—under whose direction the Eustis men that were expected to do the shooting were acting—that they knew where his men were; that they would set fire to the building which contained them the instant a shot was fired, "and," they said, "we'll sure get the man that fired it." The deputy was impressed with their arguments, told them he would himself lead them to the records, and would answer for their safety. He held a consultation with his posse and warned them of their danger. They nevertheless begged him to authorize them to fire upon the mob, as they all were anxious to kill, but none cared to be held as murderers in the eyes of the law. He refused to give them his authority, and returned to the leaders of the mob.

The latter succeeded in getting their men to form, after considerable hesitation, a skirmish line down the middle of the street, and one may imagine that their position was not an enviable one. But they believed that they represented a principle. The phrase "the will of the people" was in all their mouths, and the idea that the majority must rule in all their minds. By listening to their talk while their leaders were negotiating, one understood that they had no realization of the magnitude of their offence towards law and order. They were exasperated at the law's delay, and angry at the thought that a rich corporation's money, through legal niceties which they could not understand, was about to cheat the majority of its will. Then besides—and mainly through this, I fancy, for their action might fairly have been called foolhardy—they were actuated by the prospect of the ridicule they would have to undergo at the hands of friends and enemies alike, should they return empty-handed.

With a humor which was probably not appreciated, they cautioned the deputy sheriff, who was quite a large man, fat, and, just then especially, scant of breath, that if he were playing them false, there was ground enough in the county to cover him; and then, with much caution, and him leading, two or three mounted the stairs, while the skirmish line covered the building opposite with their rifles at full cock. It was not five minutes until even the Goodland boys, who had followed the mob at a distance, were carrying down dockets and assessment-rolls by the armfuls. Two wagons were filled with books and furniture, and, guarded by the proud and successful homesteaders, were driven to the Goodland courthouse, where their contents have ever since remained.

The chagrin of the Eustis people may be imagined. Of course there was plenty of talk about recapturing the records; the Governor was petitioned to order out the militia, and a dozen schemes were thought of and discussed. Finally, another writ from the Supreme Court was to be answered, and, owing partly to threats really uttered and partly to natural apprehensions, many believed that another effort would be made to intimidate the Commissioners, and coerce them into a line of action which should accord with the will of the majority. When the particular day arrived, it was interesting to note how an excitement grew from nothing. There was absolutely no basis for the rumors which reported that another mob was forming in Goodland. Yet such was the state of public feeling that the talk and suggestions of one man to another aroused suspicions and apprehensions; these, passing from mouth to mouth, became serious fears, while a quiet, waiting sort of excitement generally prevailed. It was not the excitement which causes men to lose their heads, but it was sufficient to stop all business for the time. Men gathered about and talked over the situation. Every one who could procure a gun—and runners were sent as far as thirty miles to bring in a friendly rifle—placed himself at the disposition of the captain, and was sworn to defend the Constitution of the United States and of the State of Kansas, and uphold the law and order of Sherman County. Rifle pits were dug at frequent intervals surrounding the town; pickets were stationed, and no one was allowed to enter or leave without stating his business. News of these preparations, of course, reached Goodland, where it was believed that an effort to recapture the records was on foot. The guard at the court-house was therefore strengthened, while wagon-loads of stone were distributed about the building as breastworks.

This state of affairs continued for over a week, when two officers of the State guards, acting under orders from the Governor, arrived on the scene. At his request the hundred men who had been answering to roll-call every morning and evening, were disbanded; the wrinkled front of grim-visaged war was smoothed out, and negotiations undertaken for a compromise. They eventually amounted to nothing, and the books remained in Goodland. But in the meantime people had cooled down and all danger of bloodshed was over.

At this time Eustis people began to acknowledge cautiously that the chances of winning the county-seat through the courts were slim; and the advantage of keeping the matter unsettled was gone with the books. The railroad was the last resource, and it was soon learned that the company had a surveying party at work. Then came the great engineers' strikes, and the party was recalled. The Rock Island built into the county, and not only missed Eustis and gave Goodland the station, but also made the latter place headquarters of a division. The Supreme Court held the election valid, and the two towns are now united. It was an easy matter to move the light frame buildings across the level prairie, and the one brick building was torn down and rebuilt and ready for occupancy within thirty days. L.

WALTER SAVAGE LANDOR.

London, July 20, 1888.

Not long ago there appeared in the pages of the *Nation* an account of a touching little ceremony which took place in St. Mary's Church, Warwick, when Walter Savage Landor's bust was unveiled in the presence of a few who remembered him. Some memories of this singular man must, one would think, have been revived among the *Nation's* many English readers. No doubt, there are but few who can remember to-day a man who was born in 1775, and these are growing fewer every year. Every year carries with it irrecoverable impressions of the past, which ought to have been caught and recorded before they faded quite away. In Florence there must surely be some traditions of Landor left; they cannot all have died out. His wife lived in a villa at or near Fiesole for some time, and it was there that, after an absence of thirty years, Landor suddenly rejoined her without a word of notice. He had left her in a fit of caprice, and when he returned as capriciously he was outraged and indignant to find that no niche in the family circle had been left vacant for him. He had taught his family to do without him, and had left them for thirty years to practise their lesson, and then was bitterly disappointed when he found how well they had learned that lesson. Late one night he appeared in Florence at the lodgings of his faithful friends the Robert Brownings, in a towering rage, and vituperating, no doubt, as only he could vituperate, against the whole female sex, and that arch-villain his wife in particular. He would never go back to her, never! Indeed, it was the only possible decision to make. He was at no time an easy man to live with, and after that little absence of thirty years, Mrs. Landor may be forgiven if she did not receive him with open arms. But she cannot be forgiven for the long bill which she sent after him, in which every lemon which had been made into lemonade for him during his brief stay was entered and charged for; and it must be remembered that the villa itself, with its garden and all its lemon-trees, had been paid for out of Landor's own money.

Some of the Florentine courts of justice still, perhaps, possess records of the suits brought against Florentine citizens by this impracticable Englishman. The last time he appeared, whether as prosecutor or defendant, in the Syndic's court, he stooped to hoist up a heavy bag which he had brought with him, and which he placed on the table before him, coolly observing that, as he knew every man in Florence had his price, here was money to secure judgment on his side. The Court, feeling itself this time outraged beyond endurance, pronounced sentence of banishment against him, and he left Florence, never to return.

Before he was exiled, Landor had lived in rooms above those occupied by his kind friends the Brownings. They used to send his dinner up to him every day, and, to a man of his vehement temperament, dinner was a very important event. He would stand, watch in hand, when the hour was approaching, and if the dinner was a moment behind time, he would seize the dish and hurl its contents out of the window. Mr. Browning's son, who was then very young, well remembers seeing a leg of mutton pass the window of his father's room on one of these occasions. An expensive and troublesome inmate, no doubt; but what good times the three poets must have had in those long evenings when dinner was forgotten and there was nothing left to do but talk! How they must have enjoyed each other's scholarship! Landor, the splendid old heathen, whose imagination not only revelled in classical thought, but clothed itself in classical expression and style; Mrs. Browning, with her keen interest in and knowledge of Latin and Greek, though it may be that, like Aurora Leigh's, hers was "lady's Greek without the accents"; and Robert Browning himself, a rare instance among English scholars (less rare, it may be, among Americans) of a man who, being neither an editor of Greek plays nor a teacher of undergraduates, still studies with fresh delight, for his own mere solace and entertainment, the works of the ancients—with how much advantage to the English-speaking public the readers of 'Balaustion's Adventure' will gladly acknowledge. Those evenings must have been racy indeed, undisturbed by Landor's Tudor furies, refreshed often by his Homeric laughter.

Of all writers, Landor is perhaps the one whose reputation most depends on the reports of his friends rather than on his writings themselves—so very few now read what he wrote. Classics in an English dress are no longer the literary fashion. Landor's 'Imaginary Conversations,' even, are better known by their title than by their contents. They have little pretence to be dramatic, though they not only pretend to represent the tone of thought of the time, but seem to do so, and succeed in a remarkable degree. They are dramatic as to century, but not as to individual.

Each interlocutor appears to talk as Landor would have talked if he had lived at the time. The public takes his learning for granted, and his poetry on trust, and is really interested only in his strange personality. The contrast afforded by the two sides of the man's passionate nature is what really attracts at the present day. The one side he showed to his enemies—or, rather, to all but his friends—violent, impracticable, a fury of indignation out of all proportion to the offence; all which seemed to his friends, when they got a glimpse of it, to be mere harmless bluster. They could only believe in the sweet kindliness of his nature, which alone existed for them under all this outrageous vehemence of invective. This is the view given by Dickens in 'Bleak House'—a charming and most effective portrait of this strange creature, perhaps the only one which exists of the gentle side shown exclusively to his friends. Forster's Life gives the obverse of the medal—the violent explosions, the impracticable dealings with the whole world of Philistines who were not his friends. There is the long story of his dealings with his tenant at Llanthony, beginning with some petty squabble about opening and shutting a gate, but soon growing into a hopeless tangle of exasperation on either side—a quarrel which became too complicated for explanation or arbitration, and in which the angry landlord found consolation in small hits made by his friends:

"I know all your Welsh annoyances, the measureless B.'s," Charles Lamb writes in 1832. "I knew a quarter of a mile of them. Seventeen brothers and sixteen sisters, as they appear to me in memory. There was one of them that used to fix his long legs on my fender and tell a tale of a shark every night, endless, immortal. How have I grudged the salt-sea ravener not having had his gorge of him! The shortest of the daughters measured five foot eleven without her shoes. Well, some day we may confer about them. But they were tall. Truly, I have discovered the longitude."

It was too bad of Lamb. He knew how to please the old heathen, for he did not himself hate "the measureless B.'s"—at least, one of the sixteen daughters was his honored correspondent. But it is pleasant to remember that though Mr. Boythorn put up fierce notices of mantraps and spring-guns, not only in his plantations, but in his lifelong intercourse with his fellow-men, he quite as vehemently insisted on turning out of his own house, that Dame Durden, the invalid, might take possession of it and be undisturbed—that Landor was ready and willing to sacrifice his own comfort for the good of his friends. 'Bleak House' is not Dickens's best story, and it is quite possible that our grandchildren will prize it most for the two portraits it contains, the one of Walter Savage Landor, taken at his best, and the other, which, if true, is very severe, of Leigh Hunt, under the name of Harold Skimpole.

Correspondence.

A NEWFOUNDLANDER'S PROTEST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a speech delivered by Mr. David A. Wells, he is reported to have said:

"The people of Newfoundland are, as a whole, wretchedly poor, and they inhabit one of the poorest, most desolate, and unattractive countries on the face of the globe outside of the polar regions. There is not timber enough on the island to build a good-sized house; its climate is practically eight months winter and four months spring and summer; its agriculture is limited to potatoes and oats."

Newfoundlanders are glad to have so able a man as Mr. Wells on their side, but they do not like his way of clinching his argument. They are not suing *in forma pauperis* for anything. They do not ask for more than justice, and, being an unsophisticated people, they naturally assume that a great nation like the United States has too much self-respect to yield less. Indeed, so far are Newfoundlanders from appealing on the score of the poverty of their resources to the benevolent feelings of Americans, that they indignantly deny that Mr. Wells's description of their country is at all accurate.

The ignorance prevailing in this country regarding Newfoundland is astonishing. Its great size, one would suppose, ought to be enough of itself to make people desirous of learning something reliable about it. But in the school geographies it is dismissed with about a dozen lines, half of which are misleading. Its very name is mispronounced, if Newfoundlanders know the name of their own country; even the index to the American Cyclopædia indicating that the stress of the voice should be upon the first syllable, whereas it properly belongs to the last. And now it appears that an able man may actually go to the island itself, and bring back more misinformation about it than he carried there.

The "eight months winter" is as great an exaggeration as the saying of the Spaniards that Madrid has nine months winter and three months hell. October and May are no more like winter in Newfoundland than in central New York. I recollect going for a swim in the St. John's "Narrows" one first of October. I may add that although there is much variation of temperature in Newfoundland, the changes are not so sudden and violent as they are here, and the range of the thermometer is not so great. S. G. W. Benjamin, who visited several of the Atlantic islands and wrote a book about them, says that any of them (including Newfoundland) has a better climate, from the point of view of one considering health and strength chiefly, than any of the Atlantic coast climates from Maine to Florida. The latter are all more subject to racking variations of temperature than Newfoundland is.

And things grow there, too. Almost every sort of vegetable that I have ever seen will grow to maturity there as well as potatoes, and there is a great variety of berries and the smaller fruits. The strawberries and raspberries grown in Newfoundland are as good as those grown here, and blueberries and huckleberries (the last two called there indiscriminately "hurts") grow to a larger size and are of better flavor than any I have seen elsewhere. If it were true that Newfoundland has no timber trees, it would be some little consolation to know that she could never have a lumber trust. But it is not true. I have myself seen, not twenty miles back of the coast, timber enough to build a city full of good-sized houses. In the interior, as has been recently found true also of Labrador, there are plenty of timber trees. Agriculture is indeed very backward, but the backwardness is not to be attributed to the poverty of the soil, for the soil is not poor well back of the coast, nor to the severity of the climate, for the climate will compare favorably with North American climates in general.

About attractiveness and desolation opinions differ. A straight Chicago street, with its big stores and telegraph poles, would be the abomination of desolation to a Natty Bumppo. The immense number of bays, harbors, hills, lakes, ponds, and streams make the scenery of Newfoundland very picturesque. I have spent many pleasant days in solitudes where there was nothing to break the silence but the leaping of trout, the flight of startled partridges, or the cry of some sea-fowl—voices such as used to give Robert Burns premonitions of immortality. The idea of desolation never once entered my mind while in such places. When the resources of Newfoundland are developed—a desirable thing, I suppose—she will be more attractive to many than she is now, but all the charm of wild nature will vanish away. Why she is unattractive to Mr. Wells as she is now I do not know. Bayard Taylor did not find her so. Perhaps Mr. Wells formed his opinion of the entire country from some such specimen as a lump of chalk from her southern coast would be of England.

There are too many people in this country who, like a certain Senator, profess to care nothing for "abroad," but who are anxious to get a slice of "abroad" when they see a chance of doing so without paying a fair price. Newfoundlanders are heartily glad that Mr. Wells is a very different sort of person, and that even if he has a poor opinion of Newfoundland, he has only good will towards her people. A Newfoundlander myself, it gives me pleasure to know that the *Nation*, with its usual force and fearlessness and contempt for bogus patriotism and false pretences, advocates justice to my countrymen; that it has recognized the great ability of Sir Ambrose Shea, and the service rendered by that statesman to his country on a former occasion of international difficulty, and that it gave a strictly truthful account of Newfoundland in its interesting review of the Rev. M. Harvey's excellent book.

John C. Cozens.

Amsterdam, N. Y.

AN OPEN SECRET.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your article "Exit Boulanger" contains these words: "Why is it that no more leaders are to be found in French politics? No prize the Academy of Moral and Political Sciences could offer would secure an answer to this question." It seems to me, on the other hand, that the answer is so plain that one is tempted to say, with *Hamlet*, "There needs no ghost come from the grave to tell us that." In fact, the question is perfectly answered by the remarkable letter of "Observer" which follows it—so perfectly that I can scarcely add anything. This result is owing to what he calls the conversion of Parliamentary Government into government by Parliament, and the whole force of his letter is summed up in one sentence: "Ministry succeeds ministry, until every man, it is anticipated, who has the least capacity for leadership, will soon have been discredited by the futile attempt to exercise what is ridiculously called power."

Government by a chamber, with its majorities and minorities and its committees, kills individuality and leadership, and renders government impossible. But the necessity of leadership has brought out a desperate effort to throw off the disease. The first result is Boulanger, who has failed; but the spectre has, as you say, frightened the Chamber into submission, and Floquet has an easier time than any of his recent predecessors. But this is only momentary. The passions and the anarchy of the Chamber will soon get the upper hand again, and the country will again look to some strong man for relief. No doubt this might and ought to come legitimately. President Carnot, in his provincial tours, has met with the warmest reception. If he would cry aloud and warn the country of the danger, would appeal to the constituencies to notify the members of the Chamber to support his Ministers on penalty of

losing their seats, and would promise them order and good government on that condition, he might yet play the part and leave the name of a Washington or a Victor Emmanuel. But he will not do that, because he owes his seat to the Chambers. They knew their man too well, and did not intend to have a leader in the Presidency any more than in the Cabinet. And so, no change being possible within constitutional limits, it must come sooner or later outside of them.

"Observer" says: "Nor does this result spring from the supposed mutability of Frenchmen; it arises from the inherent vice of modern parliaments." Exactly, and a living illustration may be found in the Congress of the United States. With very different social and political conditions, it is precisely the same cause which has brought the dominant Republican party from what it was during the war to the condition and "leaders" of to-day. That which in France produced Boulanger has in this country produced James G. Blaine. The anxious question is, whether the cause which is sure to bring new Boulangers is going to entail upon us a series of Blaines. Fortunately, we have a safeguard in this, that the President is elected by the nation. It has saved us once from the Blaine danger, which, though not so threatening an evil, was far more imminent than that from Boulanger. The struggle in this country, as in France, has got to be between Legislature and Executive. For that purpose what is wanted is—not merely for President, but for precedent—a man who has the courage to strike boldly for what he believes to be right. Like yourself, I have been filled with admiration for the courage with which Mr. Cleveland, when he had only to sit still and be reëlected as a matter of course, dared to endanger it by his tariff message. What may not be hoped for from a man like that? What a lesson to the world if a President can appeal directly to a nation upon a purely political question and receive a hearty response.

I shall watch with breathless interest and anxiety to see whether the people of this country will rise to the occasion. G. B.

Boston, August 4, 1888.

A HINT TO THE PRESIDENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As one of the Republicans who bolted the party nomination in 1884 for reasons that would induce me to the like course again, I beg that you will give me space enough to suggest that when the President begins to rid the Administration of "the disloyalty to the service, and the insolence, of employees who remain in place as the beneficiaries and the relics and reminders of the old vicious system of appointment" (I am quoting the words of his late message to Congress), he should extend his purification process a little further, and take under his cognizance at least a few of the "beneficiaries" of a "vicious system of appointment" that has had considerable vogue at Washington during the past twelve to eighteen months, who scruple not to insult the President by openly professing their belief that he is merely "humbugging the Mugwumps" by his talk about civil-service reform, or that, if he means it, he is only a "chump." I trust that the Civil-Service Commissioner who lately communicated with the Washington correspondent of the New York *Times*, and who seems to have influential access to the President, will urge upon the latter that when the crusade for civil-service reform shall begin in the departments at Washington, its vindicatory operations shall not be restricted to the comparatively harmless "relics and reminders," but shall extend also to the fresh and vigorous exponents of "the old vicious system," who are not afraid to preach unceasingly and from the housetops what has been practised in their own behalf. If there was any way by which certain members of the Cabinet could be informed that civil-service reform was the *mot d'ordre* of the Administration, the dispersal of their ignorance of the President's wish and purpose could hardly fail to have a beneficial influence in the ranks below. B.

Washington, D. C., August 3, 1888.

GRANDSIRE AND GRANDSON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Forty-eight years ago Gen. William Henry Harrison delivered at Fort Meigs, near the city of Toledo, a noted speech which exercised a very important influence in the election of 1840. The speech is now chiefly remarkable for the vivid contrast it presents to the doctrines which are now maintained by the Republican party under the nominal leadership of a grandson of the speaker, and under the actual leadership of James G. Blaine. Let me make a few quotations to show this contrast, and to throw a strong side-light on the great strides made by the Republican party towards the overthrow of the constitutional system of this country, and the substitution of another which means the exchange of local liberty and self-government for a centralized despotism:

"I have been called a Federalist! . . . That accusation . . . cannot apply to me. . . . I was taught to believe that, sooner or later, that fatal catastrophe to human liberty would take place—that the general Government would swallow up the State governments, and that one department of the Government would swallow up all other departments. . . . See that the Government does not acquire too much power. Keep a check upon your rulers. . . . Power is insinuating. Few men are satisfied with less power than they are able to procure. . . . The Executive of the Union has immense power to do mischief. . . . He may prostrate the country. Indeed, the country has been already prostrated. It has fallen from pure Republicanism to a monarchy in spirit if not in name. . . . *Direct your eye to the Government.* Do that, and your children's children to the latest generation will be as happy and as free as your fathers have been."

But the grandson of the speaker is the man who has voted for the Blair Education Bill—a measure which gives the executive branch of the national Government the beginning of absolute power over the whole system of public education. He is the champion of the tariff system, which involves the power to favor some industries at the expense of others, certain States at the expense of the rest, and individuals at the expense of the entire nation. And, to quote again from the elder Harrison, "I do not know if [Benjamin Harrison] has a throat that can swallow everything [in the way of centralizing legislation]; but I do know that if his measures are carried out, he will lay a foundation for others to do so if he does not."

Charles S. Ashley.

Toledo, July 30, 1888.

Notes.

David Douglas, Edinburgh, will publish Mr. William Winter's Poems in a companion volume to this writer's 'Shakspere's England.'

Harper & Bros. issue this week 'The Land beyond the Forest,' viz., Transylvania, by Mme. E. Gerard; and 'A War-time Wooing,' by Capt. Chas. King, U. S. A.

'Americanisms—Old and New' is the title of a work to be published in a limited subscription edition by Thomas Poulter & Sons, London. The compiler is John S. Farmer. American subscriptions will be received by Henry Stevens & Son, 39 Great Russell Street, London, E. C.

A French translation of Prof. Bryce's 'Holy Roman Empire,' with a preface by M. Ernest Lavisse, is about to be published in Paris by Armand Colin & Cie.

The eleventh volume of the Wisconsin Historical Society's Collections follows hard upon the tenth, and begins a new series marked by the entire exclusion of the Proceedings heretofore bound up with the Collections. Some of the matters in vol. xi have already been touched upon in these columns, such as Mr. Thwaites's valuable researches on the boundaries of Wisconsin, and Prof. Butler's biographical sketch of Alexander Mitchell, whose portrait forms a frontispiece. Other matters are an exhaustive summary of what is known about Jean Nicolet; a great variety of Western state papers, partly translated from the French, papers from the Canadian archives, etc., etc. Mr. E. W. Keyes's "Early Days in Jefferson County" gives a very good idea of pioneer life.

The "Chetham Society," of Manchester, England, was established in 1843, "for the publication of historical and literary remains connected with the palatine counties of Lancaster and Chester." The new series of its publications commenced in 1883, since which time the Society has issued three volumes a year. The volumes for 1886-87 have just been published. The first of these, vol. xiii, is a bibliography of the works of Dr. John Worthington, Master of Jesus College, Cambridge. This is edited by the President of the Society, R. C. Christie, Chancellor of the Diocese of Manchester. The most important of these works is a translation of the 'De Imitatione Christi,' under the title 'The Christian's Pattern.' Of this translation thirteen editions are specified, from 1654 to 1831. Vol xiv is the 'Coucher Book' (Register Book) of Furness Abbey, Part 3. Part 1 (1884-85) contained the "Furness Domains"; Part 2 (1885-86) the first half of the documents. The present volume begins with No. 340, a "Bull of Protection," by Pope Alexander III., the last document being a Grant by King Henry IV. This Coucher Book is edited by the Rev. J. C. Atkinson. Vol. xv, by the Rev. George T. O. Bridgeman, is Part 1 of the 'History of the Church and Manor of Wigan,' the history being brought down to the reign of James I.

E. J. Brill of Leyden has published the first and second parts of a classified list of all simple and compound cuneiform ideographs, occurring in texts hitherto published, with their Assyro-Babylonian equivalents and phonetic values compiled by Rudolph E. Brünnow, Ph.D. At present every Assyrian student who desires to conduct original investigations is under the necessity of compiling a sign list for himself, and it was to save this energy and divert it to some more useful field that Dr. Brünnow was induced to undertake the laborious task of making a cuneiform sign concordance. The system of arrangement is good, and the book (which is a reproduction of the author's manuscript) presents a clear and pleasing appearance.

The sixth of Mr. W. M. Griswold's "Cumulative Indexes" is just out, being an 'Index to *Harper's Weekly*' for the thirty years 1857–1887. Though relating only to the text, it serves to a large extent, from the nature of the case, as a clue to illustrations—to portraits most surely of all, and then to places and events. Thus, the title "Wrecks, etc.," with

its long list of vessels, will certainly be found to cover more or less authentic delineations in black and white. So of "War-vessels," "Railways," "Riots," "Floods," "Earthquakes," "Mississippi," "Hospitals," "Churches," etc., etc. The compiler's address is East Capitol Station, Washington, D. C.

"The Tariff—Protection and Free Trade" is the subject of the third number of the *Bibliographer and Reference List* (Buffalo: Moulton, Wenborne & Co.), and the genuine interest now awakened in economic discussion ought to create an active demand for this guide to self-instruction.

The Division of Entomology of the U. S. Department of Agriculture has begun a periodical bulletin, called *Insect Life*, for the speedy dissemination of odds and ends of information of a practical sort. The first number contains a scientific description, with engravings, of the corn-feeding syrphus-fly, and the willow-shoot saw-fly, with an account of their devastations; a report of the sugar-cane beetle injuring corn; extracts from correspondence, and notes, full of suggestions for the farmer.

The June number of *Appalachia* is readable to an unusual degree and has several fine illustrations. Mr. Percival Lowell tells, with characteristic lightness and agreeableness of style, of a visit to the Japanese volcano Shirane San, of which he lends a heliotype view with other local pictures. Another excellent narrative in a less poetic vein is Mr. F. H. Chapin's "Ascent of Long's Peak," a mountain mass which, as one may see, far surpasses in beauty and sublimity of outline the Shirane San, while it can boast of a sheer precipice of 2,000 feet "as smooth as the side of Bunker Hill monument," and hardly rivalled except by the Yosemite walls. There are other interesting papers, and the usual reports.

Some inscriptions found on the Acropolis of Athens, and probably relating to thank-offerings of freedmen acquitted of the charge of having violated the conditions of their emancipation, are discussed with learning by Mr. Carl D. Buck in the *American Journal of Archæology* for June. The Rev. W. H. Ward interprets two striking Hittite bas-reliefs photographed by the Wolfe Expedition at Carchemish-Jerablûs. One had been imperfectly figured before on wood in another journal.

Leonardo da Vinci's "Saint Anne" is the subject of a study in *L'Art* for July 1 (Macmillan). M. Eugène Müntz, we need hardly add, is the writer, and he provides a large number of sketches exhibiting the conception of the masterpiece. The main illustration of the number, however, is an etching after Paul Delaroche's "Princes in the Tower." M. Paul Leroi censures the awards at the late Salon, and contends for a reform which shall completely remove the Government from interference with the exhibitions. Leave these in the hands of the artists, he says, and there will be an immediate reduction in the number of canvases admitted, with a corresponding improvement in their quality. The State may still buy, as now, for the public museums, but that should be its only appearance upon the scene. Another writer remarks the diminishing importance of the architectural exhibit, and suggests such regulation as will lead to the making of competitive studies expressly for the Salon.

We are notified that the leading American etchers have formed a society for the elevation of their art, as well as to regulate the limitation of editions, "each publication by the members of the Society being guaranteed by the stamp of the Society of American Etchers, in the same way as English prints are protected by the printsellers' stamp." Thomas Moran is President, and C. Y. Turner Secretary. The Society's address is No. 19 E. Sixteenth St.

Something of genuine antiquity attaches to the circumstance of the 125th anniversary of an endowed school in this country, established on land held by the founder's ancestors first after the aborigines relinquished it. Such is the case with Dummer Academy in the parish of Byfield (Newbury), in Essex County, Mass., which was opened on March 1, 1763, and has never ceased to contribute its yearly quota to the ranks of liberally educated men. In the Dummer stock, as we learn from the address of Mr. W. D. Northend, the famous Judge Sewall, the poet Longfellow, and President Cleveland —with many other personages of distinction— unite as kinsmen.

Suggestive of changed fashion is the list of novels taken at least twenty-five times from the St. Louis Public Library in March last. We quote from the current *Library Journal:* 'Ben-Hur,' 87; 'Scarlet Letter,' 42; 'Anna Karénina,' 40; 'Les Misérables,' 37; 'Ivanhoe,' 33; 'Vanity Fair,' 31; 'April Hopes,' 28; . . . 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' 27; . . . 'David Copperfield,' 25; 'Count of Monte Cristo,' 25.

By the courtesy of Mr. Nagayo Sensai, Director of the Central Sanitary Bureau of the Home Department of Japan, we have received in a pamphlet a 'Brief Review' of the operations of that Department in connection with the cholera epidemic of the nineteenth year of Meiji (1886). This is a history of the progress of that epidemic and of the hygienic measures for its control taken by the Government. It is a very interesting paper, and is accompanied by beautifully executed maps of Tokio and Osaka, and by copious numerical tables. We have had occasion previously to refer to the remarkable example that Japan sets the world in the organization of this Central Sanitary Bureau, and we quote the last paragraph of the introduction to the review to show that, in appreciation of the etiology of the disease, the Bureau is familiar with Western teachings:

"The reason that the epidemic of this last year prevailed so violently in spite of all the precautionary means used, including inspection and disinfection as systematic and as thorough as was possible, was owing to the impurity of the drinking water and the filthy state of the country. It is quite important, of course, to pay attention to the preservation of health, and to carry out the measures for inspection and disinfection properly at the time of epidemics, but the greatest efficacy of the measures of prevention cannot be attained until some strict measures are taken to insure purity of the drinking water and efficiency of construction of the sewers and other drains."

We are glad to learn and to announce that the new State Atlas of New Jersey, just completed, is to be put on sale by the sheet and in sets. The uniform price is twenty-five cents each, and this sum covers cost of transmission. Applications, with prepayment, should be made to Mr. Irving S. Upson, New Brunswick, N. J.

—In the midsummer *Century* Mr. Kennan holds the first place, both by his not very successful portrait and the sketch of his career, as well as by an excellent Siberian paper. He describes with telling simplicity the first political exiles he met, cultivated young fellows guilty of no wrong; but a different and novel interest belongs to his journey through the little known Altaic region of torrid deserts and icy Alps, which he narrates with the zest of a mountaineer. The personal sketch of him shows us a man with a story, and affords a fine example of an American career. In the Lincoln biography Grant comes to the front, and there is an excellent opportunity for a careful reader to observe how intently Lincoln watched the military situation, and how close his criticism of it was. The most notable war-episode, however, which this number brings, is Lee's very remarkable letter upon the project of arming the slaves. He says plainly that only necessity would lead him to interfere with that beneficent institution of which he thought so highly, "the relation of master and slave, controlled by humane laws, and influenced by Christianity and an enlightened public sentiment"; but necessity had come, in January, 1865, and it seemed to him a mere choice between using the negroes on the Southern side or allowing the North all the advantage of this resource. As to their fitness for such use he entertained no doubt: "I believe that with proper regulations they can be made efficient soldiers. They possess the physical qualifications in an eminent degree. Long habits of obedience and subordination, coupled with the moral influence which in our country the white man possesses over the black, furnish an excellent foundation for that discipline which is the best guarantee of military efficiency." This was to be a free army, however; and to insure fidelity Lee proposed to free their families also at the end of the war, and give a bounty with permission to reside at the South, and he suggested and advised also the adoption of a plan of "gradual and general emancipation." If the war lasted, slavery was certain to be destroyed; and, therefore, Lee argued that the South should get what good it could from the negroes by abandoning slavery on the best terms to be made with the inevitable. But what a programme this was: armed negroes, free negroes residing in the South, emancipation! The States that had seceded to save slavery would now abandon slavery to save secession! Here was a piece of that historical irony which preaches the subjection of man to his interests in terms almost too gross. The attempt to steal Lincoln's emancipation thunder, as a war-measure for the South, did not succeed; and in three months from the date of this letter the war was over. We have no space to notice other articles, by Cable, Prof. Holden, and Dr. Abbott, all of which are solid and useful, or the account of that curious survival, a Trappist monastery in Kentucky, of which the author gives mainly a sentimental impression; he would naturally find the brothers uncommunicative.

—About four years ago we reviewed an excellent set of chronological tables for modern history, by Prof. John Nichol of Glasgow (Macmillan). A revised edition of the present year enlarges the tables by the addition of two columns—for science and invention and for art—and adds also four tables of American history. These last are, on the whole, compiled with good judgment, although the column of literature and art contains several names which we never heard of before, and—as is almost invariably the case in English publications—we find some rather wild spellings of proper names, *e. g.*, J. Quincey Adams, U. Grant, R. W. Hayes, J. Garfield, and S. Cleveland among the Presidents. The very first date in the very first table perpetuates that inveterate blunder, *Septimus Severus*. The tables, we should note, begin with Gibbon, with the end of the second century of the Christian era. Almost, but not quite, supplementing Mr. Nichol's tables are the 'Chronological Tables of Ancient History,' by Rev. A.C. Jennings (Macmillan). Why they should end with the Christian era we cannot see. These tables, like the others, are arranged upon the plan of parallel columns, with an irregular number of years on each page, varying with the abundance or scarcity of data. The columns are six in number: political history, Jewish church history, wars, etc., biography

and topography, inventions, etc., laws, etc.—not, on the whole, a very satisfactory arrangement. Military stands in so close connection with political history, as together making up the substance of what is given by most historians, that it is rather inconvenient to find "Athens refuses overtures from Mardonius" separated from "Athens occupied by Mardonius" by "Esther made queen by Ahasuerus" (marked as a doubtful date). Again, legislation is so closely related to political history that we have a great deal of such repetition as, "Solon changes Athenian oligarchy to a timocracy," and "Solon legislates at Athens," etc. On the whole, we should prefer to have separate but parallel columns for Greek, Roman, and Oriental history; at any rate, it is hard to see why "Jehoiakim *d* by violence" comes under the head of *church* history rather than *Wars, popular movements, catastrophes*. Here we have one nation with a column to itself. The work seems to be generally accurate. On pages 30 and 31 we have twice *Volens* for *Volero*; on page 44, *Sextus* for *Sextius;* page 55, *Valeriana* for *Valeria;* page 85, *Crassas* for *Crassus*. Under the year B. C. 46, it is stated that Mauretania was made a Roman province, which did not take place until A. D. 40. B. C. 492 we have the institution of the *Comitia Tributa!* In regard to the Decemvirate there is a strange confusion: 449 Decemviri deposed; 448 Decemvirate abolished, consulate and tribunate restored; 446 the *Tribunitia potestas* renewed. Under the date 373 we find the comical-sounding entry, "Cir Jonathan H. Priest *son*," but we look in vain for any possible father, unless it be Jehoiada, High Priest about 430. Again, what *Duumviri* were Lucius and Caius Cæsar in B. C. 63?

—Prof. Albert S. Cook, whose rendition of the second edition of Sievers's 'Anglo-Saxon Grammar' we noted a few months ago, still continues his good work. This time it comes to us in the shape of an exhaustive edition of the Anglo-Saxon poem of 'Judith.' (Boston: Heath & Co.) An introduction of seventy-two pages treats of the conjectured origin (sources) of the poem, its literary features, its grammar and prosody, and some minor points. The editor's opinions on the origin of the poem are summed up at page xxiii. He holds that it was, or at least may have been, composed about 856, in honor of the historic Judith of France, then recently married to the Wessex King, Athelwulf, and also to commemorate the (temporary) release of England from Danish invasion. Swithhun, Bishop of Winchester, is even credited with the composition. This hypothesis we can scarcely accept. If, as is generally believed, and as Cook himself asserts (p. ix), "the mixture of dialectic forms seems to indicate that a northern original passed through one or more hands, and that the last scribe, at all events, belonged to the late West Saxon period," how can we reconcile this *northern* original with a Wessex author? Besides, were matters in 856 in such a shape as to inspire an *epinikion* and *epithalamion?* We doubt it, despite Prof. Cook's enthusiasm. The 'Battle of Maldon' shows us plainly how the English felt and wrote when fighting the Danes. In grammar and metre, the editor gets upon safer ground. We may trust the translator of Sievers for knowing his teacher's principles. We regret, however, that in treating metre Prof. Cook has departed from Sievers's A, B, C, D, E classification. This had the merit of simplicity, and of not committing one's self to other systems, whereas Prof. Cook's resumption of terms such as iambic, trochaic, dactylic, suggests at least classical conceptions which Sievers sedulously avoided.

—The Glossary is an exhaustive concordance, and prepared with exceeding care. By the way, is the length of *drod* certain? *Wyrm-sele* should be translated 'worm-hall'= 'hell,' rather than 'dragon hall.' The passage is plainly a reflex of Mark ix, 44. The list of Verbal Correspondences between 'Judith' and other poems will be very useful to every one. The list of Kennings will be practically useful for the study of style; but, in principle, it is founded upon what seems to us too broad a use of the term kenning. Prof. Cook uses it for synonym, trope, periphrase — in short, for whatever is not direct speech. We should prefer restricting it (*a*) to such conventionalisms as "the battle-snake on the hawk-perch"="the sword in the hand"; (*b*) to such traditional phrases as "Ymir's skull"="heaven." The point is not unimportant; it is, in truth, the turning-point of Icelandic court poetry. This latter is written in a jargon of its own, made up of *Kenningar* like the above. One must be initiated before he can understand a single stanza, whereas the figurative terms here summed up from 'Judith' are one and all self-explanatory. Similar ones have been used by poets in all times and tongues. In this connection we suggest that 'enemy' is scarcely an adequate rendering of "eald-fynd," "ealdhettende," etc. The word means 'devil,' and is better rendered by the English 'fiend' than the German 'Feind.' The translation, made by five of Prof. Cook's pupils, but revised by him, will be of help. The greatest attention has been paid to the text. It is based upon a facsimile of the MS., aided by the collations of Sievers, Cosijn, and Sweet, and the labors of all previous editors. It is by far the most scholarly effort in this field that America has yet put forth. We regret only that the editor has not given us the entire facsimile, instead of merely the sample, verses 55-69. Let us hope that the rapid sale of this first edition may encourage him to do for 'Judith' what Zupitza has done for 'Beowulf.'

—The July Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society contains an account of Fernando de Noronha. This island, which lies about 290 miles northeast of Pernambuco, is interesting from the fact that, being a Brazilian convict station and consequently inaccessible to travellers, its natural history was almost unknown. Last year, at the request of the Emperor himself, Mr. H. N. Ridley of the British Museum, and the Rev. T. S. Lea, the author of the paper, spent six weeks upon the island, during which time they were able to explore it thoroughly, and to make valuable collections of its fauna and flora. Among these were many specimens of species new to science, one being "of a plant so strange that its very order seems uncertain." The expedition was well-timed, as the endemic vegetation appears to be rapidly disappearing before that introduced by man. Mr. Lea suggests that the island is the ancient vent of a volcano. The population numbers about two thousand, of whom fourteen hundred are convicts—negroes, Indians, and half-breeds—mostly there for murder. The system of government "seems almost unique in its excellence," an assertion apparently borne out by the fact that "we never saw any of the officials carrying any weapon whatever." The convicts are divided, according to their behavior, into classes, in the first of which all of their time is their own, in the others a part only. A striking scene is at evening parade, when a hymn to the Virgin is sung. The Foreign Office contributes a lively report of an exciting journey by Mr. H. H. Johnston, the well-known traveller, up the Cross River from Old Calabar, among inveterate cannibals. He was many times in great danger, but succeeded in escaping, through the exercise of great tact and forbearance, without firing a shot. At one town a chief presented him with "a necklace of human knuckle-bones"; at another, "even little children armed themselves with matchets and knives, and, standing ankle-deep in water, shrieked out how they would like to eat us." Mr. Fred. Jeppe gives a rather dry account of the "Kaap Gold-Fields of the Transvaal," which show evident signs of having been worked by a white race in ancient times, whether Phœnicians, as some assert, or Portuguese, as others are inclined to believe, is still a matter of doubt.

MR. LOWELL'S POLITICAL PHILOSOPHY.

Political Essays. By James Russell Lowell. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888.

MR. LOWELL has done what probably no one else in the country who has written as much would have the courage to do—collected and republished a dozen of his political essays covering a period of twenty years, beginning with a philippic against the cowardice of the American Tract Society in 1858, and ending with an eloquent description of the place of the "Independent in Politics," in 1888. When one remembers the variety of experiences with which that period has been crowded, the number of political prophets whom it has brought to naught, the number of political sages whom it has stripped of their wisdom, and exposed to the scorn or pity of the younger generation, he needs to be thrice armed who steps into the arena, as Mr. Lowell has done, laden with "back numbers," and challenges the criticism of all comers for the doubts and fears, and hopes and expectations, of half a lifetime. The challenge is the more remarkable because we think it may be said that he has been far better known to the American public during the past thirty years as a poet and literary man than as a political philosopher or observer. The 'Biglow Papers' were full of political shrewdness, it is true, but those who witnessed their beginnings ascribed Mr. Lowell's excursions into politics more to philanthropic horror of slavery than to interest in the art of government. It was not until the war broke out that he really made his appearance as a political observer, and we are inclined to think the Hayes Administration, in offering him the Spanish mission, intended it mainly as a compliment to American letters, and that when Mr. Evarts was giving him his instructions, he did not realize he was talking to a man who was his master in every branch of politics except law, and yet this was the simple and literal truth. The essays before us make this plain enough to any one who has paid any attention to the public utterances of the two men.

The article on "The American Tract Society" is a sermon in elementary morals preached to a religious association. It is mainly interesting now as a memorial of Mr. Lowell's courage in evil days. That it should have been necessary to make such an exposition of Christian duty to an organization devoted to the work of spreading the Gospel, is a kind of thing which history never satisfactorily explains. It is one of the phenomena of human society which only contemporary observers can understand, like the intolerance of Marcus Aurelius, or the belief in witchcraft of Cotton Mather or Judge Sewall. Most of the discussions carried on thirty years ago with the Biblical pro-slavery

men read now like some of the oldest pieces of modern literature. Mr. Lowell's voice, as he traverses the proposition that "slavery is of divine ordination and its bases laid in the nature of man," and supports himself by citing the fate of the Ptolemaic astronomy at the hands of Galileo, seems to reach us from afar, through endless "corridors of time." It is the essays on the various phases of the civil war, beginning with the election of 1860, and ending with the reconstruction of 1866, which give us the measure of his capacity as a political philosopher and observer. As we have said already, we do not know of any public man who lived through those times whose speeches or writings would say so much for his sagacity and the soundness of his judgment. For we must all admit they were times in which the wisest found it almost impossible to avoid saying foolish things, and the ablest to avoid indulgence in quackery. Mr. Lowell may well be gratified, therefore, as he observes in his preface, to find that he "was able to keep his head fairly clear of passion when his heart was at boiling point."

In reading through the essays on the Rebellion, including under this head that on Gen. McClellan's Reports, and that on the Lincoln-McClellan election, we find only two points in which Mr. Lowell was mistaken; and his mistake in these cases was shared, we think, by every observer of prominence at the North—we mean the readiness of the Southerners to fight, and their courage and tenacity after the fighting began. There was hardly any Northerner in this part of the world who did not apply to the South the old adage that bullies and braggarts are cowards, and that if faced boldly they were sure to back down; and yet in the whole list of adages there is not one which derives less support from experience. We believe the rule to be that bullies and braggarts are brave, and that the proverbial doubt about their courage is due simply to the éclat which attends the occasional collapse of a person so obnoxious and unpopular as a hector is sure to be. The Southerners did themselves injustice as soldiers and statesmen through their lack of literary culture. They boasted themselves like Montenegrins or Albanians, while really possessing an admirable talent for organization whether in war or peace, and as great powers of protracted effort as any people in the world.

Where Mr. Lowell shines most is in his clear presentation, through the cloudy and bewildering days of 1860-61, of the real issue between the North and South, and his masterful exposure of the folly and futility of the various schemes of compromise, avoidance, or postponement, with which the air was full until after the Seven Days before Richmond. To him "the election in November [1860], whatever its result, was to settle for many years to come the question whether the American idea was to govern this continent, whether the Occidental or Oriental theory of society was to mould our future." In the following year (1861), he was equally sure "that the United States are a nation, and not a mass meeting; that theirs is a government and not a caucus—a government that was meant to be capable, and is capable, of something more than the helpless *please don't* of the village constable; that they have executive and administrative officers that are not mere puppet figures to go through the motions of an objectless activity, but arms and hands that become supple to do the will of the people, so soon as that will becomes conscious and defines its purpose." In 1864 he said that "war means now, consciously with many, unconsciously with most, but inevitably, abolition. Nothing can save slavery but peace. Let its doom be once accomplished, . . . and the bond between the men at the South who were willing to destroy the Union, and those at the North who only wish to save it for the sake of slavery, will be broken. . . . The mass of the Southern people will not feel too keenly the loss of a kind of property in which they had no share, while it made them underlings, nor will they find it hard to reconcile themselves with a government from which they had no real cause of estrangement. If the war be waged manfully, as becomes a thoughtful people, without insult or childish triumph in success, if we meet opinion with wiser opinion, waste no time in badgering prejudice till it become hostility, and attack slavery as a crime against the nation, and not as an individual sin, *it will end, we believe, in making us the most powerful and prosperous community the world ever saw.*"

The review of McClellan's Report, in 1864, is the best example in the collection of Mr. Lowell's powers of political discussion. Nothing could be happier or more acute than his definition of the relation either of a successful or unsuccessful military commander to the civil government which he serves, or keener than his analysis of Gen. McClellan's character as a strategist, and of his own explanation of his operations. There was much that was trying in McClellan's position. He organized the great army that was raised at Washington, and his success in this, and the eulogy it called forth, would readily have turned stronger heads than his. Moreover, he was dealing with civil superiors who naturally showed the doubts, uncertainties, and timidities of the great public behind them, and communicated them to the army through the very air of the camp. It was not wonderful that under these circumstances a second-rate general should have felt the politician in him getting the better of the soldier, and that he should, unconsciously perhaps, have come to think the government of his own country a more pressing, as it was apparently an easier, task than the destruction of the enemy. Mr. Lowell's description of this state of mind, of the steps which led to it, and the absurdities which it involved, are admirable specimens both of political and military criticism.

The closing article, on "The Place of the Independent in Politics," is still fresh in the minds of our readers, and was discussed in these columns when it was delivered. Any one who reaches it through the volume before us will miss the triumphant note of the preceding essays, and will, perhaps, find it a reason for believing that Mr. Lowell, in writing about the war and its effects, was animated by more enthusiasm than he imagined. He has lived to see the dull days which are sure to follow every revolutionary epoch, when the heroes are dead and the great memories are waxing faint, and a new generation has come on the stage which is still uncertain what use to make of the glory won for it by its fathers, or what duties it imposes. But he readily finds in the situation a hundred lessons for those who have reaped the fruits without sharing the sacrifices of the war, and extracts, as hardly any other living writer can, from the very disappointments and shortcomings of the restored Union, new reasons for patriotic toil and endeavor.

HARRISON'S OLIVER CROMWELL.—I.

Oliver Cromwell. By Frederic Harrison. [Twelve English Statesmen.] Macmillan & Co. 1888.

MR. FREDERIC HARRISON has performed a noteworthy achievement: he has produced what will (it may be anticipated) be for a long time the popular account of Cromwell's career. Mr. Harrison's book is "popular" in the good, not in the bad sense of that term. It tells ordinary readers the facts which men who are not historians, but who care for history, want to know about the Protector, and it tells these facts in a style which is clear, striking, and unaffected, and therefore preëminently readable. The deficiencies of Mr. Harrison's treatise are almost forced upon the writer by the nature of his task. A contributor to a series, he was compelled to observe the narrow limits of the space assigned to him. You cannot write a life within the number of pages which suffice for an essay. As, again, he had undertaken to write one among a set of biographies intended for general reading, he was obliged to consult the taste of the general reader. We should certainly have preferred to hear more about Cromwell's constitutions, even at the sacrifice of a description of Marston Moor or of Naseby. But we have no reason to suppose that the thousands in England and America who read the Statesmen Series share our tastes, and, after all, the legitimate object of the series is to provide for the mass of intelligent readers an account of Cromwell which they will care to read, and a picture of the Protector which they may be able to remember.

May it not further be fairly said that the one other fault in Mr. Harrison's book which fair criticism need notice is also imposed upon him by the nature of his task? His treatise is too much of a eulogy; but a writer must be wanting in some of the qualities which go to make up a good biographer if he can study such a striking and massive character as Cromwell's without coming under the influence of the great Puritan statesman. Seldom is a good life of a man written by one not his admirer; and as long as an author aims, as Mr. Harrison always does, at perfect fairness, there is no reason either for wonder or for censure if capacity for impartial criticism of his hero is a trifle blunted by a tendency towards hero-worship. If we regret the presence of this tendency in Mr. Harrison, our regret is caused not by any idea that admiration for Cromwell inspires him with a kind of unfairness to a hero's opponents which vitiates the writings of Carlyle and his school, but because it prevents our author from dwelling on some of the aspects of Cromwell's career which, just because they call for criticism rather than either for eulogy or for censure, are in reality the most deserving of careful attention.

Yet, if Mr. Harrison fails to a certain extent on the critical side of his work, his clear and vigorous narrative suggests instructive criticism on the Protector's career. No one can read this last life of the Puritan leader without feeling that Cromwell's successes and Cromwell's failures suggest two questions or problems which are very closely connected with each other. What was the character of the man? What was the real scope of his policy?

No student of average intelligence can at the present day fancy that the Protector was a hypocrite who masked ambition under the pretence of religious faith. But to acquit Cromwell of hypocrisy is rather to increase than to diminish the difficulty of understanding the sentiment of distrust excited by him in men of all parties. For it cannot, we think, be in fairness denied that when the Protector lay on his deathbed, there was scarcely a statesman with whom he had acted who was not more or less estranged, and did not feel himself more or less deceived. Cavaliers, Presbyterians, Republicans, even Cromwell's own generals, all had some ground of complaint. It is vain to suppose that the charge of hypocrisy, baseless though it was, could have been believed not only by the mass of the people, but by men of sound sense and keen observation, unless there

had been something in Cromwell's character which gave it plausibility. The old rule of pleading, that, in some cases, you cannot dispose of an opponent's allegation simply by denying its truth, but that you must "show color," i. e., explain the grounds which may give rise to his misconception, is a principle of at least as much importance in solving questions of history as in dealing with questions of law. If an error is to be fully exposed, you must explain its origin. The causes of disbelief in Cromwell's sincerity were in the main two-fold. They are to be found partly in the peculiarities of his nature, partly in the peculiarities of his political position.

Hero-worshippers often appear to hold that to prove the sincerity of Cromwell's religious belief is much the same thing as establishing not only the honesty but the straightforwardness of his conduct. Yet in plain truth religious fervor not only is compatible with a want of directness, simplicity, and honesty in action, but is closely allied with a certain subtlety and tortuousness of intellect and of feeling which are apt to result in courses of action that betray a good deal of the wisdom of the serpent. To account for the fact that genuine piety and the habit of measuring the worldly transactions of the day with reference to the actor's belief in the principles governing another and better world lead, if not to dishonesty, yet to modes of speaking and acting which to the outer world seem wanting in candor, would involve a lengthy and difficult analysis of the most subtle of human feelings. That, however, spiritual enthusiasm does not of itself dictate to those under its influence plain and simple dealing with their fellow-men, is proved by all the history of religious movements. One can see in Cromwell's case, at any rate, some of the causes which turn zealots into casuists. He had to lead enthusiasts and men of the world; he was compelled, however honest his intentions, to use two languages. The tone in which he addressed his Puritan friends and his Puritan soldiers was certain to be somewhat different from the tone in which he spoke to cool-headed lawyers and scheming politicians. This difference of tone does not argue the speaker's disbelief in his religious professions. To a certain extent it is almost forced on every religious leader who has dealings with men of the world. The late Lord Shaftesbury was as honest a man as ever lived; we should, however, conjecture that his conversation with Lord Palmerston was unconsciously rather different in tone from his conversation with Mr. Spurgeon. A necessity, further, for speaking in two tongues by degrees affects the speaker's own mind. Cromwell, when seeking for the Lord in the midst of his Ironsides, was a different man from Cromwell debating constitutional questions with Whitelocke, or from Cromwell trying if possible for some basis of negotiation with Charles.

An enthusiast, moreover, who is compelled to perform the part of a statesman, suffers from the unconscious blending of his religion and his statesmanship. This evil was intensified in the case of Cromwell by his avowed belief that outward success, and especially success in battle, was the sign and proof of God's favor. His own successes were to him the bona-fide justification of his policy. He was, indeed, a master, within certain limits, of statecraft. But immediate political success gave him no satisfaction unless he could feel in his own mind that the course he pursued was approved by Heaven. One mark of the Divine sanction was success. Another was the sympathy of good men—that is to say, of the men whom Cromwell bona fide believed to be the chosen children of God. Mr. Harrison has brought out admirably the reality of Cromwell's desire for the sympathy of ardent Puritans. His attitude in this matter may be compared to the position of many modern Liberals in respect to the will of the people. A Liberal statesman feels that his knowledge exceeds that of his followers. He knows that public opinion is often wrong; he knows that it is his duty to oppose popular error, and at times he opposes it. But he cannot be happy unless public opinion, the voice of the people, the great heart of the masses, is with him. This desire for popular sympathy arises from the only half-acknowledged belief that the ultimate judgment of the people is in some sense the voice of Heaven. Our modern statesman plays tricks with this oracle. Views opposed to his own are, he thinks, not really countenanced by the people. There is a difference between public opinion and the opinion of the part of the public who happen to support the policy of our statesman's opponents. In any case, he knows by a sort of faith that public opinion will at last be found in his favor, and he spares no arts to bias the jury whose verdict he wishes to gain. So, apparently, it was with Cromwell with regard to the opinion of the saints. He wished with his whole heart that "good men" should approve his course. His deference for their sentiment was real. The two most important of his political actions were dictated, and in his own mind we may suppose morally justified, by his respect for enthusiasts whose beliefs he shared, and whose approval he desired. The execution of Charles and the refusal of the crown were each apparently dictated by genuine respect for the opinions of the good men who had risked their lives in the Lord's quarrel. How much there was of policy in this deference no human being can tell. But knowledge of human nature suggests that a genuine desire for the good opinion of good men had at least as much influence on Cromwell's conduct at the crises of his career as any ideas of statesmanship. The sentiment of the saints seemed to him to reflect the will of God.

But this very respect for the opinion of zealous Puritans of itself fostered, if not duplicity, yet what we may call doubleness of mind. Cromwell knew the language and the sentiments likely to conciliate an army of zealots, and he undoubtedly used language which, while it was natural to himself, suited the taste of his followers, and, when dealing with the army, brought into prominence that part of his character with which his Puritan soldiers could sympathize. He, too, like our modern statesmen, must have often been conscious that the "public opinion" which he respected was liable to error. He, too, played tricks with his oracle. He tried to bring round the sentiments of the army to his own views. As his age and experience increased, his ideas of policy expanded, and possibly, though this is not certain, his religious fervor cooled. In any case, he was more and more compelled to act with design. In his acts, in his words, in his policy, he had to consider the principles or prejudices of the army and, what was a very different thing, the principles or prejudices of the nation.

We can hardly wonder if religious faith which was sincere was tainted with casuistry, and subtlety of policy was marred by some of the unscrupulosity of statecraft. For, after all, Cromwell's political position has at least as much to do as have the peculiarities of his nature with those charges of his insincerity which, for more than two centuries, have detracted from his fame. His attitude is more intelligible to men of this generation than it was to men of the eighteenth century, who were devoid of the instruction which the modern world has gained from the records of a century of revolutions. Cromwell, in spite of the burning religious enthusiasm which made him the friend and ally of fanatics and sectaries, belonged at bottom to a class of statesmen of whom the last fifty years have produced striking examples. He was a conservative revolutionist; he belongs to the family of Cavour, of Deák, and of Bismarck. He was one of those men, in short, who have tried to carry through a great change without using the methods of anarchists and fanatics. Of the extent to which the spirit of a conservative revolutionist is the mark of his policy, we may say something in another article. For our present purpose, the point which deserves notice is that a statesman who uses revolutionary forces to effect a great change, and at the same time attempts to preserve the institutions of his country from destruction, is certain to incur, with more or less of justice, the charge of duplicity. An opportunist will never receive credit for sincerity. To cavaliers, Cromwell was the sectary who had murdered the King. To zealous republicans, he was the traitor who had destroyed the commonwealth in order that he might assume the crown. Combined complexity of character and ambiguity of policy rendered Cromwell, even to his contemporaries, the most incomprehensible of statesmen. The leader whom Englishmen do not understand they may admire, but they will never trust.

RECENT NOVELS.

Summer Legends. By Rudolph Baumbach. Translated by Helen B. Dole. Thos. Y. Crowell & Co.

Two Men. By Elizabeth Stoddard. Cassell & Co.

The Steel Hammer. By Louis Uhlbach. Translated from the French by E. W. Latimer. D. Appleton & Co.

Lajla: A Tale of Finmark. By Prof. J. A. Friis. Translated from the Norwegian by Ingirid Markhus. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

In 'Summer Legends' we have a collection of charming little fairy stories from the pen of Rudolph Baumbach, a Thuringian poet, now living in Leipzig. These tales have had a wide circulation in Germany, which is not surprising, since they are full of the aroma of those forests where Easter hares run about, and where gnomes and fairies dwell, visible on Midsummer's day, and ready to bestow their favors on mortals in perplexity. But it is not only the fairy-story lover at the back of every brain that will be gratified by the 'Summer Legends'; he who loves a nineteenth-century barb for his magic arrow, will find that, too, in the pungent satire which Baumbach, as an observer of to-day, cannot escape, and as a poet of nature cannot help wrapping in field-flowers, wood-mosses, and mist-wreaths. Poetry, whether in prose or verse, is clearly the author's field. The few stories which describe student life are the least attractive in the volume. The real charm of the book is felt when we see the "meadow-sprite sitting on a bright yellow marigold, kicking his little legs for joy," the water sprite playing on his violin among the reeds till "the birds in the trees were silent, the bees stopped humming, and the fishes raised their heads out of the pond to listen to the sweet sounds"; the stork, who "clapped his bill together with joy"; the upspringing of a "little flower with eyes of heavenly blue. The flower has since spread over the whole land, and for those who do not know its name

this story was not written." Not less attractive is the solemnity with which the poet himself enters into every fairy superstition. Thus, "on holy Midsummer Day," says he, gravely, "one should not make sport of such things in the forest"; and of the little old women of the wood: "Nothing hurts the little creatures more than to have their gait made fun of." And again: "For a bell, nothing is harder than to be obliged to keep silent at the feast of the Resurrection." The "Ass's Spring" is a clever little satire, the "Easter Rabbit" a story which children will delight in, "The Water of Youth" and the "Beech Tree" exquisitely tender poems in prose.

The book, then, will charm many moods of young and old, to whom the verses which serve as a prologue will prove a fitting key to a "box where sweets compacted lie." It is impossible not to be reminded once more, in reading these graceful and clever stories, as one has often been reminded before in German literature and German art, that the line between the poetic and the grotesque is more faintly marked than with other nations. Rudolph Baumbach's water sprite, who plays on his violin till the fishes raise their heads out of the pond to listen, is made by his unscrupulous creator to do it as a reward to the barber's apprentice, who had "combed and oiled his hair till it was as smooth as silk; then he parted his hair evenly from his brow to the nape of his neck, took off the apron, and made a bow as his master had taught him." The translation is made in a thoroughly sympathetic spirit, and, on the whole, gracefully, though disfigured here and there by such phrases as "she related, too, about the sleeping man," "at school he was, frankly, none of the best," "a doleful Madonna," etc. But these are crumplings in the rose-leaves which cannot spoil their fragrance, nor make us less debtors to the hand that has gathered them.

The reader of 'Two Men' will find that he has lighted upon no ordinary novel. He will read it eagerly for its interest, slowly for its fulness, and he will lend it to those among his friends who have a sense for the uncommon, an ear for rare and fine melody, an eye for nature's scale of color, a soul to which nothing that is human is foreign. By a majority of readers Mrs. Stoddard's book will be called "queer" and nothing more, and truly nothing is easier than to find fault with its angularities, abruptnesses, its needlessly sphinx-like wording. The Muse has indeed put on oddly fashioned habiliments, her gait is uncouth, her gestures are prim and dry; but do but speak with her —her words are those of a prophetess. Is it a Muse, this practical New England woman whose story lies equally in the woods and the kitchen, whose cake-making goes on at the same time with the plucking out of men's and women's souls and holding them in the light? It is precisely this mingling of the homely and the awful which gives 'Two Men' its quality. The rude New England sea-coast life, with all its austerities, bears the relation to the character of the book which the moors of Yorkshire do to Charlotte Brontë's genius. It is impossible not to regret that destiny silenced Mrs. Stoddard's pen many years ago, impossible not to believe that work as great as this is impressive might have crowned a persistent practice. Mr. Stedman, in his appreciative preface, truly observes that it is "merely the fitness of things that Mrs. Stoddard's books should now be reproduced"; and to the "critical few" who a generation ago received them as "the pioneers of something new and real in the novelist's art" (to quote Mr. Stedman again) should now be added a larger public.

The 'Steel Hammer' is one of those cleverly constructed murder stories in which the French excel. Even yet the possibilities of such stories seem not to be exhausted, for we are given in this novel a score of new and ingenious situations. The absence of villany, except in the case of the murderer, or rather the presence of respectability, is perhaps the salient feature of the plot, and lends the book a sympathetic quality. The interview between the wives of the real murderer and of the accused one, the home lives of these true and upright women, the daily intercourse, superficially smooth, but with its hideous undercurrent of suspicion, between the murderer and his wife, the visit of the latter to the morgue to subject herself as her husband's other self to the test of "the judgment of God," are all originally conceived and impressively written. A shortening of the book would have spared the reader some of the wearisomeness which comes from an excessive paragraphic style, and would also have enabled the author to escape his own literary crime of postponing the end of the story to a sequel. The French law which assigns to the judge instead of to the lawyers the questioning of the accused and of the witnesses at a murder trial, and permits him to use his own discretion in allowing them to introduce theories as well as facts into their testimony, gives the author a dramatic opportunity in his trial scene, which is well used, and suggests the question whether the French may not after all be right in legally deciding that nothing is so misleading as facts.

'Lajla' is a most attractive little tale of northern Norway and the Lapps. The human interest of the story is not without a primitive charm, but the *raison d'être* of the book is to be found in the descriptions of the nomadic life of the Lapps a hundred years ago, their wanderings from mountain to coast and back again with the season's change, their meek acceptance of their position as a race inferior to the Norwegian, and their pathetic opposition, notwithstanding, to a merging of their language in that of the "haughty Daro." The reindeer plays a conspicuous part in the pages of 'Lajla' necessarily, since he is to the Lapp life, liberty, and currency; and one reads the tale with a bracing sense of driving the fleet animal over crisp snows lighted by auroral flashes or by the midnight sun.

DRUMMOND'S TROPICAL AFRICA.

Tropical Africa. By Henry Drummond, LL.D. Authorized edition. With six maps and illustrations. Scribner & Welford. 1888. Pp. xi, 228, 8vo.

It is still an unusual circumstance for a man of Prof. Drummond's mental characteristics and scientific training to make a pleasure trip into Central Africa. We greatly regret, therefore, that he has not seen fit to write a full account of his travels. Had he done so, not only would his book have been an important contribution to our knowledge of the region visited by him, but, we are convinced, he would better have reached his aim of arousing attention to the dangers of the negro, beset with the two-fold perils of slavery and intemperance. His sketches of scenery and descriptions of personal incidents and native customs are vivid and entertaining; his scientific and political chapters are instructive and convincing; but his book nowhere rises above the dignity or value of a cleverly written magazine article. Our regret is the greater as Prof. Drummond is a keen observer, as well as a master of literary expression, and succeeds better than most travellers in reproducing his own impressions in the minds of his readers. We do not remember, for instance, to have got from any other writer so clear an idea of the native tracks which traverse the "dark continent" from ocean to ocean. "They are veritable footpaths, never over a foot in breadth, beaten as hard as adamant, and rutted beneath the level of the forest bed by centuries of native traffic." So numerous and well defined are they that "probably no country in the world, civilized or uncivilized, is better supplied with paths than this unmapped continent." The explorer has but to select one from a network leading from the east coast and to persevere in the right direction, "until one day suddenly he sniffs the sea-breeze again, and his faithful foot-wide guide lands him on the Atlantic seaboard." Equally graphic is the description, too long to be quoted in full, of the "vast, thin forest, jaded and sun-stricken, . . . the bare trunks frescoed with few lichens, their motionless and unrefreshed leaves drooping sullenly from their sapless boughs," which clothes east Central Africa.

The western limit of Prof. Drummond's wanderings was the plateau between Lakes Nyassa and Tanganyika, which he reached by way of the Zambesi and Shiré Rivers and the former lake. Here he spent a few weeks, studying its geology and insect life, being the first naturalist to visit and describe this region. On his way thither he visited the station of Livingstonia, "one of the loveliest spots in the world." At the head of a bay at the southern end of Nyassa

"stood the small row of trim white cottages. A neat path through a small garden led up to the settlement, and I approached the largest house and entered. It was the Livingstonia manse—the head missionary's house. It was spotlessly clean; English furniture was in the room, a medicine chest, familiar-looking dishes were in the cupboards, books lying about, but there was no missionary in it. I went to the next house—it was the school: the benches were there and the blackboard, but there were no scholars and no teacher. I passed to the next; it was the blacksmith's shop; there were the tools and the anvil, but there was no blacksmith. And so on to the next, and the next, all in perfect order, and all *empty*. Then a native approached and led me a few yards into the forest. And there, among the mimosa trees, under a huge granite mountain, were four or five graves. These were the missionaries."

A firm friend and believer in missions, he closes a short digression upon the African fever in which is a realistic description of his own sufferings during an attack, naturally suggested by this melancholy scene, with a solemn warning to the missionary, that not even for a holy cause should a man "seek to overleap what is plainly a barrier of Nature," and "that those who work for the highest ends will best attain them in humble obedience to the common laws."

The scientific part of the volume is a sketch of the geology of the region through which he passed, and chapters upon the mimicry of insects and the white ant. In the latter he endeavors to show that this insect does, for Central Africa at least, what Mr. Darwin has demonstrated that earthworms are doing for many other parts of the globe. It brings such enormous quantities of the underlying earth to the surface in building, not only its houses, but also the tunnels through which it reaches and devours the dead limbs on trees, that at times every tree in forests miles in extent is "so swathed in red mud that the bark is almost completely concealed, the tree looking as if it had been taken out bodily and dipped in some crystallizing solution."

In striking contrast to the deserted mission-station of Livingstonia was another village upon the same lake visited by the author. Its filth was indescribable, and around the lodge of

the chief were poles, impaled on which, "their ghastly faces shrivelling in the sun, I counted forty human heads." It was not a negro village, which are "never so dirty," but that of a noted Arab slaver. This scene and a distant glimpse of a slave caravan were apparently the only occasions in which Prof. Drummond came into direct contact with the accursed traffic which is to-day devastating vast regions of Central Africa. But the whole region passed through was affected by it in one way or another. About Lake Shirwa the main land is almost deserted, the remnant of negroes having fled for shelter from the kidnappers to the islands, which they never leave except under cover of the night. Then there were districts "where *three* natives cannot be sent a message in case two should combine and sell the third before their return." The Arabs pursue different methods in procuring slaves, the most common being that of simply raiding districts. But sometimes they

"will actually settle for a year or two in the heart of some quiet community in the remote interior. They pretend perfect friendship, they molest no one; they barter honestly. They plant the seeds of their favorite vegetables and fruits—the Arab always carries seeds with him—as if they meant to stay for ever. Meantime they buy ivory, tusk after tusk, until great piles of it are buried beneath their huts and all their barter-goods are gone. Then one day, suddenly, the inevitable quarrel is picked. And then follows a wholesale massacre. Enough only are spared from the slaughter to carry the ivory to the coast; the grass huts of the village are set on fire; the Arabs strike camp, and the slave-march, worse than death, begins."

A graphic representation of the extent of these operations, of which almost every fresh African mail brings us reports, is given in a "slave-trade map of Equatorial Africa," so colored as to show the districts harassed by the slave-hunters, those absolutely depopulated, and the principal tracks of the slave-caravans to the east coast, none reaching the Atlantic seaboard, though a few approach suspiciously near it. Prof. Drummond suggests two things which can be done to check, if not entirely uproot this frightful traffic—the maintaining a firm and uncompromising stand against it at Zanzibar, the Arab capital, and the establishment of small armed posts here and there throughout the country.

The concluding chapter, entitled "A Political Warning," discusses the Portuguese claims to the sole navigation of the Zambesi, and to a part at least of the country discovered by Dr. Livingstone and developed solely by the African Lakes Company and the Scotch Mission. These claims, which are simply destructive to the commercial and religious aims of both traders and missionaries, are shown to be indefensible, the Portuguese having acquired the districts claimed, neither by discovery, conquest, nor treaty. The importance of this question as regards the future of the negro, which is now occupying the serious attention of the English Foreign Office (the English Government having at one time given a moral guarantee of protection to the Scotch Mission), is shown by contrasting the condition of the negroes who live in the Portuguese dominions and of those who are building the Stevenson road between Lakes Nyassa and Tanganyika. Language fails to describe the demoralization of the one. The others have voluntarily made forty-six miles of road, "full of difficult cuttings and gradients, which would not disgrace a railway contractor at home." In this connection we may say that we are surprised that Prof. Drummond has said nothing about the intemperance of the African, an evil probably more deadly even than his twin-curse slavery. If he had seen the West Coast negro, whose very currency is a bottle of rum, so as to have been able to compare him with these diligent laborers whose wages are "a yard or two of calico per week," he would have been as earnest and eloquent in his denunciation of the liquor traffic of Germany and the United States as he is of Arab slave-hunting.

The maps which accompany this volume, six in number, both scientific and political, are of unusual excellence. The omission of an index, however, is greatly to be regretted.

The Makers of Venice: Doges, Conquerors, Painters, and Men of Letters. By Mrs. Oliphant, author of 'The Makers of Florence.' Macmillan & Co. 1888.

VENICE is one of the inexhaustible subjects of historian, romancer, or artist, and, like all subjects on which every student of the picturesque in either department must try a fall, it gets much illuminated and illustrated, and finally becomes hackneyed and wearisome. Mrs. Oliphant, as a practised writer with a strong appreciation of the romantic and an honest deference for the verities of history, has summed up, without novelty and without profound research, what the world of careless and sentimental readers care most to know about the city of the Lagunes, and told it in a way which, if sometimes slightly maudlin, is never really fatiguing, but which, it must be said at the same time, never rises above the commonplace. The book, *pueris virginibusque*, is genial in its second-hand inspiration, and sufficiently accurate in its second-hand research. It is, in fact, a specimen of book-making as done by thoroughly competent hack writers who have a job to do, and do it without enthusiasm and without a special fitness for the work, but also with a good English conscience and a creditable sobriety of style. It is another book on Venice, but then all is said.

The serious fault we should find with it is, that at times the habit of the novelist overcomes the author, and leads to the padding out to a quite unnecessary volume the history already full of detail, and weakening the narrative by a strained wordiness. Thus, in the account of the murder of Candiano, a savage event, of the details of which history knows very little, we have a minute description, as follows:

"This sudden conflagration lights up in the darkness of that distant age a savage scene. The Doge seized in his arms his young child, whether with the hope of saving it or of saving himself by means of that shield of innocence, and made his way out of his burning house, through the church which was also burning, though better able, probably, to resist the flames. . . . In the midst of the fire and smoke, surrounded by those threatening fierce countenances, with red reflections glittering in every sword and lance point, reflected over again in the sullen water, he made a last appeal. They had banished him in his youth, yet had relented and recalled him and made him Doge. Would they burn him out now, drive him into a corner, kill him like a wild beast? And supposing even that he was worthy of death, what had the child done, an infant who had never sinned against them? This scene, so full of fierce and terrible elements, the angry roar of the multitude, the blazing of the fire behind that circle of tumult and agitation, the wild glare in the sky, and amid all the one soft infantine figure held up in the father's despairing arms, might afford, etc."

This is poor descriptive writing, and would be weak even in a romance; but it is a fair example of much that goes to swell the bulk of the book, with about the same effect as the new process of fattening oysters by laying them down in fresh water, or the adding of useless details to a picture. Of the Piazza the author says: "Most probably this vacant space, in the days of the first Orseolo, was little more than a waste of salt-water grasses and sharp and acrid plants like those that now flourish in such luxuriance on the Lido, or perhaps boasted a tree or two, a patch of cultivated ground." But the writer of that had every opportunity to learn that there was originally a canal across the middle of the space now occupied by the Piazza, and that it was subsequently filled up to carry out some of the most important modifications in the architectural character of Venice of which we know, for on the *riva* of this canal stood the church built by Narses.

Of Orseolo we read:

"But one may fancy how, amid all the toils of the troubled state, while he labored and pondered how to get that money together for Valdrada, and pacify the Emperor and her other powerful friends, and how to reconcile all factions, and heal all wounds, and house more humbly his poor burned-out citizens [why *more* humbly?], the sight of those fair solid walls rising out of the ruins must have comforted his soul."

But we could fancy this without the authority or suggestion of Mrs. Oliphant, whose book would be all the more readable for the omission of this sentimental reflection, while the compliment of solidity paid the walls of St. Mark is perhaps the least merited of any that could be paid them, seeing that there is probably no work of approximate importance which less deserves the epithet of "solid."

In relating one of the most important military achievements of the early city, the subjugation of the Narentines, "sometimes called Narentani, sometimes Schiavoni and Croats, allied bands of sea robbers who infested the Adriatic," we have a right to expect some better account of these sea robbers, for it is a well-known as well as interesting fact that they were the advance of the great Slavic invasion which had occupied the upper Balkan country and advanced across the Danube in the later centuries of the Roman Empire, and driven the Illyrians to their present habitat, the provinces of Turkey known as Albania, Epirus, etc. They are now the Bosniaks, Herzegovinians, Montenegrins, Servians, etc. From them the Riva dei Schiavoni took its name; and by a prince of the same nationality, the last Prince of the Zeta, the hospital and church of St. George of the Slavs were founded. The Slavs on the River Narenta, having a magnificent port and a safe retreat up the river to where is now Metcovich, became seafarers, and, after the manner of most of their kind, more or less pirates, and united probably the greater part of the maritime marine population not under the influence of Venice. Instead of some historical information on the matter, we have the following characteristic effusion of commonplace sentiment.

"With what swelling sails, *con vento prospero*, the fleet must have swept back to the anxious city, which, with no post nor despatch-boat [why?] to carry her tidings, gazed silent, waiting in that inconceivable patience of old times, with anxious eyes watching the horizon! How the crowds must have gathered on the old primitive quays when the first faint rumor flew from Malamocco and the other sentinel isles of sails at hand! How many boats must have darted forth, their rowers half distracted with haste and suspense, to meet the returning armada and know the worst! Who can doubt that then, as always, there were some to whom the good news brought anguish and sorrow? But of that the chroniclers tell us nothing. Naturally, for the chroniclers in those days wrote history, and had no time to write what everybody knew and could readily anticipate."

The most kindly criticism would be to desire that the author should not be tempted again into the realms of historical labor when she has the entire field of romance still open.

Gli Stati Uniti. Ricordi di Carlo Gardini. Bologna: Nicola Zanichelli. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. 351, 392.

THE Italians are not a nation of tourists like the English and Americans; but we cannot accuse them of falling short of the traditions of their ancestors when we think of the fervor with which they have thrown themselves into the exploration of Africa, especially of Abyssinia, when we remember the books of travel of De Amicis and Foresta; or when we look at the volumes before us. Dr. Gardini came to the United States four times in eight years, between 1878 and 1886, and remained on each journey not less than eight months, during which he traversed nearly the whole of the United States. His observations are put into a continuous narrative—from New York to Albany; Boston, which he compares to Bologna as standing in a similar position towards the United States, so that *Docet* in the old phrase might as well be appended to Boston as to Bononia; Newport, the White Mountains, Saratoga, Niagara, the oil regions, Cincinnati, St. Louis, Chicago, Colorado, Utah, California; and thence back by Arizona and Texas to New Orleans, and so through the South to Washington.

This book differs from most of the sort in being written by an enthusiastic admirer of the United States, and by one whose habits and points of view are very different from those of the Teutonic races. The author had, moreover, travelled over the greater part of Europe, so that he was at no loss for standards of comparison. He is evidently an acute man, who not only can see and lay stress upon what is best worth observing, but who notices many little details which do not strike the ordinary traveller. He is interested, for example, in the advertisements of railways and land companies which terminate in tableaus of graphic statistics. But while much impressed with the different forms taken by advertising in America, he does not seem to have noticed the growing indecency of pictorial advertisements, which so strikes an American on returning home after a year or two of absence—perhaps because this tendency in America is so similar to that nowadays observable in most European countries.

In spite of the title-page, Dr. Gardini presents us not with the impressions of a mere tourist, but with the reflections of a sensible man based on reasoning and close observation. Owing to his position he had access to good society, although, with occasional exceptions, he mentions no names, and never indulges in gossip either well-meant or ill-natured. His book is well illustrated—some of the woodcuts were lately displayed at the Exhibition of Bologna—and, what is rare in a book of this kind, he gives many graphic tables, maps of particular regions, and plans of towns and their surroundings.

Some of his remarks are acute, and many are interesting, as showing from what a point of view unusual to us they were looked at. For instance:

"University students are much calmer than their colleagues in Europe. They don't at all trouble themselves about politics or affairs outside their line of study; and, with the practical sense which animates the nation, they try to make the best use of their time. They fight no duels; and it is only for health and recreation that they take part in various sports and games."

"When there is a question of appointing bishops, creating dioceses, ecclesiastical discipline, or excommunication, the State remains passive; there is no right either of proposal, of preference or choice or *placet* or *exequatur*, or of any of those indefinable prerogatives which cause so many difficulties between the Church and governments."

The author notices the external religious feeling of Americans as shown in the Thanksgiving Day proclamations, oaths on the Bible in the courts, the grace said by clergymen at political dinners, and the observance of Sunday. He is astonished, however, at finding a fancy fair in a Catholic church at New York—a practice which, though now generally disused in Europe, dates from the good old mediæval times. His remarks about American men and women are entertaining:

"Women of New York, physically speaking, are the happy result of the fusion of the rigid, statuesque, and rather virile forms of English women with the sympathetic and attractive feminine qualities of the daughters of the Latin race. They are therefore not as expressive, as gushing, and as winning as Italian and French women; at the same time not as serious, cold, and angular as Anglo-Saxons."

"The men, however, inherit much more than the women Anglo-Saxon peculiarities. They are rather serious, with a less aristocratic bearing, and at first you would think them unsocial. But as soon as you are introduced they shake your hand, offer you a cigar, and with few but frank words ask you to sit down, and show you their house, their picture-gallery, or their garden. Their first questions are about America—if you like it; how you find its climate, and its government; what they think elsewhere of the progress of the Great Republic; if you are up to the last statistics; and whether you have observed that the value of the exports exceeds that of the imports."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bancroft, H. H. History of the Pacific States of North America. Vol. IX. Mexico, Vol. VI. 1861–1887. San Francisco: The History Co.
Brown, E., and Strauss, A. Dictionary of American Politics. New York: A. L. Burt. $1.
Griswold, W. M. Index to *Harper's Weekly*, 1857–1887. Washington (East Capitol Station): W. M. Griswold.
Lamartine, A. de. Selected Poems from Premières et Nouvelles Méditations. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 75 cents.
Matthew, J. E. A Popular History of Music. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $4.
Reid, T. W. Life of the Right Hon. W. E. Forster. 2 vols. London: Chapman & Hall: Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $8.
Schreiner, Olive. The Story of an African Farm. New ed. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $1.
Senior, W. Near and Far: an Angler's Sketches of Home Sport and Colonial Life. London: Sampson Low & Co.
Shakspere's Taming of the Shrew. (Bankside Shakspere. II.) Shakspere Society of New York.
The Curse and Chains of Roman Catholicism: a Controversy. Baltimore: R. H. Woodward & Co. 25 cents.
The Tariff Question: Cartoons and Comments from *Puck*. Keppler & Schwarzmann. 10 cents.
Thompson, M. A Fortnight of Folly. John B. Alden.
Venable, W. H. Footprints of the Pioneers in the Ohio Valley. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $1.
Vincent, Jacques. Vaillante—Ce que femme veut. Paris: Plon & Nourrit; Boston: Schoenhof.
Wallace, Susan E. The Land of the Pueblos. John B. Alden.
Walworth, Mrs. J. H. The Silent Witness. Cassell & Co. 25 cents.
Ward, Mrs. H. Robert Elsmere. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Waters, R. William Shakspere Portrayed by Himself. Worthington Co.
Watson, Prof. J. The Philosophy of Kant as Contained in Extracts from his Own Writings. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Wentworth, Prof. G. A. Text-Book of Geometry. Revised ed. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.35.
Wisconsin Historical Collections. Vol. XI. Madison, Wis.
Wycherley, W. Plays edited by W. C. Ward. London: Vizetelly & Co.; Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

SUMMER BOOKS.

Entomology for Beginners,

By A. I. Packard, Professor in Brown University. 12mo, $1.75.

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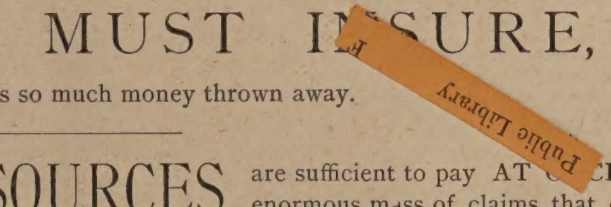

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Alphabetized, first, by States; second, by Towns.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 16, 1888.

The Week.

MR. BLAINE landed on Friday, and began his speech-making as usual with a blunder or misstatement so glaring that every business man in the country recognized its parentage at once. Contrasting the business situation of to-day with that of last year, in order to show how mischievous have been the effects of the President's message and the Mills bill, he said that business was prosperous last year, and that we had now entered upon a period of depression. This is not the opinion of the New York *Tribune's* financial editor, however. We put in the deadly parallel the sayings of these two authorities:

MR. BLAINE, AUG. 10.	THE TRIBUNE, AUG. 6.
The year 1887 was prosperous, and the President at its close proposed a radical change in the industrial system which had produced that prosperity, and since that day there has been reversal and confusion in the commerce and manufactures of the United States.	The General Situation.—The general trade reports for the past week were of a satisfactory character, and the volume of business is reported equal to that of the date of last year.

The truth of the matter is, that the *Tribune's* financial estimate of the present state of business, as compared with the period selected by Mr. Blaine, is rather under than over the mark. The trade journals represent the situation as decidedly better than that of last year, and we venture to say that if the business men of the country were polled on the question, ninety-nine in every hundred of them would say at once, and without the smallest hesitation, that there is a marked improvement in trade and industry. *Bradstreet's* issue of Saturday says its special telegrams from leading cities "mark an increase of the improvement in the conditions of trade noticed last week." The same paper furnishes a table of railroad earnings for about two-thirds of the country's railroad mileage, showing that, notwithstanding the rate wars and the interference of the Inter-State Commerce Commission and the State Railroad Commissions, "the earnings from January 1 to June 30 show an increase of .8 per cent. over the first six months of 1887, while over the same periods of 1886 and 1885 they are 13.7 and 22.6 per cent., respectively, greater." Immediately preceding Mr. Blaine's blundering statement of the business situation was another, equally untrue, namely, that he was going to discuss a question on which he is "supposed to have a consistent record." His consistency is that of reckless misrepresentation. Nothing else would be consistency on his part. It is very evident that when he made his speech on Friday evening he had not taken pains to inquire whether business was good or bad, better or worse than last year. It suited his purpose to represent it as being bad, and so he said that it was bad, and took the chances.

It is interesting to contrast the theory of the Republican candidate for Head of the Administration as to the only way in which wages can be reduced with the fact, as stated by Mr. B. F. Jones, late Chairman of the Republican National Committee:

MR. BLAINE, AUGUST 10.	MR. JONES, JUNE 20.
I say here that the wages of the American laborer cannot be reduced except with the consent and with the votes of the American laborer himself.	Our works will close down to-morrow, and remain closed until a satisfactory [that is, a lower] scale is presented to us by the workmen.

The bugle blast of the Greatest Living Statesman was repeated nine times on Monday, with slight variations, and was perceptibly weaker each time. It is noticeable that Mr. Blaine is already shy of using statistics, in which his blunders are so easily exposed, and is confining himself to broad general, rather than specific, untruths concerning the effects of tariff reform and Cleveland's reëlection. We no longer find in his speeches his misstatements about the bad effects of Cleveland's policy upon the business of the country, or about the deposits of the wage-earners of Great Britain in savings banks being less than those of Massachusetts. These were the only specific statements that he has made since he began to blow the bugle, and both have been shown to be recklessly false. He confined the blast in eight instances on Monday to a general assertion that the prosperity of the country and the interests of the laboring classes would be injured by a change in tariff policy, but in the ninth he introduced a few fresh variations, saying that the President and his party were "alarmed" because they had discovered that the "mighty host which earns its bread by the sweat of the brow" would resent the "attempt to place wages on the low basis of the European plane," and that "if we have free trade, the factories *will not be closed*, but *if kept open* they will be run at half the present wages."

Two pathetic appeals for "fat" in aid of the cause of high protection and free whiskey come to our notice simultaneously. One is, of course, a fresh circular from the prolific and irrepressible James P. Foster, President of the Republican League of the United States. This is dated at the Headquarters, July 30, and, like all of Mr. Foster's utterances, is chiefly noticeable for the frankness with which it "gives away" Republican secrets. "Unless great effort is made in the next three months," says Foster, "there is danger that Grover Cleveland will be reëlected." When Foster made this admission, he did not know that Mr. Blaine had discovered that the President and his party were "alarmed." Foster goes on to say: "All we ask of you is a small contribution. Give us the means, and we will do our duty." That is the sentiment of all the Boys in this city—"means" first, duty afterwards. The delay in the forwarding of the means is what is keeping the Boys' coats so closely upon their backs. The second appeal comes in the form of an editorial article in the Boston *Journal*, in which contributions of a dollar each are solicited. "The wheels," says the *Journal*, with Mr. Foster's "fat" circular evidently in its mind, "must be *greased*, and the more readily the money is given, the more effective will be the work." Obviously the protected manufacturers are still refusing to be "fried."

Indiana Republicans went to Chicago asking the nomination of Gen. Harrison for President on the ground that it would make the State surely Republican. Ever since General Harrison was nominated, they have been importuning ex-Gov. Porter to accept the nomination for Governor, on the ground that he was the only man who could pull Gen. Harrison through—the Republican candidate for President having proved uncommonly weak in his own State, by reason especially of the bitter opposition to him which has developed on the part of "organized labor." But Mr. Porter would not accept, and the Convention finally pitched upon a man named Hovey, who represents the pension mania in its most offensive form, his chief notoriety coming from the fact that he is an earnest advocate of the "service pension" scheme, which proposes to give a pension to everybody who served in the army. Now somebody is wanted to help Hovey pull Harrison through. Who better than the Greatest Living Statesman, endeared as he is to every true son of Indiana by the famous letter of December 10, 1884, in which he paid a glowing tribute to the State as one in which "it is simply impossible that I can have a fair trial"?

It is encouraging to find Indiana Republicans denouncing the practice of gerrymandering, and demanding "constitutional apportionments whereby the votes of members of all political parties shall be given equal force and effect." Indiana Republicans have not always held these views. In 1872 they carried the State for two Congressmen-at-large by the trifling majorities of 533 and 126, and the Legislature by a narrow margin in each branch, while the Democrats secured the Governorship. The next State election would involve a United States Senatorship, and the Republican managers concluded that the way to insure that Senatorship was, not to give equal force and effect to the votes of members of all political parties, but to redistrict the State so that the Republican half of the voters would elect thirty out of fifty Senators and fifty-nine out of one hundred Representatives in the Legislature. The outrageous scheme miscarried, as it ought to have done, and the Republicans elected in 1874 only twenty-two Senators and thirty-two Representatives, the Democrats thus securing the United States Senatorship. Naturally enough, a few years later the Democrats improved upon this Repub-

lican example, and made a gerrymander in 1885 which was expected to give them 100 out of 150 members of the Legislature, whereas the Republicans had tried to grab only 89. They ought to have been punished by losing the Legislature altogether, and the Republicans allege that they did on a fair count, although the Republican majority of the United States Senate admitted the Democrat chosen by the narrow majority which the party, by hook or by crook, finally secured in the Legislature.

A few days after the adjournment of the Chicago Convention, Senator Sherman of Ohio was quoted by a newspaper interviewer to the following effect, viz.:

"Henceforth I can say what I please, and it is a great pleasure. This feeling of freedom is so strong with me that I am glad I did not get the nomination."

Strong presumptive evidence of the truth of the foregoing quotation is found in his speech on the Fishery Treaty, published in the *Congressional Record* of Wednesday week, for here the Ohio Senator throws off all disguises, if he ever had any, and comes out squarely for free trade with Canada as the basis and beginning of the political union of the two countries. Hardly anything more effusive can be found in the literature of the day than Mr. Sherman's good feeling towards the Canadians and the whole British world. In fact, Mr. Sherman opposes the ratification of the Fishery Treaty precisely because he thinks it does not go far enough in the direction of amity and brotherly love. It almost takes our breath away to read his fervent ejaculations. And, what is more to the point, there is no doubt that Mr. Sherman is perfectly sincere in all this. He means every word of it. He would cut off the Maine and Michigan lumbermen and the Massachusetts fishermen from the benefits of the tariff with no more compunction than Artemus Ward felt for his wife's relations in the war.

It would not be in keeping with Mr. Sherman's cast of mind if he did not seek to make a point against the Democrats while adopting their policy in part. Accordingly we find him insisting that the Democrats favor the ratification of the pending treaty "because Senators on that side of the house are controlled more or less by party ties in supporting this treaty—because it is a treaty made by a Democratic Administration." It requires considerable hardihood to brush out of sight the distress, we might almost say anguish, that has been endured by Secretary Bayard on this subject ever since the State Department came into his hands—a state of feeling which was and is necessarily shared by his party in Congress—with the dilemma before him and them of a lot of raging fishermen and wild Irishmen on the one side, lashed on by reckless partisans like Senator Frye, and hired attorneys like Judge Woodbury and the late R. S. Spofford, and a possible war with Great Britain on the other side. Only the mutual good will of the two peoples, born of the *Alabama* settlement, of which the last Fishery Treaty was a part, and cultivated by commerce and travel during the past twenty years, saved us from the hostile attitude which commonly presages war. No thanks to the Senate that we were spared this disturbance, for the Senate prepared and forced upon the House the Retaliation Act, which has not yet been put in force.

The Central Labor Union is discussing the question of making the repeal or modification of the conspiracy laws an issue in the fall campaign. There is a conflict of opinion as to the most expedient way of doing this, but it seems to us that the open, bold way would be the best. Let the Central Labor Union take the field on the broad general ground that the law "must go," that it interferes with boycotting, and makes it difficult for the Walking Delegate to earn his living without work, and let us see what the people will do about it. Thus far the only man outside the Union who has taken his position against the stringency of the law is Gov. Hill. The Legislature refused solidly to follow his lead, and the public generally, so far as it expressed itself, said amen to Mayor Hewitt's warm denunciation of the Governor for coming out on the side of disorder and violence in the settlement of labor disputes. There are many elements in the community, however, which do find laws of almost every kind too severe, and if these could be rallied under a common standard, like "Down with laws!" we have no doubt that they would poll a considerable vote, and no doubt either that the Governor would enter into a "dicker" with them for it as soon as they completed their organization.

The *World* considers that it would be an insult to Gov. Hill to ask him to return to the city treasury the $10,000 of aqueduct money that he received from one of the contractors. Of course it would be an insult if he did not have the money. It would be an insult to ask him to return it if he was entitled to receive it. In no other sense could it be an insult to ask him to pay it back. The *World* would be much better employed in seconding every honorable effort to get this money back into the city treasury than in throwing stones at those who are making the effort, if any such there be. The fact that he received the money has been sworn to most positively by the contractor who paid it, and has not been denied. Nor is there any doubt or question as to the source and origin of this money. It was part of an extra sum, over and above a fair compensation, obtained from the city for work on the new aqueduct. This is as plain as A B C. The only explanation of this affair that we have ever heard was, that the Governor used the money to pay his campaign expenses. We have been waiting to see whether the Governor would put in this plea in abatement himself, but he has not done so.

The simultaneous retirement of Sir George Stephen and Mr. L. P. Morton from the management of the Canadian Pacific Railway, the former as President and the latter as a director, has been made the subject of no little comment. Sir George, it is said by one set of commentators, goes out in order to give the chief place to Vice-President Van Horne, an American citizen of much renown in the railroad world. It is believed that Mr. Van Horne's accession to the Presidency of this great corporation will dull the edge of criticism in the United States, and tend to prevent hostile action in Congress of the sort prefigured in Senator Cullom's speech. Mr. Morton's resignation is ascribed to patriotism and a natural desire to get votes. He was succeeded by Senator McInness of New Westminster, British Columbia. So by a concerted movement one Canadian made room for an American and one American made room for a Canadian. There is very little room for fault-finding here—certainly none as against Mr. Morton.

M. de Molinari calls attention, in the July number of the *Journal des Économistes*, to the reward which England is now reaping for her steadfast adherence to the policy of free trade, in the face of the protectionist movement which has swept over all Europe. For a time English industries were considerably embarrassed by losing a portion of their former market in Germany, France, and Austria. In those countries, on the other hand, a temporary impulse was given to production and to foreign trade by the stimulus of a protective tariff and bounties. But the impulse could be, and has been, but temporary. Taxed provisions and materials of manufacture have had their necessary outcome in higher cost of production, and England's adherence to free trade, although paying higher wages, is putting her at the front again. For the first five months of this year, English imports show a gain over the corresponding period of 1887 of $39,875,000, and exports a gain of $33,300,000. For the same months, France, on the contrary, has lost $13,000,000 and $4,000,000 in imports and exports respectively. The foreign trade of Germany, though showing a slight gain, is only improved by comparison with a very bad preceding year, and is really at no higher point than in 1883. The London *Economist* had already commented on the decided looking up of England's foreign commerce, and had remarked that it would prove a serious setback to the "fair-traders."

The protectionist agitation in Spain has assumed its most formidable shape in the so-called Agrarian League. This organization is not made up of land-owners alone, but appears to be a political catch-all, designed for the convenience of all who agree in demanding a higher tariff, no matter how widely they may differ on other points. With the farmers who complain bitterly of their heavy taxation and their inability to compete with foreign agricultural products, and who clamor for higher duties on breadstuffs, are associated manufacturers who cry out that in spite of the tariff on the goods they make being higher than any other in Europe, they are being ruined by the slight reductions

made in pursuance of commercial treaties, and owners of real estate who call for a reduction of their taxes to the extent of $10,000,000, the amount to be made good to the Government by heavier customs duties and by taxing personal property and bonds. With these demands go hand in hand, as usual, appeals for extravagant State expenditures in aid of internal improvements. At the head of the movement is Señor Gamazo, ex-Minister of Public Works, representing the agricultural constituency of Old Castile. He has a following of thirty deputies and as many Senators, all from agricultural and manufacturing provinces. So great headway has the agitation made as to draw into its support such Conservatives as De Toreno, Villaverde, and Canovas, Liberals of prominence like Romero y Robledo and Montillo, and at least one leading Republican, Muro of Old Castile. In addition to the prevailing agricultural depression, as ground of complaint and appeal, the protectionists make a great deal of the considerable falling off in foreign trade which has marked the past three years. Altogether, this compact Agrarian League promises to be a powerful political organization.

Prime Minister Sagasta meets its demands with partial concessions. He proposes to take off $3,600,000 of the taxes laid on real estate and agriculture. He promises to get lower rates of freight on the railroads for products of farm and mine. He accepts the programme for extensive public works, and undertakes to stimulate foreign commerce in all possible ways. But he declares that the main demand, viz., that for higher duties, cannot be granted without a violation of national faith. The light reductions in customs duties which have been made are, he points out, parts of solemn treaty obligations entered into with twenty different countries in the course of the last twenty years. That the foreign trade of Spain has quadrupled during that period is, he claims, a direct result of the more liberal policy. Acknowledging the severe agricultural depression, he shows that it is not confined to Spain, but is universal in Europe, and remarks that it must be overcome by the use of better methods rather than by raising the tariff. If Spain has exposed some of her industries to a sharper competition by relaxing her tariff restrictions, she has, at the same time, gained a greatly expanded market for those products in which she can defy competition—viz., olive oil, wine, raisins, and ores.

Lord Salisbury's speech at the banquet in London on Thursday seems to have dissipated whatever remained of the war scare of a year ago. Our readers may remember that the belief that war was sure to break out last spring was widely prevalent in Europe, even among the best informed observers, during the whole of the winter of 1887-8. It was due largely to the continued dissatisfaction of Russia with the state of things in Bulgaria, and to the fear that she would take advantage of the French desire for revenge to form an alliance with the Republic, and use it to paralyze Germany while she worked her own will in the Balkan peninsula. At that time Boulanger was still taken seriously in France. The air was full of accounts of his achievements as an organizer, and somehow his horsemanship also spread the idea that he would prove a great commander in time of war. In one way or another, in fact, the expectation of another great European struggle of the nations, became stronger than it had been at any time since 1869. Bismarck did much to pour oil on the waters by his triple alliance with Austria and Italy. This was his answer to the threatenings on the side of France. He frankly published the treaty, which showed that he was determined to have peace, even if he had to fight for it. The quieting effect of this was at once apparent. Russian activity in Bulgaria began to diminish, and so did Boulanger's popularity in France as a military man.

It is curious, but it is a fact, that Boulanger's conversion into a politician, and the transfer of his interest from foreign to domestic affairs, began almost simultaneously with Bismarck's notice that he was ready for France or Russia at any time. Boulanger henceforth began to occupy himself with the defects of "parlementarisme," and with the revision of the Constitution, rather than with the best means of conquering Germany. His course since then, too, has undoubtedly had a strongly sedative effect on Russia. The facility with which he became a budding Cæsar, and the panic which he for some weeks spread among the Republican politicians, were to all foreigners an unmistakable sign that France was still afflicted with serious internal weakness, and was not to be counted on as a reliable ally in any European conflict. In other words, the Boulanger episode made unmistakably for peace. Another agency which has helped to restore the feeling of security, has been the steady and persistent disregard of the Bulgarians for Russian, and indeed all foreign, threats. Whether their course has been dictated by simple bullheadedness or by political sagacity, matters little. The fact is, that the little people which only emerged from mediæval darkness and barbarism within ten years, has astonished all Europe by its independence and capacity for self-government. Probably nothing in the whole situation has done as much to disconcert Russian plans as this revelation, because it has furnished Austria and England with materials for protests against interference which, in these days of public opinion, even the master of a hundred legions cannot disregard.

The discussions started in the French press by the result of the Boulanger-Floquet duel are very interesting illustrations of manners. Our forecast of the effect it would have in discrediting Boulanger in the popular mind has been fully justified by the event. The latest *Figaro* has an article on the subject, in which it enlarges at some length on the disgrace for a military man of being beaten with the sword by a *péquin* — the French military slang name for a civilian. It says: "The defeat of a general by a civilian has seemed to all classes, 'bourgeois' as well as 'people,' so complete, so crushing, so unexpected, that one of our friends heard on the same day, within an interval of two hours, a workingman claim for M. Floquet the chief command of the national forces by sea and land, and a Boulangist concierge (janitor) exclaim, 'What a misfortune! They must have dipped M. Floquet's blade in poison.'" The army men, it says, suffered still more keenly—repeating with a groan, "A general beaten by a *péquin!*" The *Figaro* tries to cheer them up by recalling other occasions on which civilians have got the better of military men with the small sword, and notably the duel between M.de Lauriston and the Marquis de Gallifet. Lauriston was a civilian sixty years old, and Gallifet a distinguished young cavalry officer. He accused Lauriston of staring at his wife at the theatre in an unbecoming manner. Lauriston slapped his face, and soon after wounded him severely.

The writer then goes on to explain how it is that French soldiers are exposed to these mortifying defeats at the hands of civilians. The reason is, that fencing is compulsory in the army three times a week, and, therefore, like all compulsory things, is distasteful, and that the halls provided for the purpose are dreary, ill-lighted, and poorly furnished, and in winter very cold. Consequently, it says, among the fencers of renown in Paris, all of whom are well known to the public, there is not a single military man. To be a good fencer needs from two hours to two hours and a half every day — in other words, as much as good piano playing or dancing. Of this, one hour is given to actual practice, and another to bathing, dressing, and cooling off. For this a soldier has not the leisure. The best fencers in Paris to-day are to be found in two classes, the rich young men, who take to the small sword as one of their daily amusements, and the Government and bankers' and lawyers' clerks, and the brokers, who are at liberty after four or five o'clock, and are apt to fill up the time before dinner with a bout with the foils. The three crack fencers are Baron Ezpeleta and M. Aldama, both men of leisure, and a young stockbroker named Vavasseur. M. Floquet took up fencing within a year, after twenty years of disuse, under the doctor's orders, but he was known in the *salles d'armes* as a mere "mazette," or butter-fingers. The comparative indifference to the art in the army is ascribed also to the fact that in active service it is the sabre only which is worn, and most men use the sabre in a mêlée to cut and slash, and not to point, although every French writer on cavalry dwells with solemnity upon the duty of pointing and not cutting in a charge. But pointing when a man is approaching an adversary whose blade is swinging high in air requires more coolness and experience than most men have.

THE CAMPAIGN.

THE Leader of the Party having arrived, the Republican canvass now opens. For several weeks the stage has been occupied by amateurs, the star being a comical actor from Indianapolis, who has delivered with the greatest impressiveness the emptiest nothings ever uttered. The country has watched his antics with mingled curiosity and amusement, while awaiting the return of the great professional. He came on Friday, and with his first words brushed aside the amateurs. "The political campaign on which we are about to enter," was the notice which he served on all concerned, that the Indianapolis business was a farce which was now ended.

The total effacement of the Nominal Candidate is the most striking and the most impressive feature of the situation. The name of Benjamin Harrison appears at the head of the Republican ticket, but that is his only part in the canvass. His position, indeed, closely resembles that of the Presidential elector in ordinary campaigns. Usually the voter who desires a certain man to be President, votes a ticket containing a list of Presidential electors practically pledged to vote in their turn for the man whom the voter desires to see at the head of the Administration. In like manner this year the voter who wants to see Mr. Blaine Head of the Administration, will vote the ticket of Harrison Presidential electors; but everybody understands that Gen. Harrison is expected to act only as caretaker of the White House. So far as the personal issue is concerned, it is simply between an administration dominated by Grover Cleveland, on the one side, and an administration dominated by James G. Blaine, on the other.

On the burning question of the tariff the two parties present a clear-cut issue. The Democrats propose a well-considered measure, which puts sundry raw materials, notably wool, lumber, and salt, upon the free list, and reduces the duties on a number of other articles. They advocate these changes on the ground that the freeing of raw materials would promote manufactures, and that the proposed reduction of duties on other articles would benefit the masses of the people. The Republican platform, on the other hand, commits the party to the maintenance of the existing protective system, even if that policy requires the total abolition of the internal-revenue system, and the flooding of the country with cheap whiskey. An attempt has been made by the Republican Senators to substitute some other doctrine, through the passage by that branch of a tariff bill which would reduce the duties on some articles and remove those on some others; but the difficulties in the way have already proved so great that they now threaten to be insuperable. The Leader of the Party evidently so regards them, for he treats the matter as settled by the Chicago platform. The setting aside of a platform by a party between convention and election is a thing which never has occurred, and it is safe to say that it will not occur this year. The Democrats made their appeal to the country upon the declaration of principles adopted at St. Louis; the Republicans theirs upon that adopted at Chicago. The voters will decide between the two policies.

Upon the issue thus presented the Republicans appeal to greed and ignorance, the Democrats to public spirit and intelligence. The President of the Republican League of the United States has given the world the testimony of "a Republican United States Senator" that "the manufacturers get practically the sole benefit of the tariff laws," and the Republicans seek the support of Democratic manufacturers on the ground of their selfish interests. Whenever one says, as Pierce Kane, a Democratic knit-goods manufacturer of Rensselaer County, said: "I know what my own interests are, and will do my best to protect them. I am voting for Kane," he is hailed as a patriot. Along with this appeal to the pocket of the manufacturer, who gets "practically the sole benefit of the tariff laws," goes an appeal to the fears of his employees, by what is known in political parlance as "working the free-trade racket." This is the attempt to frighten the workingmen into voting for the high-tariff and free-whiskey party by the threat that the country will go to ruin, and they will lose their places, if a moderate reduction in the tariff is made.

The Democrats do not advocate their cause on the ground that its success would swell still larger the immense fortunes of a small number of protected manufacturers like Andrew Carnegie, but on the ground that it would promote the interests of the great mass of the American people. They still hold to the old-fashioned notion that taxation is a bad thing, of which the less the better, and that an economical administration of the Government is preferable to a policy of reckless extravagance. The loud cries with which the "free-trade scare" is raised, they meet by quiet arguments showing the advantage to the community of free raw materials and low duties, quoting the unanswerable words on this side in the past of nearly all the great Republican leaders.

Leader and policy are ideally suited to each other in each party. The Republican candidate for Head of the Administration is just the man to represent a cause that appeals to the greed of a small ring of men whose only idea of the Government is that of a machine to make money for its "friends," and to the ignorance of the workingmen, whom among themselves they laugh at as they plan to dupe them. The Democratic candidate is just the man to represent a cause which appeals to the intelligence and good sense of the mass of the people—a plain man, without a particle of "magnetism" or "brilliancy," doing what he conceives to be his duty without regard to the danger of its costing him a reëlection (Mr. Blaine himself concedes that Mr. Cleveland would probably have been reëlected if he had not written his tariff message), trusting his fortunes to the "plain people."

THE HOME-MARKET FALLACY.

GEN. GRANT refers somewhere in his Memoirs to the great variety of antiquated fire-arms called into use by the sudden outbreak of the civil war, and the observation might be applied to the vigorous controversy over the tariff question into which the country has now plunged. The exigencies of debate bring out arguments of all kinds, some of which are about as effective in the present discussion as arquebuses and culverins would be in modern warfare, and their production is a striking proof of the long dearth of serious issues in our politics. Perhaps as remarkable a specimen as any of this kind of argument is what may be called the home-market fallacy. This fallacy consists in inferring that, since the home market is the best for the products of a country, it is the best policy to shut off the foreign market. It is urged that, if we sell goods to foreigners, taking their goods in exchange, we are enabling them to employ their capital at a profit and furnishing wages to their laborers, while if we sold the goods to our own people, we should be giving a profit to home capital and wages to home labor—a course so obviously beneficial to the whole country as to demand legislative enactment.

This argument—the premises of which must have been fished out of the 'Wealth of Nations' by some scholarly protectionist—may not seem to deserve serious discussion; but, as it is quite commonly advanced by very honest people, and as its examination lets in a great deal of light upon the main question, it is advisable to scrutinize it with care. It really contradicts the fundamental principle upon which all commerce, and, in fact, all modern industry rest—the principle, namely, of the division of labor. We may best get at the heart of the matter by asking why it is that the farmer nowadays does not, as he once did, make his own clothes. It is obvious that, if he combed and spun and wove his own wool, he would be employing his own capital and furnishing wages to the laborers of his own family. He would save the expense of transporting the wool to a market, and transporting the clothes back again; he would not be paying a profit to the woollen manufacturer or wages to his workmen, and would, in short, be enjoying all the advantages of a home market in the highest possible degree. What has induced the farmers of the world to sacrifice all these advantages? Simply the fact that they have found that they could get more and better clothes by making this sacrifice. They have found that they obtained a higher profit upon their capital and better wages for their labor by producing, not clothes, but articles which they exchanged for clothes. It is true that a protective tariff tends to compel them to accept the advantages of the home market by making them accept worse and fewer clothes in exchange for their products than they would receive if trade were free; but the advantages of the division of labor are so much greater than those of the home market, that farmers still find that it does not pay them to make their own clothes.

What is true of individuals is true, although to a less extent, of communities. According to the home-market theory, the people of Massachusetts and the people of

Minnesota are making a great mistake in exchanging their products with one another. The shoemakers of the East ought to exchange their shoes for flour produced in their own region, since thus they would give employment to home capital and labor; and the farmers of the West should for the same reason barter their flour for shoes produced in the West. But it is clear that in such case the Eastern manufacturers and the Western farmers would both be worse off than before. Massachusetts is a poor place for growing wheat, but it is from several causes a very good place for making shoes; and Minnesota has much greater advantages in wheat-raising than in shoemaking. If the home-market theory be true, nothing can be more ruinous to a country than the construction of railroads. Without them the shoemakers of Massachusetts would be compelled to exchange with the farmers of Massachusetts, and the people of Minnesota would have to make their own shoes or go barefoot. There would be more "home market" in both cases, but there would be fewer commodities, fewer people, and lower profits and wages.

The plausibility of this fallacy is due to the ambiguous terms in which it is expressed. It is assumed that the home capital and labor to which the tariff is to give employment are somehow created by the tariff, and it is implied that they would be unemployed unless the tariff gave them employment. But the imposition of taxes cannot create new capital. It can only divert capital from existing channels into new ones, and, by the very theory of protection, in these new channels the ordinary rate of profit cannot be obtained. If it could, capital would enter them of its own accord. Capital thus diverted may earn a profit, but it is earned by a comparative reduction of the rates of profit and wages current in the community at large.

After the establishment of a protective tariff there is no more capital than there was before. There are no more laborers. There is less "foreign market," and experience shows that it is not even certain that there will be more "home market." If the foreign market were entirely cut off, the total production of the country would not be increased but diminished, for a portion of the capital of the country that was formerly employed at a profit would then be employed at a comparative loss. The home market creates itself whenever there is any profit in it, and when there is none, Congress cannot produce it. The only way to enlarge the home market is to allow the greatest possible freedom to our citizens in the employment of their capital. They will be very certain to cease trading with foreigners whenever they can make more by trading at home, and nothing but loss can follow from the attempt of the Government to control their business.

TRUSTS.

THE people of the United States are beginning to realize that the situation in which they are placed, by the Trusts and Combines multiplying around them, is very serious. The preliminary report of the Congressional Committee on this subject is a confession that up to this time no way has been discovered to relieve the public from the exactions of these new-fangled monopolists. The legal position of the Trusts is apparently impregnable. They have all the existing apparatus for making certain staple articles indispensable to civilized society, such as refined sugar, cotton bagging, steel rails, illuminating oils, etc. There are forty or fifty of these constrictors, organized in one way and another, all squeezing the life out of that patient ox, the public.

A suit at law has been begun against one of them in this State to dissolve certain corporations that have been amalgamated into a Trust. The prosecution of this suit will occupy not less than three years, probably much more, and, if successfully maintained, will dissolve the wicked corporations. But how will that achievement help the public? The property of the dissolved corporation does not become public property. It still belongs to the owners. Suppose that it is a sugar-refining company. Its existence as a corporation comes to an end, its machinery and assets are sold in order that the proceeds may be divided among the shareholders. Its chief, perhaps its sole shareholder, is the Trust. Of course the Trust can bid more for the property than anybody else, because the proceeds fall into its own treasury. What the Trust wants is the property, not the charter. If there is anything it can easily dispense with, it is the corporate title. There are probably some corporations amalgamated into Trusts which the Trusts would be glad to have dissolved at the expense and by the authority of the State, as, for example, those which have a few discontented, impracticable stockholders.

The dissolution of an incorporated company is an operation of extreme delicacy and difficulty, as has been found by those who have ever attempted to freeze out a minority interest, however small. We can imagine that the Trusts would be exceedingly obliged to the State for taking the job off their hands, eliminating all disturbing elements, and handing the property over to them. A corporate franchise is in no way essential to a Trust. Incorporated companies have been picked up and brought into these "combines," not because that particular form of holding was desired, but because it was actually in existence. It was easier to take it as it was than to change its form and its legal relations. But in the case of a property where division of ownership is not desired, and where personal liability for debts is not apprehended, a charter from the State is manifestly superfluous. No Trust has sought to have itself incorporated. No Trust, we venture to say, cares a farthing whether its subordinate corporations are disincorporated or not.

If there is no relief coming from lawsuits, or from this kind of a lawsuit, is any to be expected from the force of domestic competition? In the long run, the very long run, we should say yes. Yet it is by no means certain. The argument in favor of competition assumes that whenever the Trust or Combine advances the price of its product beyond a fair remuneration for the capital, labor, and skill employed, other capital, labor, and skill will come into the field and bring down prices and profits to the normal level. This is the doctrine usually held by economists; but economists recognize equally the truth of Stephenson's maxim, that where combination is possible, competition is impossible. The vital and real question is whether in any given case—that of the Standard Oil Trust, for example—combination will continue to be possible, say, for a whole generation. If so, then for that generation it is the same as though it were possible for ever. The Standard Oil Trust has lasted twenty years. He would be a bold man who should say that it would not last ten years longer—and this notwithstanding the immense extension, development, increase, and variation of the oil business during the period. But in the case of the Standard Oil Trust the fear of competition has had the effect to keep down the price of oil, so that it might not have been lower under any condition of trade. But it may not always be so. The fear of competition will always be in proportion to its imminence. The Sugar Trust, the Cotton Bagging Trust, the Dental Trade Combine are evidently under no such fear.

It would seem to be a very simple proposition to fight these Trusts and Combines in every way possible, to repeal duties where they are sheltered by the tariff, and to fight them in other ways where they are not so protected. All of them are protected by the tariff except three—the Standard Oil, the Cotton Seed Oil, and the Whiskey Trusts. As to these three articles, we have had, up to this time, such a substantial monopoly of the raw material that foreign competition was out of the question. The situation of the producers was, for monopolizing purposes, as satisfactory as though they had had a prohibitory duty against foreign petroleum, cotton-seed oil, and whiskey. It is freely acknowledged that no change in the tariff can disturb them. The Republican leaders in Congress have seized upon this fact to excuse themselves from taking any action tariff-wise against the forty or fifty other Trusts. In reply to every demand for lower duties on the trust-protected articles they have said, "What are you going to do about Standard Oil and cotton oil and whiskey—how are you going to hit them?" This is like saying: "You have the potato-bug, and the army-worm, and the grasshopper, and many other pests ravaging your fields, but unless you can devise means for getting rid of all of them at once, we will not attack any of them. Show us a sure cure for the grasshopper, and it will be time enough to talk about exterminating the potato-bug and the army-worm." This was the substance of the argument made by Mr. Reed of Maine and others in the House before the Chicago platform was adopted.

Now comes the blessed platform, and expressly declares that no Trust shall be attacked by the repeal or reduction of duties on the articles that it has monopolized. We quote the words again:

"If there shall still remain a larger revenue than is requisite for the wants of the Government, we favor the entire repeal of the internal-revenue system rather than the surrender of *any part of our protective system.*"

This is all that the Trusts want. Since the platform was adopted, the Trusts have multiplied like the plagues of Egypt, and those that existed before have put up their prices to the top notch, taking everything that the Tariff allows. All that they wanted was some official declaration that they would not be disturbed tariff-wise. They could take care of everything else if the Republican party would guarantee them at this corner. They had no fear that the courts would enjoin them from charging more than 5½ cents a pound for sugar, or more than 8 cents a pound for cotton bagging, and so on. The shingle-makers on the Pacific Coast had no apprehensions that the courts would order them to desist from organizing a Trust, and accordingly they hustled together to form one as soon as they read the assurance that there was not to be any even the smallest change in "our protective system." Our protective system is the tariff as it is, in all its parts—sugar, shingles, cotton bagging, steel rails, steel beams, and every other thing that is or can be "trusted," combined, monopolized. No wonder the Trusts increase and multiply on every hand and in every direction.

THE TARIFF ON BOOKS.

THE clause in the Mills bill, as it passed the House of Representatives, which relates to the free importation of books, reads as follows: "Bibles, books, and pamphlets printed in other languages than English, and books and pamphlets, and all publications of foreign governments, and publications of foreign societies, historical or scientific, printed for gratuitous distribution." This wording and punctuation (which accords with the edition of the bill printed, after it had passed the House of Representatives, by order of the Senate) leaves room for differences of construction.

The interpretation given to the paragraph by the members of Congress who are responsible for its introduction and present form is that it includes: (1) Bibles printed in any language or languages; (2) all books and pamphlets printed in other languages than English; (3) all books and pamphlets printed abroad for gratuitous distribution, without regard to their language; (4) all publications of foreign governments in whatsoever language, if distributed gratuitously; and (5) all publications of foreign historical or scientific societies (in any language) when these are printed for gratuitous distribution. Concerning this construction of the paragraph, it may be remarked that the limitation of free importation of gratuitous society publications to such as are by "historical" or "scientific" societies, would seem to conflict with the provision that all books and pamphlets printed for gratuitous distribution are to be included. Indeed, the fifth provision, coming after this latter stipulation, seems superfluous, except in so far as "publications" may be meant to include other works than are covered by the words "books and pamphlets," such as maps or engravings, for example. One might question, also, the intention of the words "printed for gratuitous distribution" as applied to the publications of societies; but presumably the Committee meant to designate the works distributed to subscribing members of societies, notwithstanding that the subscription had been paid to cover the cost of such publications. The Senate Committee, it is said on good authority, have stricken out the word "Bibles," evidently interpreting the clause to include Bibles printed in English only when they are issued for gratuitous distribution—holding, presumably, that when they are printed for sale in any other language, they are covered by the description "books" in the second provision, and do not require, therefore, to be specially designated.

In the detailed consideration of the bill by the House of Representatives, this clause was reached on Thursday, June 28, and—modest as its provisions will seem to scholars and lovers of books, and to all who desire the spread of knowledge—it was not allowed to be passed without opposition. Mr. Farquhar of New York put himself upon record as opposing the first timid step taken by Congress to lighten the burden placed upon every American citizen who is struggling after wisdom, by the imposition of a tariff upon knowledge. Mr. Farquhar, it seems, has discovered that to put "Bibles *printed in other languages than English*, and books and pamphlets, and all publications of foreign governments, and publications of foreign societies, historical and scientific, *printed for gratuitous distribution*" upon the free list, is "strictly in the line of enlightened public intelligence," and is "proper and correct in all respects"; but a proposition to allow the many thousand intelligent American citizens who do not despise knowledge because it is made public in a foreign language, to import their books free from taxation, he considers "unfair to the American publisher, and the American printer, and booksellers, and bookbinders, and all persons engaged in the manufacture of books"—not because they make these same foreign books, it should be noted, but because they print, or bind, or sell *some kind of books*.

The logic of Mr. Farquhar's argument is, therefore, that our Government exercises its best judgment in levying a tax upon the works containing the learning and wisdom of the great men of Europe, in order that its citizens may be encouraged to buy in place of them any poor trash whatsoever, the printing of which will afford a living to Mr. Farquhar's old compatriots of the typographical unions. "In the admission of Bibles printed in foreign languages free, there is manifest propriety," Mr. Farquhar repeats, "and no one can find fault with that"; but we should much like to know where he discovered the "enlightened public intelligence" which argues that the foreign-born immigrant to this country is to have his Bible free, while the poor native-born American citizen is to be taxed one-quarter the cost of *his*, although this tax only goes to increase our dangerous surplus.

Mr. Kelley of Pennsylvania, who has been in the House long enough to have argued on both sides of tariff reform, seemed concerned because this paragraph would permit the free importation of the publications of the Cobden Club. He knew, moreover, the name of one publisher of foreign books in this country who would have to "close" his business upon the passage of this paragraph of the Mills bill (we trust the Philadelphia publisher who is named properly appreciates this view of his solvency), and he had learned of several other "large establishments engaged wholly in the production of books and pamphlets in foreign languages," and predicted that similar catastrophes would overtake them; but when asked to name them, he could only hazard the name of Scribner & Company. Mr. Townshend of Illinois wished to know if he was willing to "put a tax upon knowledge just to benefit two or three large firms," whereupon Mr. Kelley could only declare: "I stand by the American paper-maker, printer, type-founder, book-binder, whether he is engaged in printing and binding books in English or in a foreign language." To which Mr. Townshend promptly responded, "At the expense of the dissemination of knowledge."

In answer to Mr. Townshend's repeated questions as to the publication of German school-books in this country (the drift of the inquiry not being detected), Mr. Farquhar hastened to the Library of Congress, and returned with certain volumes as ocular proof that German text-books were published in the United States. Thereupon Mr. Townshend turned upon him with the remark: "I would like to have the gentleman tell me how it is that school-books published in the protective-tariff country of Germany can be published there and brought into this country to compete with the books published here. There is a higher protective tariff in Germany than there is in this country. How can they publish books in Germany and import them into this country and be successful in competition with ours? It seems to me, Mr. Chairman," Mr. Townshend concluded, "there is an effort here to put a tax on knowledge in this country." There was no answer at hand to this home thrust.

It is a pleasure to turn, from such shallow opposition, to the intelligent and forcible argument in favor of the paragraph made by Mr. Breckinridge of Kentucky. He considers the step proposed "as short a step as the American Congress ought to be willing to take"; and instead of striking out anything from the provision, Mr. Breckinridge would add to it, and "make all literature free. . . . I regret that we do not see our way clear to go further than we have in this provision. I wish that we thought that we were able to make all books, all art, all productions of human genius, in print, or picture, or sculpture, free." After stating the true nature of the provision, Mr. Breckinridge exclaims: "Surely no one will go to the extent of saying that taxes and

duties ought to be levied on learning simply for the purpose of protection. Protection ought not to go so far as to make the means of knowledge more expensive merely for the purpose of taxation, and that, too, at a time when there is no necessity for the tax, and when we are removing taxation. In the effort to eliminate subjects of taxation, in trying to reduce the revenue by assorting the subjects upon which the taxes are laid, what better subject for release from duty can possibly be found than good books? From what can we possibly take the burden better than from a tool for education? From what could we in this nineteenth century better take taxation off than knowledge?" The effort to strike out this clause Mr. Breckinridge denounces as "protection gone mad," and it is pronounced as being "of a piece with the effort to keep books from the slave or the Bible from the people."

Mr. Farquhar's amendment, to strike out the provision that books and pamphlets printed in other languages than English should be permitted free importation, was defeated by 70 noes to 53 ayes. It now remains to be seen what the Senate will do with this paragraph of the Tariff Bill, which is of such vital interest to every American student and scholar.

FAST TRAIN SERVICE.

RECENT improvements in the train service between London and Edinburgh have made it the fastest in the world. Three years ago there was some doubt as to the relative speed of the best English and American passenger trains. Even then, the best judges thought that the balance was slightly in favor of England; to-day it is distinctly so. The West Coast Route (London and Northwestern Railway) runs a train 400 miles in eight hours. On the opening day this train arrived at its destination eight minutes ahead of time, having made the run at the rate of 50 2-3 miles an hour, including stops, or 53 3-5 miles, excluding stops.

The first of these figures is quite without precedent for the distance in question, or in fact for any long-distance run. The last is not. There is at least one American record which surpasses it in many particulars. On the West Shore Road, July 9, 1885, a special train a trifle heavier than the Scotch express was run from East Buffalo to Weehawken, 422.6 miles in 9 hours and 23 minutes, *including 20 stops*. A special train, arranged on short notice, was of course liable to detentions of this kind. It is said that 1 hour and 34 minutes was lost in this way. Making this deduction, and deducting in the same way the time lost by the English train, we have the following results:

	Distance. miles.	Time. H. M.	Running rate. Miles per hour.
L. & N. W...	400	7 25	53.60
West Shore.	422.6	7 49	54.06

These results are practically equal; for we suspect that the time allowance for stops was computed in a manner which gave a slight advantage to the West Shore. But certain parts of the West Shore run were better than anything in that of the London and Northwestern, sixty-one miles from Buffalo to Genesee Junction being made in fifty-six minutes actual time, or at the rate of sixty-five and one-quarter miles an hour. The last part of this run was made at a rate of from 83 to 87 miles an hour; while the maximum attained in the English run was only about 75 miles an hour. Two hundred and one and seven-tenth miles from Buffalo to Frankfort, with eight full stops (besides five partial ones), were made in an actual time but slightly greater than that required in England for the same run with one stop, and at an average running speed, excluding stops, barely under sixty miles an hour. This record, though ignored in some English accounts of railroad speed, is thoroughly well attested. It is decidedly the best we have. A Grand Trunk special of June, 1886, is said to have made 229½ miles in 237 minutes, excluding stops, or 58½ miles an hour; but this, even if thoroughly well established, does not equal the record of the West Shore.

But of regular trains we have none which can come anywhere near the English record in this matter. The best for the distance in question is the Chicago Limited, from New York to Buffalo, which takes 10 hours 45 minutes to run 440 miles—a weak showing as compared with the 400 miles within 8 hours on the London and Northwestern. The best of the Washington expresses now takes 5 hours and 18 minutes to make the 226 miles between Jersey City and Washington. But the distance in this case is much shorter, and the time record far from equals that of the best English trains. For short distances, especially between New York and Philadelphia and between Baltimore and Washington, we have had trains scheduled to run at rates above fifty miles an hour; but the conditions of short-distance running are more favorable for high speeds.

It seems clear that we can make as good time as they do in England; it is also clear that we do not. The reason is not one of engineering, but of finance. As far as construction goes, the English have not so great an advantage over our best roads as is commonly supposed. Their one distinct point of superiority is freedom from grade crossings. A large part of the enormous cost of English track has been due to this cause. It is questionable whether their track is straighter or more level than ours. In the absence of accessible statistics, no one can speak positively, but it is pretty certain that the profile and alignment of the English roads are not so good as is generally supposed, and probably not as easy as those of many American lines. In finish of track the English of course have a great advantage, as well as in many of the details of operation; but it is open to doubt whether their equipment is as good as ours except for a very narrow range of purposes. On the whole, the advantages and disadvantages are not far from equal.

But the English are willing to pay for fast trains, while we are not. Let it be observed that this is not merely a question of rates of fares, or even of passenger-train receipts, but a general question of traffic economy. The direct expense of running a fast train, large as it is, by no means measures the total cost. Other traffic is inconvenienced and rendered more expensive. The labor of trackmen is indirectly increased. If the community wishes to have fast trains, all this must be somehow paid for. England does pay for it; America does not.

It is a common complaint of Englishmen that railroad rates, and especially railroad freight rates, are higher in proportion to the work done than they are in any other country. This fact is closely connected with the speed of English train service. It often costs more to do common work with a first-class instrument than with a common one. And it is in like manner legitimate that it should cost more to ship freight on a road crowded with high-grade passenger traffic than on one built and operated for cheap freight service.

Passenger-train service at rates above forty miles an hour is, from the point of view of the public, a luxury; from the point of view of the railroad company, it is largely of the nature of an advertisement. In America, at any rate, it is resorted to rather as a means of obtaining incidental advantages on other business than from any direct profit in the business itself. The case stands somewhat in this way: The public demands rapid travel, but does not make it pay. The roads must meet the public demand, or fall behind in public esteem. The public in a general way fixes a standard of fast service which it demands. If it fixes this standard high, it indirectly pays a high price for it. If it is content with less, it pays less for its railroad service as a whole. These demands are pitched high in England and lower in the United States. There are some other reasons for the difference. The density of population in England makes fast passenger service better business policy there than it is here, and makes low-grade freight traffic relatively less profitable. But the reason first given is probably the chief factor in producing the result.

The highest speed is rarely attained by anything like voluntary action on the part of the railroad management. It is almost always the result of competition. The present service between London and Edinburgh is the result of an active struggle of this kind. Naturally enough, the fast trains are pretty much confined to England and America. In countries with private monopoly, like France, they are rare; in countries with State monopoly, like Germany, they are rarer still. The State does not feel the need of advertising, and can suit its service to its notions of what the public ought to demand. Only in international matters does it feel the stimulus of competition; only in connection with international routes when there was some positive rivalry, has train service been accelerated in central Europe in the past ten years.

This state of things has its good and its bad side. It is good to prevent waste of money on what is a mere advertisement or an unduly expensive luxury. It is bad if it

takes away the stimulus to a higher standard of railroad efficiency, or if it measures the value of rapid transit solely by the train-mile receipts. For train receipts do not measure its whole value to the nation, any more than train expenses measure its whole cost to the railroads.

FATNESS.

PROBABLY no question of personal hygiene has occupied so much attention from laymen or laywomen as the question how to avoid growing fat. Doctors, we think, as a rule take little interest in it as long as it does not result in some form of illness. About the inconvenience of being fat, there is generally little use in consulting them. Until within about twenty-five years the fat people, if we may use the expression, lay down under their fat. The opinion that fatness was irremediable was, in fact, widely diffused. Mrs. Fanny Kemble used to say, in her grand manner, that "when there was a constitutional tendency to fat, nor diet, nor exercise, nor sorrow would avail."

Since she took this view, however, a great change has come over what we may call the fat world. Fat people refuse any longer to accept their fatness as hopeless. They deny that any portion of the human family has been set apart by Nature as the prey of obesity. This great awakening was due in a large degree to the celebrated Banting, an immensely fat man, who, by greatly reducing his weight by confining himself to nitrogenous food, filled all fat people with the anticipation of a better day. Tens of thousands followed his example, and cut down their size immensely. Unfortunately he died very soon after he became lean, and a panic spread through his followers. Distrust about the effect of his system on the general health began to gain ground. Many people suffered severely in strength and spirits by following his regimen too strictly, and it fell into more or less discredit. It would now be as hard to find an original out-and-out disciple of Banting as of Priessnitz, the hydropathist, or of Hahnemann, the homœopathist. But many still follow him in a slight degree, by eschewing butter, eating but little bread and potatoes, and sticking steadily to lean meat.

If his teachings and example had had no effect at all, however, it would have proved that the fat people were less enterprising and energetic than other civilized men in our day ever are. They refused to consider Banting's failure as final. They declined to accept the doctor's advice to "let well alone." They continued their demand that obesity should be treated as a disease, and a cure found for it. Accordingly, every few years a new fat doctor appears on the scene, and the quacks fill up the intervals with the sale of more or less deadly specifics. No great progress was made, however, until Bismarck became dissatisfied with his fat, and called for a physician who could relieve him of it. This physician appeared in the person of a certain Dr. Schweninger, who cut down the Chancellor's weight to such an extent that he had him nominated to a professorship in the Faculty of Medicine in the Berlin University, and insisted on his appointment in the teeth of the opposition of the other doctors, who had either never heard of Schweninger before, or heard what was bad. To the argument that he had won no distinction in the profession, the answer was that he had taken fifty or sixty pounds off the Prince's huge frame. Schweninger accordingly rapidly became an authority on fatness, and the pamphlet containing his system is sold by tens of thousands.

The well-known Dr. Yeo of London discusses this system in the last number of the *Nineteenth Century*. It ought to be said *en passant* that Schweninger's cure is claimed also by Prof. Oertel of Munich, who says he discovered it, but this avails him little because he did not treat the Chancellor. Schweninger maintains that the chief cause of fat among men, as among animals, is eating too much, no matter of what, and drinking too much, even of water, at one's meals, but especially of wine, beer, and spirits. The central principle of his system is, that unless you live by muscular toil, you must cut down the quantity you eat, and must drink but little, if any, with your meals. Of course he has minor rules, and makes distinctions between different articles of food, but to him quantity is the great enemy of the obese. After him comes a certain Ebstein, who also has his system, which differs from both Banting's and Schweninger's, but all three agree that to be lean you must greatly reduce your consumption of the carbo-hydrates or starchy things.

Germany is the country where the most vigorous fight with fat is carried on, and where fat cures excite most interest, owing, it is said, to the great prevalence of obesity —a result in part of the consumption of beer and in part, doubtless, of the frequency and heartiness of the meals. Accordingly, the number of people who go to the various baths for simple corpulency is very large. Oertel makes provision for this class by prescribing carefully graded walks, in which the ascent will stimulate the heart's action and strengthen it.

All the masters agree that it is mainly through its effect on the heart that fat becomes dangerous. If you surround your heart thickly with fat, you impede its working, and it gradually grows weaker, and then, some fine day, when you have put a little more fat on it, and call on it for extra exertion, it stops short, and down you go. Fat does not greatly trouble the young and active in any country. It is when, in middle life, exercise begins to be distasteful but the appetite remains as good as ever, that it comes on people like a strong man armed, and makes exertion, especially in hot weather, very formidable. But the fat people are aroused, and we feel sure their number, in proportion to population, will hereafter be diminished.

THE SLATER MEMORIAL MUSEUM.

PERSONS visiting the beautiful city of Norwich a few months hence will find there a museum of fine art of a kind which every big town or little city might possess, given only sufficient knowledge and good taste. These, indeed, it must set itself to seek in earnest. If it can command the most extensive knowledge and the most delicate refinement of feeling in the person of the custodian, the chairman, the president, the director, or whoever else the official may be who has charge of selection and purchase, a wonderful collection can be procured with small outlay. There is excellent art which can be reproduced so well that, while something is lost, very much remains. To select from out the mass of the world's possession of such art as this the few pieces which the fund allows—choosing those which are the most instructive, as being either the most nearly uninjured, or as being the most perfect types of important schools or epochs, or even as being more easily comprehensible by intelligent but not especially trained minds—is, of course, a task for which few students are fitted. Years of residence in those parts of the world where works of art can be studied comparatively and critically, and a minute and exclusive devotion to such study and comparison, are the necessary preliminary to the proper expenditure of even a few thousand dollars in the foundation of a really instructive museum of fine art. Given these qualifications in some one whose services you can command, and it is astonishing how much great and precious art a few thousand dollars will buy, and how admirable a museum a citizen of moderate means may present to his native town. Much more may be expected when the citizen is possessed of ample means and the most liberal disposition, as in the case in hand. Mr. W. A. Slater has been the good genius to bestow this boon upon the city of Norwich, and Mr. Edward Robinson, of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, has, to his great credit, had sole charge of the selection and arrangement.

That part of the Slater Memorial Building which is devoted to the Museum of Fine Art is a large hall, reaching to the roof, and having a broad gallery next the wall on each of the four sides. There are windows below the gallery and windows above the gallery on three sides, and dormers in the roof on two sides. There is abundant light; and in the central area within the belt of galleries the light is good for sculpture, as it is, in the main, in the galleries themselves. Under the galleries the windows are too low, as indeed the ceiling is, for large pieces of sculpture, which nevertheless it has been found necessary to place there. A life-size or "heroic" statue needs a very diffused light; the necessity of putting many such statues in the strong horizontal and concentrated light from windows near the sculpture and on its own level is to be regretted. This same light does well for bas-reliefs, however, and it is to be hoped that when all the sculpture is in hand, it will be found possible to occupy nearly all the space beneath the galleries with sculpture in relief, including medallions, coins, and the like, to the exclusion of, at least, the larger statues and groups. This space beneath the galleries is to be divided into alcoves by means of curtains hung from rods, and capable of being drawn at will. The arrangement of the sculptures now going on seems to include a mainly chronological sequence, which is eminently desirable, but which may involve of necessity the inadequate lighting of which mention has been made. Thus the Harmodios and Aristogeiton group from Naples is fortunate in being placed in the high central nave, but the Naples Doryphoros suffers from the direct and concentrated light which alone it receives in its alcove. On the other hand, the Calf-Bearer from Athens

and the Spinario from the Capitol, being smaller, are sufficiently well lighted, and the early reliefs are in an excellent light—the great Eleusis relief being more perfectly placed and illuminated, for all purposes of examination and study, than any copy of this important and puzzling work of art that we can now recall in Europe.

There are now about one hundred and fifty important classical sculptures in place, and more are to come. Among these are some of the newest discoveries, such as the Boxer that has recently come to light in Rome. Of the archaic works, and of those just not archaic, but still full of the breath of early art, a few have been named; there are also the so-called Apollo of Tenea and the Aristokles relief from Athens, the headless robed figure from the Louvre, and four figures of the west pediment of Ægina from Munich; also, one of the Selinus metopes from Palermo, and a large part of the frieze of Phigalia. Then, of perfected art, there are nearly 140 feet of the Parthenon frieze, and, from the Parthenon pediment, the Theseus and two of the groups of draped figures; with other works that we cannot enumerate. All that is well preserved of the parapet of Nike-Apteros; the noble Hermes of Andros, and, to compare with this, its double from the Vatican Belvedere; one of the Discobolos statues, and, to compare with this, a small-scale reproduction of another and differing one; a vast slab from the Pergamon frieze of the Giants' Battle, the Laocoon, the Venus of Milo, the draped Niobide from the Vatican, the Nike of Paionios (shown here, as nowhere else in the world, on an exact reproduction of its original pedestal), and a pedestal reserved for the torso of the Belvedere whose coming is announced—the mention of these must suffice to give an idea of the whole collection; to which, as representative of Greek and Greco-Roman art, no exception can be taken. It does not appear that it would be possible to choose better the same number of pieces as representative of the whole mass of such sculpture which is known to us moderns. If any piece not included were proposed, on condition of excluding one of the present collection to make room for it, it would be seen that such a change would be of at least doubtful expediency.

The sculpture of the later Middle Ages and of the Renaissance is less easy to embody in a couple of hundred examples taken from its vast stores. It cannot be hoped that any two students of art would agree heartily on the selection to be made. Moreover, there are at Norwich fewer in proportion of the Renaissance pieces already in place, and the future of the museum of modern art is much less easy to judge of than of the classical department. What is good about it, what is hopeful and promising, is the large freedom with which semi-architectural pieces, such as the pulpit of S. Croce, the large font of Siena, and the tomb of the Cardinal della Rovere, and pieces of pure decoration—sword handles, bells, weapons, and the like—admirably reproduced by Josef Krettmayr of Munich, colored and gilded or bronzed into actual facsimile of the original, are added to the statuary and reliefs. The statue of Lorenzo de' Medici, with the accompanying supporters, "Twilight" and "Dawn," are set above a door the architectural frame of which seems well calculated to receive them; but they are placed too high to be properly seen from the gallery itself, and unfortunately they can be seen also from the floor below. It is greatly to be desired that they could be arranged more as the originals in the Sacristy of San Lorenzo. The same might be said of Michael Angelo's Moses, but that its placing is possibly only temporary. Panels from the doors of the Florence Baptistry—the earlier doors, those of the northern and southern portals—and from the Donatello Altar in Saint Antony's Church at Padua, give one the hope that these works may be shown ultimately in their completeness. The panels from Luca della Robbia's Singing Gallery are, one is sorry to see, already framed into the wall, so that this important work will not be put up with its architectural framework complete; but one cannot have everything. There is no room for such a mass of construction; one might as well insist upon all the Della Robbia reliefs of swaddled babies from the Hospital of the Innocents instead of rejoicing over the two that are already here. The whole collection of casts promises to be excellent and instructive beyond the reach of fault-finding. All have been chosen with extreme care, and if the student is left wishing that bronze originals should be represented by a bronze-colored rather than by a white reproduction, and that painted sculpture should be reproduced in full color, this is only what he feels on leaving any of the important collections of Europe, beginning with the vast and, for classic sculpture, almost complete collection at Berlin.

Coinage is to be studied in air-tight and dust-tight glazed frames, behind the plate glass of which, and mounted on dark velvety material, the deceptively imitative reproductions are mounted. Each coin is shown, the obverse and the reverse side by side, and an inscription immediately below gives the approximate date and the city or kingdom.

A few photographs are framed and glazed, ready to be exposed. They are the largest, and partly because of this the most effective with the spectator, that could be chosen. Thus, the enormous view of the west front of Reims Cathedral, made by J. Trompette of Reims, is a type of what an architectural photograph for public exhibition ought to be. The Naya photograph of the front of Saint Mark's is almost equally imposing. One of the largest frames is Braun's ceiling of the Sistine Chapel, but this photograph is made up of many pieces. Here is also the Sistine Madonna, a single plate half the size of the original, and the great Paul Veronese of the Venice Academy, known as the "Green Man," from the supposed portrait of the artist—a noble full-length figure, invested in various shades of that color, who stands fully relieved against a prominent mass of the architecture. This large photograph is also in three pieces; but several of the ceiling panels of the great rooms of the Ducal Palace, though nearly as large, are each a single print, and one of the finest photographs in the collection is Braun's superb new plate of the "Night Watch."

Into further detail we cannot go. It has seemed important to mention by name some of the works of art of admittedly supreme merit, which are capable of such reproduction that those who are far from the originals may yet gain much of that enjoyment which they can give. Casts of sculpture may be made almost perfect reproductions of the originals; electrotypes of coins may be absolutely perfect reproductions—that is to say, the first living experts are sometimes in doubt whether a coin offered them is genuine or not. Photographs, we know, give often more than one would expect, so to speak; the photograph, even of a painting, though reversing many of the comparative lights and darks of the original, gives yet a sense of that original's beauty which no engraver's copy has succeeded in doing. Engravings themselves, ancient and modern, made with the burin or with the etching needle and acid, and woodcuts as well, are capable of indefinite and very cheap reproduction by modern processes; any one may have Amand-Durand copies of Dürer and Rembrandt prints, which, if not equal to the choicest impressions from the original plates, are better than impressions which are considered passable and salable. Drawings by the old masters have been admirably copied, as every one knows, in autotype; the only defect of the copies being that every accidental pen scratch, stain, or finger-mark is of necessity reproduced in the tint of the drawing itself. Color you cannot reproduce, nor texture of surface; a Japanese lacquer, a Chinese porcelain, an embroidered cope or chasuble, you cannot reproduce, and of paintings you can give only the abstract in monochrome. This limit is set to our low-priced museum; but of the world of noble art which is included within this limit, the Slater Museum at Norwich gives an inspiring and encouraging realization.

THE TWO EMPERORS AT ST. PETERSBURG.

PARIS, July 28, 1888.

THE eyes of all Europe may be said to be turned at present on the shores of the Neva; but, alas! we cannot say with Voltaire:

"C'est du Nord aujourd'hui que nous vient la lumière."

We are left in utter darkness as to the results of the interview of the two Emperors of the North. We know the most minute details of their meeting, the correspondents of the English, German, and French newspapers tell us all that is visible to the eye; but we can find few significant details in the immense amount of their information. We know, however, that there is something remarkable, something important, in the character of the first political steps taken by the young Emperor of Germany, who has been called to the throne by the lamentable death of Frederick III. In his first declaration to the Reichstag, William II. spoke of his allies, Austria and Italy; he did not even pronounce the name of France, or, what may appear more singular, of England. But he reminded his people that Prussia had old ties of friendship with Russia, and he showed himself inclined to follow the policy of his predecessors with regard to the great Empire of the North.

This was not enough—he did not wait for the effects of this declaration. He started for Saint Petersburg as if he were determined to conquer the confidence and the good will of his powerful neighbor. In order to well understand the importance of this visit, you must remember the violence of the attacks of the Russian press on Germany and of the German press on Russia during the last months of the reign of William I. The antipathy of the Slavs and of the German races had free play for a time; war seemed almost imminent; the German official press complained every day of the warlike disposition of Russia, of the great movement of troops on the Polish frontiers and in Poland; it seemed as if immense masses of cavalry were all ready to enter into Posen and Silesia, and to hinder the mobilization in the German frontier provinces.

When William died, the accession of his already dying son put a stop to this polemical war. The Panslavist organs became silent; by a sort of tacit understanding the press of Russia as well as the press of Germany did not trouble the slow agony of a sovereign who was known to be inspired with generous sentiments, and whose last thoughts tended only to the peace of the world. It was to be feared, however, that this peace, imposed by the state of

the sovereign, was only a truce, and that hostilities would break out again after his death, especially as the new sovereign was represented as an ambitious young man, ardent for action and for glorious deeds. The new Emperor, fortunately, had always professed the most fervid admiration for the Chancellor of the Empire, and everybody felt that, especially at the beginning of his reign, he would be ready to accept the advice and to follow the policy of Prince Bismarck. His visit to Saint Petersburg derives all the more importance from this consideration, since it may be considered as the joint inspiration of the Emperor and of his Chancellor.

To those who know the history of Prussia as well as the history of Prince Bismarck, the initiative taken by the Emperor will not be a matter of surprise. Read the history of the Electors of Brandenburg, and afterwards of the kingdom of Prussia, and you will see that Prussia has never obtained any marked political advantage, that she has never entered on any great enterprise, without having assured herself, if not of the coöperation, at least of the neutrality, of Russia; and when this cooperation or neutrality has failed her, she has suffered great reverses of fortune. To speak only of the more recent events—at the time of the last Polish insurrection, Prince Bismarck concluded with Prince Gortchakoff a military convention (February 8, 1863), and he was soon afterwards paid for this service: the question of the Danish duchies arose, and the alliance of Prussia and of Russia allowed Prince Bismarck to give it a solution which was favorable to his country. "The Vice-Chancellor," wrote Lord Napier to his Government at the beginning of the Danish difficulty, "is disposed to consider a federal execution as a conservative measure." Russia abandoned the cause of Denmark, though it had, more than any Power in Europe, the greatest interest in the liberty of the Baltic. When war broke out between Prussia and Austria, Russia remained perfectly neutral; the Cabinet of Saint Petersburg felt or affected the most perfect security. Russia seemed totally unconcerned—in reality she enjoyed the discomfiture of Austria.

At the time of the war between France and Prussia, Russia preserved the same attitude. The prodigious victories of the Emperor William excited no alarm in St. Petersburg. If you read a book published by Schneider, who accompanied the E nperor William in the Austrian and French campaigns, you will find abundant proofs of the sympathy felt by the Emperor of Russia for his uncle; he is never tired of expressing his admiration for his deeds. The mutual understanding between Russia and Prussia at the time of the Franco-German war became apparent to all the world when Russia denounced the clause of the Treaty of Paris which restricted its liberty of action in the Black Sea. Everybody understood that the virtual abolition of the treaty made after the fall of Sebastopol was the price of Russian neutrality. After Sadowa, Napoleon III. had pronounced "Væ victis!" on Austria; after Sedan, the Emperor of Russia pronounced "Væ victis!" on France.

On February 26, 1871, the Emperor of Germany telegraphed from Versailles to the Emperor of Russia: "It is with an inexpressible feeling, and with thanks to God, that I announce to you that the preliminaries of peace have been signed. Never will Prussia forget that she owes to you the fact that the war has not taken on extreme proportions. May God bless you! Your friend, grateful for life."

Many things have happened since; and after the Turkish war, Russia found fault with Prussian gratitude. The Treaty of Berlin left her discontented with herself, and discontented with her neighbors. This vague feeling of ill-humor has been much worked upon by the Panslavists, as well as by the Revolutionists, by all those, in fact, who form the party of opposition—a party which in Russia has no organization, no regular organs, but which is nevertheless important, and perhaps all the more dangerous for being unorganized. Things went so far that Prince Bismarck, when he asked the Reichstag not long ago to vote new credits for the army and to alter the military laws, had to face the possibility of a struggle which might oblige Germany to confront her enemies on her eastern as well as on her western frontier. Still, in this bold and extraordinary speech, the Chancellor was very careful not to say a word which might give offence to the Emperor of Russia; he made the strongest appeal to the personal sentiments of the sovereign, and it may be supposed that the new Emperor of Germany, in his visit to St. Petersburg, will hold a similar language—that he will show to the Emperor a real danger in the effervescence of the Panslavist and anti-German passions. The two Emperors are both strong enough to control the unreasoning passions of the multitude; they both feel that a great responsibility arises from the extent of their own power; they have both, however, to deal with great difficulties. Prussia is no longer the Prussia of old. Since obtaining the long-coveted hegemony of Germany, not under the form which would have satisfied her, but under the form of the Empire, she has new duties, she has also new interests. Since Sadowa, she detains in what the diplomats call her sphere of influence the large part of Germany which was for a long time in Austria's sphere of influence, and which afterwards oscillated for many years between Berlin and Vienna. Since the war of 1870 and the erection of the new empire, the influence of Prussia extends over all the German-speaking provinces of the centre of Europe, over Gross-Deutschland, and may be said to extend also indirectly over all the provinces which are bound by old historical ties to the Austrian Empire. The creation of German unity, which had been prepared by so many thinkers, but which was only accomplished in our time, has altered the historical mission of Prussia.

The new Empire cannot have exactly the same position with regard to Russia as the Prussia of the great Frederick. Prussia is no longer struggling for life, to borrow an expression from the Darwinian theory; she has no longer to think only of her frontier, of her organization; she has become essentially the representative of German culture—she represents a stage and a form of civilization highly different in every respect from the rudimentary civilization of Russia. What do we see in Russia? The Slavic orthodoxy, intolerant, propagandist, which does not separate the ambitions of the State and the ambitions of the Church. What do we see in Germany? A diversity of religious communions, the Occidental ideal of the state which allows to the religious conscience whatever is not contrary to public order. In the political order of ideas, the contrast is quite as great. Russia professes as a dogma the theory of the omnipotent Emperor, the autocrat, only judge and only master, sovereign in the most absolute sense of the word, unfettered by chambers and by constitutional rules. In Germany we see a powerful Emperor, but we see Chambers, and the sovereign does not ascend the throne without swearing to respect the Constitution. Nobody has ever spoken with more force than Prince Bismarck against the abuse of Parliamentarism, but who has made more frequent and eloquent appeals to public opinion? Who has better felt the necessity of speaking to the people, of being understood by the people? We need not follow our comparison any further, in all the details of the social organization; it is enough to say that Germany is conscious of representing a civilization and a culture which are very different from the Russian, and, therefore, it is not to be wondered at if a close alliance between the two German empires has become the necessary basis of her policy.

As we have shown Prussia in her double aspect of Prussia proper and of Prussia representative of the German interest, we might show the Russian Government in double form and character. The dynasty is German in origin, bound by a hundred ties to the Occidental princely families. A German element is found in all the higher spheres of the administration and of the army; Germany gave the first lineaments of civilization to Russia. But under what might be called the German envelope is a great people, with sentiments, habits of thought, passions, aspirations, entirely unknown to the Occident, even adverse to the Occident. The Government of Russia is like a medal with two faces. Its mission is difficult, for it has to reconcile constantly its policy with the feelings of the great Slavia or Panslavia. At the present moment Russia feels that she has suffered a great moral defeat in Bulgaria; she considers this province as a necessary part of Panslavia, which has been torn from it by the wicked diplomacy of Europe and the astuteness of Prince Bismarck. *Inde iræ.* It is difficult to see how the interests of general peace can long be harmonized with the growing ambition of the Panslavists; and the future is all the more uncertain because the passions of the Slavic world have no organized representation, because the authority of the Emperor is more arbitrary.

THE FRITZ REUTER CELEBRATION AT JENA.

JENA, July 22, 1888.

THE site of the old walls and moat of Jena is now occupied by four streets, which encircle the old town and are still called the *Graben*. That on the north, Fürsten-Graben, has been converted into a promenade. On it are the old Schloss, the University building, the Library, and the Botanical Garden, with the house once occupied by Goethe. Between the trees on the other side of the drive are shrubs and flowerbeds and the mounted busts of former Jena professors. Among these, opposite my window, have stood since the sad 14th of June the scaffolding and the pedestal of the unfinished Reuter monument—a fit emblem of the rent the death of Emperor Frederick made in the hearts of the German people.

A few days ago the work was again taken up and the colossal bust mounted. The celebration began with a grand *Kommers* in which the Korps and Burschenschaften as well as the scientific and other societies took part. They appeared "*wichs*"—in other words, they wore their society caps, and their officers had decked themselves out in their handsome regalia, including their swords, with the flat blades of which, at the close of each stanza of the songs they sang, they belabored the beer-tables in wild old barbarian style. There were several short speeches, some in High, some in Low German. The principal speeches of the evening considered the *Kommers*, next to the ceremony of unveiling the bust, the most important part of the celebration; "for in the case of a man so thoroughly German as Fritz Reuter, a celebra-

tion must be German, and to drink beer—to drink great quantities of beer—is German"—which was received with a round of applause. As is usual on such occasions, the drinking and singing lasted on towards morning, and the police were instructed to keep out of the way and not see anything as the revellers made their way home.

A finer day for a celebration than yesterday could not have been desired. It was Sunday, and soon after the morning service the various societies began to collect before the old college buildings. At the head of each society, gathered about its richly embroidered banner, were its officers, wearing their beautiful velvet caps with waving plumes, their gaudy sashes, hip-boots, and swords. This semester the Finken, or Independents, for the first time also appeared *wichs*, the Finkenkönig at their head. They carry the University flag. On its way to Fürsten-Graben, the procession, headed by the Mayor of Jena and the Parliamentary representative, passed through various streets of the quaint old University town. The population seemed to take a hearty interest in the celebration, and from nearly every window hung a flag displaying the colors of one or another of the societies or those of the town, the Grand Duchy, or the Empire.

The address was delivered by Dr. Ernst Harmening, an attorney in Jena, but by birth a Plattdeutscher. He began with a quotation from a letter from Frau Louise Reuter: "In Mecklenburg stood his cradle, in Thuringian soil rest his remains—the beginning and the end. Between these—Jena." It was these words which, when the question arose as to where a monument should be erected to Reuter's memory, led to the selection of Jena. "In Mecklenburg stood his cradle": in the little town of Stavenhagen, November 7, 1810, Fritz Reuter was born, the child of the town justice and burgomaster, who at the same time managed a large farm. Of the "Stemhäger" life of these early years, Reuter has given us a charming picture in "Schurr Murr." At the age of fourteen he was put to school at Friedland and later at Parchim. His university studies were begun at Rostock; and at Easter, 1832, we find him matriculating at Jena. The Burschenschaften were just then at the height of their political development, and Reuter plunged headlong into their wild life. It was intended that he should study law, but he had little taste for it, and devoted what time he could spare from fencing and "beer studies" to mathematics and drawing. How dear to him in after years the memory of his life in Jena was, we can judge by the scene in 'Hanne Nüte' where the good pastor for the time forgets that "Die ganze Kreatur ist in der Sünde tief versunken" and "Es ist auf Erden alles eitel," and passionately bursts out with:

"Sieh' mich, mein Sohn! In meinen alten Tagen
Lebt frisch noch die Erinnerung,
Als ich, wie du, einst frei und jung,
Den Flug that in die Ferne wagen.
Ach Jena! Jena! lieber Sohn,
Sag' mal, hört's du von Jena schon?
Hast du von Jena mal gelesen?
Ich bin ein Jahr darin gewesen,
Als ich noch Studiosus war;
Was war das für ein schönes Jahr!"

At the end of the year Reuter returned home, and in the fall, while on a visit in Berlin, was arrested by the Prussian authorities as a member of the Burschenschaft, and confined, during a three years' investigation of his case, in various fortresses. He was then condemned to death for "attempted treason," but the sentence was changed by William III. to one of thirty years' imprisonment. He was confined successively at Silberberg, Glogau, Magdeburg, and Graudenz, being obliged to endure unusually hard treatment. At the end of seven years the Mecklenburg Government succeeded in getting its subject back into its own hands, but only on condition that he should continue to serve out his sentence in his native land until the Prussian King should be pleased to pardon him. But here he did not lack manifestations of kindness and regard, and at the death of King William he was set at liberty by the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg. Much as he had been compelled to suffer, it does not seem to have embittered him in the least, and we can hardly overestimate the qualities of heart and mind which did not permit these years of hardship and abuse to develop in Reuter the bitter satirist rather than the genial humorist.

On regaining his liberty, he once more took up the study of the law, and this time at Heidelberg; but he soon let it drop again and became a "Strom," as they call a farmer in Mecklenburg. At his father's death in 1845 there were, however, no means at hand to undertake the management of a farm, and Reuter's next five years were spent in an irregular, wandering life. Having engaged himself to Louise Kunze, the daughter of a pastor, he settled down to the occupation of private tutor, and in his spare time wrote poems in his native dialect. The unexpected success of his first volume, 'Läuschen un Riemels,' led him to devote himself entirely to dialect writing. This instantaneous success was doubtless not a little due to the interest that Groth's 'Quickborn,' which had appeared the year before, had aroused for the hitherto neglected dialect. Plattdeutsch had become the fashion, and this fashion prepared the way for a just appreciation of the genius of the man who had chosen that idiom for its expression. In 1856 Reuter moved to Neubrandenburg, where he lived till 1863. These years were those of his greatest literary activity—'Olle Kamellen,' 'Schurr Murr,' 'Hanne Nüte,' 'Kein Hüsung'; and nothing that he afterwards wrote added to the reputation these had won for him. But for a trip to Palestine and Greece in 1864, the last ten years of his life were spent in the handsome villa which one passes on his way from Eisenach up to the Wartburg—years the memory of which is saddened by the knowledge that they were the last steps a great man was taking to a drunkard's grave. In a country where even the religiously bigoted cannot withhold from the liberal author of 'Hanne Nüte' and 'Olle Kamellen' their admiration and affection, there can be no lack of apologists for a man who could not control his appetite for drink, and the blame is thrown now upon hereditary tendencies, now upon the peculiar circumstances of his prison life, less often upon the temptations of his student days.

The unveiling of the bust was followed by brief addresses from the delegates from the various Plattdeutsche Vereine, who laid garlands at the foot of the pedestal. At two there was a banquet at the sign of the Black Bear (memorable as the inn at which Luther was wont to stop, and the scene of his interview with the Swiss student Kessler and of his heated controversy with Karlstadt). The bill of fare was printed in Low German and began with:

"Wat dat all to eten giwt
to dat
Festeten be de Enthüllung
von dat
Reuter Denkmal."

And how is this as a sample of successful avoidance of the hated *Fremdwort*?—"Kalwfleesch in'ne fine klüterige Stipp in Bläderdeeg inleggt up de Aart as de Franzosen dat in Toulouse eten (dor nennen's dat Fricassée)"? Besides the members of the Plattdeutsche Vereine and the guests from abroad, many citizens and students were present, but not more than one or two of the University professors. Telegrams of greeting were received from Frau Reuter, the Grand Duke, and many others. No little credit is due the Burschenschaften in Jena for their substantial contribution to the monument fund. Other contributors were not forgotten, and I was glad to hear the hearty and repeated expressions of appreciation of what had been done by those in America who had taken an interest in the matter. The bust is considered by those who knew the author ("Olle Peters" himself was present) a good likeness of Reuter as he appeared in his best years. A representation of it will be found in the *Illustrierte Zeitung* for July 21. Ernst Paul, the sculptor, was born in Arolsen in the Duchy of Waldeck in 1856. As a pupil of Schilling he was engaged upon the National Monument on the Niederwald, and, besides minor works, has produced the Gutenberg statue in the Germanic Museum at Nürnberg and a "Sandalenbinderin" that is praised.

Some of the guests returned to their homes by the evening trains, but not a few remained over till to-day, and enjoyed one or more of the delightful walks and climbs of which the valleys and the hills about Jena offer such a profusion—drank Lichtenhainer where it is brewed, and bought a Ziegenhainer cane where they grow—or joined in ascending the Hausberg and drank a *Frühschoppen* at the Fuchsturm. But the real close of the celebration was yesterday evening, when many of us climbed up to the Sophienhöhe, a place of amusement on the slope of the Kernberge southeast of Jena, and, seated about the little tables in the gardens or on the verandas and gallery of the inn, spent a pleasant hour or so in that simple and *gemütlich* way the Germans so well understand. At our feet lay spread out the valley of the Saale with Jena and the neighboring villages. On the elevated plateau to the northwest the mighty invader dealt Prussia his hardest blow—on the heights opposite rises above the Jenaer Forst the imposing tower erected in commemoration of the final victory over the *Erbfeind*. As the sun went down behind the Thuringian hills we sang Reuter's "Ik weit einen Eikbom," and that song, so dear to the hearts of all who have had the good fortune to spend a summer in Jena, "An der Saale hellem Strande."

GEORGE HEMPL.

Correspondence.

THE FIRST COLLEGE OBSERVATORY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Professor Loomis states, in his 'Progress of Astronomy' (edition of 1850, p. 162), that the first attempt to establish a college observatory in the United States was made by Prof. Albert Hopkins of Williams College, Massachusetts. This is an error; and it is repeated in the *Nation* of July 12, 1888, in the introduction to your abstract of Professor Safford's address on "Fifty Years of American Astronomy." Your article states that the Williams College Observatory was erected in 1838. Seven years before, an "attempt" had been made at the University of North Carolina by Dr. Joseph Caldwell, who was then President, and had been for a long time Professor of Mathematics. This was probably the first attempt made in this country, and will you not allow me space for a brief account of it?

In 1824 Dr. Caldwell was sent to Europe to buy books and apparatus for the University. Among the instruments he purchased in Lon-

don were a meridian transit instrument and a zenith telescope made by Simms, a refracting telescope by Dollond, an astronomical clock by Molyneux, a sextant by Wilkinson, a reflecting circle by Harris, and a Hadley's quadrant. These instruments were used in the University buildings until 1831, when they were placed in an observatory which had just been built for them. This building was of brick and stone, about twenty feet square and twenty-five feet high. A column of masonry rose through the centre to furnish stable foundations for the instruments. The flat roof contained a wide slit which continued for some distance down the walls and afforded a range of 180° for the transit. This slit was covered by a wooden framework which could be moved by rope and windlass.

Observations were made at this place by President Caldwell, Prof. Elisha Mitchell, and Prof. James Phillips. But the observations were continued only a few years. The construction of the building was very imperfect. The flat roof was so troublesome that the instruments were removed soon after Dr. Caldwell's death in 1835, and the building was partially destroyed by fire in 1838. It was never restored. President Swain, who succeeded Caldwell, afterwards carried away the bricks and used them in building a kitchen. This is still in use! The ruins of the observatory are yet plainly visible on a hill just outside the campus.

The records of these observations have, in some way, been lost, whether during "Reconstruction days," when the University was closed for several years and troops quartered in the buildings, or before, no one seems to know.

Dr. Caldwell's attempt to establish this observatory deserves record. His instruments were small, but the equipment was entirely sufficient for an excellent beginning. Accurate and valuable work could have been done with it. There would have been something lasting done, and this might have grown into one of the best college observatories in the country, if Dr. Caldwell's successors had possessed his zeal and taste for astronomy. But the University was poor, the public was indifferent, and there was too much to struggle against—the opportunity was lost.

There are persons now living in Chapel Hill, whose authority is unquestioned, who were often in this observatory and saw the instruments in place. Among them is Rev. Dr. Charles Phillips, who, as a child, frequently attended his father, Dr. James Phillips, while making observations, and to whom I am indebted for the above facts.

During the civil war a novel use was found for the telescope, when some of Sherman's troops passed through Chapel Hill. The instrument had been lying unused for a number of years, on an upper shelf in one of the lecture-rooms, and looked harmless enough not to attract anybody's attention. Two of the professors thought it would be a good place to hide their watches. The dusty object-glass was removed and the watches carefully concealed within the tube. But some of the soldiers must have been enthusiasts in astronomy. At any rate they loved gold watches, and the unlucky professors had to apply to the officers of the regiment to have their watches returned!

JAMES L. LOVE,
Associate Professor of Mathematics.

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA, August 6, 1888.

WHAT THE REPUBLICANS EXPECT TO DO FOR CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: During the past year many of those who voted for the Democratic candidates in 1884 have beyond question been pained at President Cleveland's lapse from the civil-service principles to which he once gave utterance. Some of those who supported him at that time, forgetting now that with all his shortcomings in that regard there has not been another administration for a quarter of a century when the civil service of the country was, *as a whole*, so far removed from politics, appear to have despaired, and are considering whether it may not be wise to support the Republican nominees at the coming election, in the hope of better things from them, if elected.

On this point we may for the moment ignore the probability, now openly asserted by the Republican organs, that the election of Mr. Harrison means Mr. Blaine as Secretary of State and chief adviser, and four years of Blaineism abroad in the land. The Republican State Convention of Michigan, just held, has, we may assume unintentionally, but plainly, announced what may be expected in the civil service if the Republicans are successful in the present campaign. The platform adopted yesterday at Detroit "arraigns the Democratic party . . . for the prostitution of the civil service"—why? Because it is wrong in principle? No: simply because this "prostitution" has been found "so soon following the glowing declaration of the newly elected Democratic President"! The platform is silent as to the real views of the Republican party of Michigan on the naked question of civil-service management, but the speech of the temporary chairman, applauded to the echo by the Convention, formulates their sentiments better than any vote-catching plank in a platform. From the report in the Detroit *Tribune* (the Republican organ in Michigan) I make the following extract from the chairman's speech:

"I find no fault with the administration of the Democratic party in bestowing its favors and its offices upon its friends. That is one of the fundamental principles and tenets of my political faith [applause]; and I believe that in the early part of 1889 the Republican party will be kept very busy in that same direction [applause and laughter]."

Verily the spirit of the delegate from Texas still dwells in the Republican party. Does it promise better than President Cleveland's performances? G.

AUGUST 10, 1888.

CAMPAIGN CREDULOUSNESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your editorial on "Campaign Lying" in the *Nation* of August 9, you state that "intelligent men are not fooled by them, and that they are meant for the ignorant workingmen, particularly the Irish." In this you are mistaken, as I have talked to some men recently, whose intelligence is undoubted—notably a prominent member of Councils, representing one of the most influential wards in Philadelphia, who assured me that the article purporting to be an extract from the London *Times*, to the effect that "the only use England has for Irishmen now is to send them to the United States to vote for Cleveland and free trade," had positively appeared in the London *Times*, and gave me the date of its publication (June 16, I think). He also stated that in the future whenever this quotation was used, it was to have the date of publication. As far as I have observed, these articles are believed by intelligent Republicans as well as by the ignorant.—Yours, etc., W. H. C.

PHILADELPHIA, August 11, 1888.

"*TO ADMIRE AT.*"

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: At page 33 of your current volume, you designate the phrase "to admire at," in the sense of "to wonder at," as "a decided provincialism." Is it not, rather, an archaism? See Dr. Murray's Dictionary.

"To feel or express wonder mingled with approbation" is a sense of "to admire" which, I believe, has not hitherto been noticed by lexicographers.

"The Divine goodnesse, whose providence is never enough *to be admired at*."—William Watson, *A Decacordon of Ten Quodlibeticall Questions* (ed. 1602), page 24.

The expressions "the onely *admired at* Heroes of the world in his dayes," "such *admired at* worthies," "his *admired at* holy father," and the like, occur in the same work, at A 2 v., pages 102, 145, and elsewhere.

As any one who has lived in New England must be aware, the meaning which the New Dictionary assigns to "I *admire* to do it," quoted from Miss Alcott, is erroneous. See Webster or Bartlett.—Your obedient servant,

F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, July 23, 1888.

Notes.

WE mentioned last week the late Gen. Sheridan's aversion to any publication of his observations on the German Army in action during the war with France in 1870-71—perhaps because what he did let slip touched German-American sensibilities somewhat deeply. The November *Scribner's*, it is now announced, will reproduce, in an article called "From Gravelotte to Sedan," the General's notes made during his stay at the German Headquarters. A high degree of interest will attach to this posthumous paper, as to the General's Memoirs, of which Charles L. Webster & Co. will be the publishers.

Harper & Bros. publish directly 'Fifty Years Ago,' by Walter Besant—an illustrated account of English life, customs, and manners at the date of Queen Victoria's accession.

Longmans, Green & Co. will shortly publish 'The Record of a Human Soul,' an anonymous little book, "the honest account of the struggle of a sceptic who ardently but unavailingly desired to believe."

A new edition of the late Capt. R. F. Coffin's 'Yachts and Yachting,' brought down to date by Charles E. Clay, editor of *Outing*, is in the press of Cassell & Co.

Mr. Edward McPherson's 'Handbook of Politics for 1888' will be issued by James J. Chapman, Washington, D. C., about September 1.

We welcome the appearance of a second edition of Mr. Edward Stanwood's 'History of Presidential Elections' (Boston: Ticknor & Co.), which also serves as a history of parties, in default of a general work on the latter subject. Apparently it is the intention of author and publishers to renew this work every four years, so that the political student may be kept fully abreast of the movement of the national sentiment. Armed with the present volume, and with McPherson's 'Handbook of Politics' (which lags this year like our pokey Congress and our deliberate Presidential campaign), the stump-speaker and the voter have great resources for intelligent thought, speech, and

action. Mr. Stanwood's new chapters tell, first, the story of the campaign of 1884 with impartiality, and with an accuracy not to be questioned, unless we take issue with his positive ascription of the defeat of Blaine to the alliterative Dr. Burchard. The second one records with all necessary detail the passage of the Electoral Count Bill and the Presidential Succession Bill—two measures whose success in a time of strictly-drawn party lines and of public apathy on the matters in question, contains a most useful moral for the legislator and the reformer. Finally, an appendix embalms the party conventions and platforms of the current year, and the index crowns the whole.

The latest olive-green Bohn reissue to reach us is an edition of Goldsmith's plays, "The Good-Natured Man" and "She Stoops to Conquer" (Scribner & Welford).

From the Messrs. Longman we have a School Geography, by George G. Chisholm, who owns his large measure of indebtedness to a German model, and who has in turn furnished a model to our American makers of similar works. Its English origin and scope by no means deprive it of direct usefulness in our schools, at least as an adjunct. The illustrations, in which the fanciful is suppressed, are excellent. The same author and publisher produce a Junior Geography, more condensed, with a few diagrams and no scenic illustrations, but with uncolored maps reduced to their simplest terms.

A supplementary reading-book for schools, 'Familiar Animals and their Wild Kindred,' by John Monteith (Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co.), is noticeable for the pains taken to supply engravings of the several animals discoursed of. The result in this direction, if it falls considerably short of Bewick, is nevertheless much above the average. It is open to doubt whether for reading purposes it is not better for the teacher to have at command several first-rate naturalist books of travel.

Prof. George O. Curme, of Cornell College, Mt. Vernon, Iowa, edits for D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, Selected Poems from the 'Premières et Nouvelles Méditations' of Lamartine. Prof. Curme has the enthusiasm of an ardent admirer, and takes much satisfaction in reviewing the list of the poet's critics now forgotten. He furnishes a somewhat florid sketch of Lamartine's career, and adds notes chiefly explanatory and literary.

Ginn & Co., Boston, have brought out 'Aims and Methods in Classical Study,' by Prof. W. G. Hale of Cornell University, a companion pamphlet to his 'Art of Reading Latin.' It consists of an address delivered last year before the Massachusetts Classical and High School Teachers' Association in Boston, and is full of suggestion and instruction.

An obvious reflection arises when we are shown 'Charts of the Governments of the United States and of the State of Virginia,' displayed on one sheet for comparison by a school principal of Roanoke, Va., Mr. William M. Graybill. The idea is a good one, and is to be carried out for every State in the Union.

The second Bulletin of the Agricultural Experiment Station at Cornell University demonstrates the differences in value of the wool, flesh, and fat of lambs as fed on nitrogenous and non-nitrogenous food. Colored plates of several cuts from the slaughtered animals after photographs are very striking.

Mr. Horace Howard Furness comes to the defence (in *Shakespeariana* for August) of a passage in the trial scene of the "Merchant of Venice"—

"Thy currish spirit
Govern'd a wolf who hanged for human slaughter"—

which in his Variorum Edition he had intimated was corrupt. He cites the practice of hanging wolves and other rapacious animals for their sins. This custom, we will add, which seems opposed to modern notions, was nothing strange to a generation used to excommunications of noxious animals by the Catholic Church.

The principal articles in the twenty-third volume of the German Shakespeare Society's *Jahrbuch* are on "English Proverbs," by the late M. C. Wahl, a continuation and completion of an article on this subject printed in the last volume; and on "Timon of Athens," by Dr. W. Wendlandt. There is also a translation of Miss Grace Latham's paper on *Volumnia*, the mother of *Coriolanus* (according to Shakspere), and an account by Th. Vatke of English feasts and meals in the Elizabethan era. A curious table of the representations of Shakspere's plays on the German stage (including that at Milwaukee) during the year 1887 shows that twenty-five plays were given 717 times by 122 companies, "Othello" leading the list with 90 representations by 56 companies, "Hamlet" closely following with 88 times by 50 companies; the lowest being "The Tempest" and "As You Like It," each having been given twice by a single company. If, however, an adaptation of "Taming the Shrew" by Holbein, called "Liebe kann alles," be reckoned with the original play, this would stand first with 107 representations. The répertoire of the Meiningen Company included "The Merchant of Venice," "Julius Cæsar," and "Twelfth Night," which they gave 48 times in different parts of Germany. There is no bibliography in this volume, but the completion of Prof. Burgersdijk's Dutch translation is noticed with the remark that "now Holland has this advantage over Germany, that she has all Shakspere by one master-hand, while with us 'Meister' Schlegel translated but the smaller half."

The seventh annual report of the Dante Society, whose headquarters are at Cambridge, Mass., announces the approaching publication of Prof. E. A. Fay's 'Concordance of the Divina Commedia,' at the charge of a lady, one of the members of the Society. Mr. W. C. Lane has prepared the Dante bibliography for the year 1887, which is printed with the report, as was last year that for 1886. He intends at his leisure to bridge the gap between 1886 and the last contributions of Petzholdt. A prize has been awarded for a Dante essay by a student or recent graduate of Harvard, and fresh subjects are announced. The library has been steadily increased; but this, we regret to say, is not true of the Society's membership.

Feeble, numerically, as the Dante Society is, it has the distinction of being the fellow of the Deutsche Dante-Gesellschaft in an organized pursuit hitherto unknown even in Italy itself. This reproach has just been removed, thanks to the initiative of the Accademia della Crusca, with the support of the Marquis Pietro Torrigiani, Mayor of Florence, and with the approval of King Humbert, who enrolls himself in the new Società Dantesca Italiana, as the Marquis says, "non come pallida ombre di sovrana protezione, ma come lucente vessillo di nazionalità." The Society, in fact, though it will have its seat at Florence, will have branches throughout the peninsula. We quote once more from the Mayor's circular for what he says of the Dante Society of Cambridge—words too generous for the present facts, but of good omen, we may trust: "Dallo spirito democratico della nazione giovane prende vigore ad espandersi."

The University Library at Copenhagen has just acquired a copy of the first book printed in Icelandic, namely, the New Testament translated by Oddur Gottskálksson, and issued at Roeskilde, the old capital of Denmark, in 1540. The book exists in only a fragmentary state in Iceland, but the Copenhagen Royal Library has two very inferior copies. That which is now on the shelves of the University collection is absolutely perfect and in clean condition. It was found in the house of a Zealand peasant, not very far distant from Copenhagen, and was purchased for 25 Danish crowns (less than $7)—its marketable value being, of course, a great many times that sum. Nothing is known of its history except that it was in Iceland down to near the year 1820.

There has recently been organized in Paris the "Société de l'Histoire de la Révolution Française." Its objects, as stated in the *Revue Historique*, are to cause a scientific method to be followed in the studies upon the French Revolution; to offer a rallying-point for all students of the history of this period; to publish inedited, rare, or original works touching that time; to organize historical lecture courses; to prepare for the coming centennial celebration. Among the works announced for publication are the 'Mémoires inédits de Fournier l'Américain,' which will be edited by M. Aulard, the secretary of the new society.

Of late years, *Punch* has been to most Americans a mere picture-book, in which the "cuts" were of importance, and the "comic copy" seemed to be very inferior padding. But one series of articles which recently appeared, a "Manual for the Use of the Young Reciter," attracted attention far beyond that usually excited by the letter-press of the paper, and it was evident that the staff of *Punch* had received a new and valuable recruit. These articles have been reprinted in a neat little book with cover by Mr. Linley Sambourne, and we know now that "Burglar Bill" and his fellows are the work of "F. Anstey," as the author of 'Vice-Versa' still desires to be known. There are a baker's dozen of parodies in the thirteen different styles with which the amateur reciter or parlor elocutionist is wont to afflict unfortunate audiences. The subject of "Burglar Bill" (which is in the "Sympathetic Artless" style) is, oddly enough, almost identical with Mrs. Burnett's pathetic "Editha's Burglar." The "Wreck of the Steamship *Puffin*" is cruelly like the serious "marine emotional turgidities" which *Punch* publishes now and then. But perhaps the final poem, "Positively the Last Performance," is the most ludicrously exact exaggeration of all—its pseudo-pathos is most delightful.

Although the art of bookbinding is not in a very flourishing state in Great Britain, a monthly magazine devoted to the art has just completed the first year of its existence. The *Bookbinder* (London: Wm. Clowes & Son) is not a very attractive or a very artistic periodical; its editor's ideals are not high, his knowledge is not wide, and his editing is rather slovenly; but in the twelve numbers there are illustrations and scraps of information which those interested in bookbinding are glad to receive. There is an account of the exhibition of bookbindings by the Society of Arts last winter; also, an admirable and apparently exhaustive bibliography of bookbinding, to which we are able to add only the articles in the *Art Amateur*, the *Art Age*, and the *American Bookmaker*, and a chapter in the 'Home Library' of "Arthur Penn." It is to be wished that the editor of the *Bookbinder* would begin a systematic reproduction of the interesting and beautiful bindings exhibited in the King's Library at the British Museum, taking as his model M. Henri Bouchot's excellent book on

the bindings of the National Library in Paris. We glean that Mr. Weale is collecting material for a much needed history of bookbinding in England.

With the fourth annual report of the Commissioners of the State Reservation at Niagara for the past year, just issued at Albany, is printed a catalogue, by Mr. David F. Day, of the flowering and fern-like plants growing without cultivation in the vicinity of the falls of Niagara. Mr. Day's preliminary remarks on the connection between the flora and the geology of the neighborhood are very interesting. Goat Island he reports very rich in the number of its species, surpassing any adjacent area of equal size. The annual product, also, is noticeable for its abundance.

—The Drakes are disposed of in vol. xv of Leslie Stephen's 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan), and the great Admiral Sir Francis Drake has slightly more space accorded him than any other personage. Disraeli is a good second in this respect, and is treated in a manner that can give no offence to his admirers. In twelve pages the editor sums up what is needful to be said about Dickens. So far as the literary judgment goes, it is, on the whole, quite as high as one would have expected. Mr. Stephen says of the 'Pickwick Papers' that it "has caused more hearty and harmless laughter than any book in the language," and "shows in their highest development the qualities in which he [Dickens] most surpassed other writers." 'Martin Chuzzlewit' "shows Dickens at his highest power; . . . and the American scenes, revealing Dickens's real impressions, are perhaps the most surprising proof of his unequalled power of seizing characteristics at a glance." Of personal traits, Mr. Stephen observes slyly that Dickens "loved dogs, and had a fancy for keeping large and eventually savage mastiffs and St. Bernards; and he was kind even to contributors." His domestic infelicities are set down to his discredit. Good reading is the sketch of Charles Dibdin, and, in fact, of each of the Dibdins. Little is allowed by way of praise to the bibliophile Doctor, whose chief merit is detected in his share in founding the Roxburghe Club, precursor of the great number of similar publication societies. Another pioneer was C. W. Dilke, who established the practice of independent book reviewing. Dr. Thomas Dover, proverbially remembered in the name of Dover's powder, was also the discoverer of Alexander Selkirk, and thus was in a sense the author of 'Robinson Crusoe.' Sir Geo. Downing, with all his shortcomings, brought about specific appropriations for supplies in Parliamentary grants of money. He is, by his American birth, the most distinguished connecting link in this volume between the mother country and the United States. We could wish that room had been made, among the Dixons, for that Jeremiah whose surveying labors on the border of Maryland and Pennsylvania gave us the convenient politico-geographical expression "Mason and Dixon's line," to mark the parting of slave and free territory. For the same reason his chief, Charles Mason, merits recognition, perhaps, when overtaken in the Dictionary's alphabet. The writer of the sketch of Richard Doyle asserts that the facsimile of this artist's delightful MS. Journal of 1840 gives no idea of the beauty of the original in the British Museum. The inclusion of Alfred Domett, who died November 2, 1887—*i. e.*, after the date when men were conventionally assumed to be living, and therefore to be excluded—has had several precedents, in the exercise of a wise discretion.

—The July *Bulletin Historique et Littéraire* contains the third part of a description by M. E. Delorme of the *méreau* or communion-token formerly in use in the French Protestant churches. These tokens have long been an object of much interest, both to the collector and the antiquarian and numismatist, to whom they still present numerous unsolvable puzzles. They are medals, averaging an inch in diameter and almost exclusively of lead, which were given at stated intervals by the elders to those persons who were entitled to come to the communion. The custom originated in the first days of the Reformation, having been recommended by Calvin himself from the difficulty of distinguishing between the true and the false believers. During the days of persecution, when spies frequented the secret meetings of the proscribed church, they served as badges of membership simply. A number of these tokens, of which each distinct congregation generally had its own, are reproduced in the Bulletin. The most interesting, as well as the most ancient, dating back to the sixteenth century, is one having on the obverse a figure of Christ in a short coat and trunk hose, bareheaded and sounding a horn, which he holds in one hand, while in the other is a shepherd's crook. On the reverse are the words in French, "Fear not, little flock." The most common form is a medal having the eucharistic cup rudely stamped on the obverse, and the initials of the town in which the church is, together with other symbols or ornaments, according to the fancy of the maker, not infrequently one of the elders, on the reverse. These tokens were used for two centuries, but are now given up except in one village.

—Africa still claims the largest share of the geographers' attention, three of the four articles in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for July being upon that continent. The first is Dr. L. Wolf's report of his explorations of the Sankuru, a tributary of the Kassai, the largest of the southern branches of the Congo. Some idea may be formed of the extent of these great streams from the fact that in the middle course of the Sankuru it is often two miles wide and ten feet deep. It flows through a fertile country still densely populated, though the slave-traders, attracted by the abundance of ivory, had already begun their desolating ravages. The medium height of the land in Africa F. Heiderich shows to be 2,208 feet, a different result from that which Dr. John Murray reached in similar investigations published in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for January. Dr. Junker contributes a pathetic account of the fate of the European prisoners in Khartum, brought by two messengers who reached Cairo last May and June. These unfortunates are Lupton-Bey, an Englishman, Slatin-Bey, an Austrian, Neufeld, a German, three missionaries and four nuns, who are Austrian and Italian. These last are allowed their freedom, as being harmless, and earn a precarious living by their labor. Lupton has till recently been doing the lowest and most difficult work in the arsenal, such as shovelling and carrying, dressed only in underdrawers and felt hat. Slatin is footman to the Mahdi, who takes great pride in the fact that a Christian and former governor of a province should hold his stirrup and run before his horse. Neufeld is kept in chains, for what reason is not stated, and has twice been led to the gallows and nearly hanged. The messengers report that misery, want of money, clothing, and food reign in Khartum, and that hangings and murders are frequent. There are also bitter dissensions between the Mahdi and some of his chiefs. One of the messengers says that 500 well-armed Turkish or Egyptian soldiers, *without English*, could gain possession of the city within three months. The first of the two set out on the 5th of June in the disguise of a dervish to return to Khartum, having letters, about four times the size of a postage-stamp, for the captives, sewed into his clothing. Dr. Junker believes with Gen. Gordon that Zebehr Pasha is the man who could most easily restore the Sudan to Egypt. The editor is inclined to the opinion that Stanley is the "white pasha" reported as advancing against the Mahdi in the province Bahr el-Ghazal, though he regards it as not improbable that his object is not Khartum, but a union with Emin Pasha. The fourth article is on the "Caves of the United States," by C. Fruhwirth.

—Some time ago, in these columns, attention was called to the supposed indebtedness of Whately for the idea of his 'Historic Doubts relative to Napoleon' to a pamphlet by J. B. Pérès, entitled 'Comme quoi Napoléon n'a jamais existé,' and it was then shown that Whately's pamphlet was written years before that of Pérès, and that if there was any indebtedness, it must have been on the part of the latter. It may be worth noting that in *Mélusine* for July 5, the pamphlet by Pérès forms the subject of a very interesting article by H. Gaidoz, who gives some additional particulars concerning Pérès and his works. It seems that Barbier's remark that the preface to the third (anonymous) edition of 'Comme quoi,' etc., signed P. B., is by Petrus Borel, has led some cataloguers to place the work under that name, which Gaidoz tells us was the pseudonym of E. Bouchery, thus causing additional confusion. It is interesting to learn that the second and third editions (Paris, 1836) were due to the exertions of Pastor Frederic Monod, the chief editor of the *Archives du Christianisme*, who saw in this satire a powerful weapon against the theories of Dupuis, then attracting much attention.

—A considerable portion of the article in *Mélusine* is devoted to an analysis of Whately's 'Historic Doubts,' showing that though Pérès wrote his essay long after Whately's had appeared, there is little probability that he is in any way indebted to the English writer, and there remains merely a simple coincidence of subject. It is noted that 'Comme quoi Napoléon n'a jamais existé' has been translated into Dutch and Italian, and that an English translation may be found in *Philobiblion*; but no mention is made of the two English translations which appeared almost simultaneously in London in 1885. It would seem that a German translation also exists, for Miss E. J. Whately, in a letter to the Manchester *Guardian*, says that the first time her father saw the solar-myth tract of Pérès was in the form of a German translation, sent him by a friend about 1840. She adds that her father was much amused by the ingenuity with which Pérès's idea was worked out, but saw that the two tracts took totally different lines of argument, Whately's being written to disprove Hume's axiom concerning testimony by a *reductio ad absurdum*, while Pérès wrote to answer the myth theory of Dupuis. In referring to the additions made by Whately to the later editions of 'Historic Doubts,' showing how the death of Napoleon at St. Helena, the advent to power of Louis Napoleon, etc., could all be made to confirm his theory, M. Gaidoz adds that were the author still living he might find in one of the recent Parisian idols of the day a new avatar of the Napoleonic Dalai-lama, and quotes the *Temps* to show how the country people a few months ago were assured that Boulanger is a Bona-

parte, and a grandson of Napoleon I. Then, too, was not 'le boulanger' the name given by the populace in 1789 to the head of the State? Other explanations of the name may also suggest themselves, which would help to strengthen this position. The article concludes with a rather scornful reference to the principal upholders of the solar-myth theory in France, who seem to be at the head of the "Société des Traditions populaires," and a disparaging mention of the *Revue des Traditions populaires* published by that society.

—In the *American Meteorological Journal* Prof. Winslow Upton has presented the observations made by himself and Mr. Lawrence Rotch during the total solar eclipse of August, 1887, near Ivanovo, about 160 miles to the northeast of Moscow. Meteorological observations on such occasions are not easy to interpret; the fluctuations noted may be due to the eclipse itself, or to other conditions prevailing at the time, and it is not always possible to decide upon the true cause or causes of the observed effects. Fall in temperature and rise in humidity are obviously to be expected when the sun's heat is temporarily cut off; and these are always observed, though in varying degree. But the cause of fluctuations in the air-pressure and in the direction and velocity of the wind has not yet been definitely determined; and, on account of their minuteness, they are apt to be concealed in the greater fluctuations assignable to other causes. Meteorological stations were found to be quite numerous in the eclipse-region of Germany and Russia, and the weather-services of these nations coöperated with Prof. Upton in securing detailed observations of the chief meteorological elements every five minutes during the period of three hours adjacent to the time of greatest obscuration; also at intervals more frequent than usual on the days preceding and following the eclipse. The definitive discussion of this mass of observations will form perhaps the most valuable contribution to science which the last eclipse afforded; in fact, the astronomers everywhere, from Germany to Japan, met with chilling disappointment, while the meteorologists had pretty much the whole eclipse to themselves.

—The next total eclipse of the sun occurs on January 1, 1889, and it is to be hoped that astronomers as well as meteorologists may be successful. However, the outlook is perhaps better for the latter than the former. Totality is not very long, something like two minutes in the best places, which lie nearly one hundred miles to the north of San Francisco. Thence the eclipse track runs easterly across northern Nevada; curving more and more to the north, it crosses the Yellowstone National Park, and leaves the earth in British America about four hundred miles northwest of Lake Superior. It is doubtful if the phenomenon will attract observers to any great extent. The Director of the Lick Observatory has lately printed all the available meteorological data relating to the California region in question, and there is no eclipse observer who would, on such a showing, consider the prospect otherwise than forbidding. January, he says, is a particularly unfortunate time of the year for astronomical work, since it falls in the middle of the wet season, when it is possible that rainy periods of a week or more may be experienced all over northern California. Railway and other transportation facilities are good. Californian institutions will take prominent part in the proposed observations. Time signals will be sent out from the Observatory at suitable intervals adjacent to the eclipse, but observing parties will have to determine their own positions. Foreign visitors are welcomed to Mount Hamilton, and, in probable default of fine observing weather, are promised a magnificent mountain view at least.

—Dr. Thieler, the Mayor of Jena, recently discovered in the city archives and published in the *Jenaische Zeitung* (July 25) the record of an interesting and amusing suit. This was no less than that brought by "Herr Geheime Rath von Goethe" against his caterer for overcharging him. It seems that from April 20 to April 29, 1812, Goethe had his dinners served by "Hoftraiteur Steinert," himself preparing each morning the bill of fare, and requiring of Steinert "dass er die Braten alle ganz geben müsse; portionenweiss dürfe er ihm nichts geben." The bills of fare, preserved in the archives, are as follows:

"April 20. Dinner for two. Soup *au jus*, red cabbage with cutlets, stewed carp, roast pigeon, dessert. 1 reichsthaler, 6 groschen;—for the coachman, dinner and 1 glass of beer, 4 groschen, 6 pfennig. April 21. Dinner for two. Sago soup, pigeons with hop-sprigs, baked custard, roast kidney, dessert, 1 r. 6 gr.;—dinner and 1 glass of beer for the coachman, 4 gr. 6 pf.;—larded partridge roasted, 6 gr. April 22. Dinner for two. Barley soup, spinage with fried sausage, roast beef with mustard and roast pork, dessert, 1 r. 6 gr.;—coachman, 4 gr. 6 pf.;—two roast pigeons, 6 gr.;—supper and 1 glass of beer for the coachman, 4 gr. 6 pf. April 23. Dinner for two. Egg soup, hop-sprigs with cutlets, chicken-fricassee, roast kidney, dessert, 1 r. 6 gr.;—coachman, 4 gr. 6 pf.;—roast capon, 16 gr. April 24. Dinner for two. Soup with dumplings, surloin with anchovy sauce, farina pudding, mutton roast, lettuce, 1 r. 6 gr.;—two stuffed pigeons roasted, 6 gr.;—coachman, 4 gr. 6 pf.;—ham-salad for two, 8 gr. April 25. Dinner for two. Soup *au jus*, potatoes, hop-sprigs with cutlets, fricassee of calf's sweetbread, roast lamb, lettuce, 1 r. 6 gr.;—for the coachman, 4 gr. 6 pf. April 26. Dinner for two. Rice soup, surloin with anchovy sauce, cabbage with cutlets, roast lamb, dessert. 1 r. 6 gr.;—two roasted pigeons, 2 gr. April 27. Dinner for four. Soup *au jus*, sweetmeat with wine sauce, spinage with cutlets, potato-pudding, roast capon, lettuce, 3 r. 8 gr.;—roast and lettuce for two, 8 gr.;—for the coachman, breakfast, 4 gr., twice dinner and 1 glass of beer, 9 gr. April 28. Roast and lettuce for three, 12 gr. April 29. Dinner for four. Soup *à la Sautre*, veal fricassee, carp *en matelots*, mutton-roast, lettuce, 2 r. 16 gr.;—roast capon, 16 gr.:—broth, 9 gr.;—supper for two, 8 gr. Total, 20 reichsthaler, 15 gr. 6 pf. (about $15)."

Various cooks and landladies were summoned to give their judgment as to the fairness of the charges; some thought they could have furnished it a thaler or so cheaper, but Madame Hübschmann had the courage to intimate that in her opinion it was pretty small in a "Geheime Rath" to stickle at the price of a dinner that had been served as was due so high a personage. The result of the investigation was that the caterer's bill was cut down by 15 gr. 6 pf. (about 45c.), and Herr Geheime Rath von Goethe was so much the richer for his prosecution.

DONNELLY AND HIS CIPHER.

The Great Cryptogram: Francis Bacon's Cipher in the So-called Shakespeare Plays. By Ignatius Donnelly. Chicago: R. S. Peale & Co. 1888.

THE Baconian theory of the authorship of Shakspere's plays is now an old story. The argument for it has been repeatedly threshed out. It starts from the primary assumption that a mind which left no other evidence of itself than the plays could not have produced them, and it ends in the second assumption that Bacon, who stands next to Shakspere in the intellectual history of that age, must have been their author. The rest of the case consists of parallelisms of phrase and metaphor between the two authors, and the fact that Bacon was certainly acquainted with the common store of human learning. Mr. Donnelly rehearses the tale, oblivious of the destructive criticism which has been directed against it for a generation. What he adds is his discovery of a cipher in which Bacon has written his autobiography, with the expectation that posterity would discover it. This profound secret was not to be eternally sunk deeper than ever plummet sounded, but in the successions of time was to rise and reveal Bacon's greatness. There is no hint in any of his authentic writings to put the men of later times upon the scent. Yet, from an early period in his career, he had determined upon this method of addressing the future, and he practised it for years. He had, says Mr. Donnelly, a talent for secretiveness.

The secret, however, was known to his contemporaries; not the existence of the cipher, but the fact of Bacon's authorship. Spenser knew it, and, in his well-known lament for our "pleasant Willy," told it. This is the manner of his telling:

> "And he, the man whom Nature's self had made
> To mock herself and truth to imitate,
> *With kindly counter under mimic shade,*
> Our pleasant Willy, ah! is dead of late."

On which Mr. Donnelly comments (and it is a fair example of his learning) as follows:

"The word *counter* is not known to our dictionaries in any sense that is consonant with the meaning of these lines. I take it to be a poetical abbreviation of 'counterfeit,' and this view is confirmed by the further statement that this gentle-born playwright, who despised the base-born play-makers, imitated truth under a *shade* or disguise; and this disguise was a *mimic* one, to wit, that of a *mime*—an actor."

It is more natural to suppose that *counter* is our word *encounter*, when the meaning becomes clear and the expression proper to a pastoral poet; and at least one of "our dictionaries," the Imperial, sustains this interpretation, citing Spenser's usage.

It would be superfluous, however, to enter into an examination of Mr. Donnelly's understanding of Elizabethan English. Perhaps the most easy example is where he comes to his proof that Jonson also knew the secret. He quotes Jonson's statement that Bacon had "filled up all numbers," and explains it—"that is to say, he had compassed all forms of poetical composition"! Ignorance could not stand more nakedly confessed than in this perversion of a common Latinism. Jonson's verses on Shakspere have always been a stumbling-block in the way of the Baconians. Mr. Donnelly finds them not insuperable. Jonson was addressing Bacon all the time, and his lament for Shakspere is really a private appeal to Bacon to write more plays:

> "Sweet swan of Avon! what a sight it were
> To see thee in our waters *yet appear*.
>
> *Shine forth*, thou Starre of Poets, and with rage
> Or influence chide or *cheer* the drooping stage;"

only the lines should be repunctuated in some parts, especially where Jonson refers to the portrait:

> "O, could he but have drawn his wit
> As well in *brass* as he hath hit
> His face, the print would then surpass
> All that was ever writ—in *brass!*"

One difficulty, however, immediately occurs to the reader; it is in this passage that Jonson reproaches the poet with "small Latine and less Greek." Mr. Donnelly thinks that this was directed, in the pride of scholarship, at Bacon, whose 'Promus' contains several errors in the Latin and Greek; "how 'rare old Ben,'" exclaims Mr. Donnelly, "must have enjoyed whacking Bacon over Shakspere's shoulders, in verses written at the request of Bacon!"

We are not yet at the end of Bacon's confidants. Nash knew the secret when he sneered at those "who leave the trade of *noverint*,

whereto they were born," to busy themselves with play-writing. This was in 1587, and Spenser's knowledge was at least as early. Essex knew it, of course, as the chief conspirator in the group that used the theatres to stir up discontent with Elizabeth, by means of "Richard II."; and Bacon's servant, Harry Percy, who was the go-between in dealing with the players, knew it. Cecil knew it, himself the model after whom "Richard III." was drawn (both being humpbacked), and used his knowledge to keep Bacon out of favor with the Queen, to whom Cecil told it as well as to King James. Certain of the Cecil party must have known it when they sent out to arrest Shakspere, according to Mr. Donnelly. Coke certainly knew it, and insulted Bacon openly with it, so that Bacon applied to Cecil to have his mouth stopped on the subject. Bacon's brother, Anthony, knew it, and furnished the Italian backgrounds; his friend, Sir Tobiè Matthew, was acquainted even with the existence of the cipher in the plays, and compliments Bacon on the Folio of 1623; the printers, Hemynge and Condell, knew it, and had to take great pains with the bracketed and italicised words, else the cipher would have been irretrievably confused and lost. But the list is long enough. This secret, known to many men for a period of forty years at the shortest, was never told. It was hinted at in verse and prose, if Mr. Donnelly's interpretations be accepted, but it was never told. No syllable of it was ever explicitly put down in any records, letters, gossip, or what-not, and even the tradition of it died out utterly. So much for "the secret."

What of the cipher? Mr. Donnelly does not tell what it is. He even acknowledges that he has not completely worked out the rule of it; but he hopes to solve it entirely some time. From the description he gives it appears to be a word-cipher, determined by arithmetical relations to some starting-point, whence, by the aid of the numbers of the pages and the number of bracketed and italicised words, one counts backward and forward some hundreds of words, and so picks out the significant ones. It is an extraordinarily complicated cipher, and the labor of unravelling it has been herculean. There is no question of the labor Mr. Donnelly has expended. It is the only thing about which there is no question. But, leaving the cipher, which is not submitted to us for judgment, what does the cipher tell us? Is it written in Bacon's style and in Elizabethan English? The substance of the cipher, so far as Mr. Donnelly gives it in full, is the defamation of Shakspere, boy and man. Bacon seems to have been more concerned with heaping ignominy upon his tool for the sake of posterity than in any attempt to entertain his living audience. Of the sort of disgrace which is thus put upon Shakspere, we can but refrain from speaking. It is of the sort that would soil the foulest pen. It is natural for a Baconian to find great interest in all that makes for Shakspere's personal discredit, and it is on this account that Mr. Donnelly has chosen these passages to give to the world first. It is singular that he should have hit on this description of the youth and manhood of the vagabond debauchee before he met with anything else. The tradition of Sir Thomas Lucy is sustained and much amplified by the narrative, the character of Shakspere's wife is limned with coarse colors, and the appearance of Shakspere among his family is so told that one cares to hear no more. So far as Shakspere is concerned, as here described to us by Bacon, who even stops to tell us what the wretch had for breakfast, we do not know where in history or fiction a more degrading characterization is to be found.

The cipher-narrative is not confined to these unsavory and revolting details. It is well spiced with other matter. The conspiracy of Essex is touched on; Bacon takes ratsbane, and is only saved from death because he took an overdose which his stomach rejected; the Queen beats poor Hayward, who was arrested on account of dedicating a book to Essex, in a scene quite the most violent that we have of "the old jade," as the cipher designates her. There is action and color enough. The revelations are by no means tame. If Bacon's autobiography keeps up as it has begun, it will be a treasure for the lover of strong sensations. It is true that in the style of the composition one discerns no trace of the hand that wrote the "Merchant of Venice" or the 'Essays,' and the English has not the sequence and turn of Elizabeth's great age; but the words are from the plays. Such is the matter of what Bacon, at inconceivable pains to himself, took the trouble to dovetail into the plays in order to address that posterity to which he left his memory. Was it not enough to have drawn *Falstaff* from Shakspere and *Dame Quickly* from Ann Hathaway, as the cipher assures us he did, and to have afterward framed *Caliban* in the image of the Stratford peasant player, as Mr. Donnelly thinks was done? For when *Prospero* leaves the isle to the "moon-calf," Mr. Donnelly holds it is Bacon abandoning the plays to Shakspere.

It becomes apparent to the student of this controversy that what the Baconians really claim is, that Bacon was the whole Elizabethan age. This is the only inference to be drawn from their "parallelism" and "metaphors," etc. Any word, phrase, or image that Bacon uses is his exclusively. The argument assumes that there was no common language, no common stock of figures, no common nature in the working of all poetic minds. It is pitiable to find a pretending scholar citing "extraordinary" words in Bacon and Shakspere as if they were not also in a dozen other authors of the time. But it is not our intention to repeat old lines of argument. Mr. Donnelly is argument enough, taken by himself. He does not shrink from asserting that Bacon was the whole Elizabethan age. It is the natural conclusion of the Baconian theory, and it has been reached. Bacon, he says, appeared before Shakspere; he began writing early for the stage, perhaps ten years before Shakspere's entrance in 1592, if we adopt that date. There were many plays, some of which are extant, which various scholars have attributed to Shakspere's hand; there were other old plays which Shakspere rewrote; and there were Marlowe's plays. Bacon wrote them all. Mr. Donnelly thinks he had many of them printed between 1607 and 1613 in order to show his progress "from *Stuckley* and *Fair Em* to *Othello* and *Lear*." Bacon wrote the pre-Shaksperian drama, in other words. At first he used Marlowe as his mask, but Marlowe got killed, and then he had to find another "safe" fool, and took up with Shakspere.

The drama, however, is but a part of Elizabethan literature. Bacon also wrote the 'Anatomy of Melancholy.' But the most extraordinary of his "masks" was Montaigne. It seems that Bacon wrote the 'Essais' and got Montaigne to translate them into French; then after that version appeared he persuaded old Florio to father the *original English* which he had himself composed. How else, asks Mr. Donnelly, could Florio have written Baconian English, parallelism in phrase and metaphor and all? This is the reverse of the adage, for here the ridiculous really passes into the sublime. Florio and Montaigne were accomplices in the great secret, too. After this no one will wink when he finds "Mrs. Pott" alleging that she "sees the signs of the *Promus* notes and other Baconianisms of thought and expression not only in the plays of Marlowe, but in the writings of Marston, Massinger, Middleton, Greene, Shirley, and Webster"; and Mr. Donnelly has "great confidence in her penetration and judgment." The Baconians are not lacking in courage. It only remains for them now to tackle King James's Bible.

Mr. Donnelly has a great work before him. The cipher was not an incident in the plays; it was their topic, their marrow. He revels in the prospect:

"What a volume of historical truths will roll out of the text of this great volume! The inner life of kings and queens, the highest, perhaps the basest, of their kind; the struggles of factions in the courts; the interior view of the birth of religions; the first colonization of the American continent, in which Bacon took an active part, and something of which is hidden in the 'Tempest;' the death of Mary, Queen of Scots; the Spanish Armada, told in 'Love's Labor Lost;' the religious wars on the Continent; the story of Henry of Navarre; the real biography of Essex; the real story of Bacon's career; his defence of his life, hidden in 'Henry VIII.,' his own downfall in cipher being in the external story of the downfall of Wolsey."

In Shakspere we had but one story, the supreme one of the plays; but the possible rearrangement of so many hundred thousand words will suffice for an endless narrative of history in infinite volumes.

Mr. Donnelly has evidently but a small library; his acquaintance with literature is narrow and largely second-hand, and his familiarity with Elizabethan books is of the scantiest. He is unfurnished with scholarship or its implements; but he has the cipher, and that will suffice for the rest of his literary days. He has the secret of Bacon, lost since those days when his servant Harry Percy went to receive the author's share of the profits from the nightly performance, and was perhaps spied by Cecil's agents "in some dark alley"—for Bacon, like our friend of former days, Shakspere, worked for base hire out of poverty. This is with the other marvellous facts. Shakspere has disappeared in Bacon, and now Bacon is disappearing in his cipher. The plays are necessarily subordinate to the "veiled writing." We used to call it Shakspere's miraculous diction; but now Mr. Donnelly, who never shrinks, tells us that many of the finest gems of Shakspere's language are due merely "to the necessities of the cipher." This truth will grow more plain as the cipher extends its tentacle arms backward and forward through these curves, with the accompanying tables of what look like logarithms and read like lottery-numbers infinitely prolonged. Why does one think of Lilly, the astrologer, and of Bickerstaff, and wonder if the old almanack-maker really did not die, after all? Perhaps it will be as well—it will certainly be easier—for the inquiring student to content himself with Mr. Spedding's weighty remark, that in all his study of Bacon he has never seen any sign that the great philosopher ever read a line of Shakspere.

HARRISON'S OLIVER CROMWELL.—II.

Oliver Cromwell. By Frederic Harrison. [Twelve English Statesmen.] Macmillan & Co. 1888.

"NEVER did a leader invested with absolute power and overwhelming military force more obstinately strive to surround his authority with legal limits and Parliamentary control." These are the words in which Mr. Harrison describes the attempts of the Puritan statesman to found a constitution. These, and with them the whole

of Cromwell's policy, have been misunderstood. Carlyle, who hated Parliaments, did not understand why his hero voluntarily submitted to Parliamentary control. Liberals who have perceived that Cromwell hated despotism, have fancied that Cromwell wished for the kind of Parliamentary government which now exists in England. Mr. Harrison has avoided each error; he has suggested the right way of looking at Cromwell's ideal of government. He has unfortunately confined himself to suggestions. Cromwellian constitutionalism will never fully be understood until it is examined and expounded in detail by Mr. Gardiner. Meanwhile, a reviewer may with advantage expand Mr. Harrison's suggestions, and try to describe the point of view from which Cromwell's reforms ought to be regarded by intelligent critics. As a constitution maker, as in every other part of his public life, Cromwell is a conservative revolutionist.

In more than one point his policy was revolutionary. He aimed at securing freedom of religious opinion for all Protestants. On this matter he was in full sympathy with a few extreme sectaries. His toleration, it will be said, was incomplete; it was, however, far in advance of any measure of religious freedom which would have been granted by Anglicans or by Presbyterians. If Cromwell's views had prevailed, England would never have been cursed with the odious social division between members of the Church of England and Nonconformists. The Toleration Act, no doubt, relieved Dissenters from practical oppression, but the policy of which the Toleration Act was, so to speak, the outward sign, stereotyped the distinction between Churchmen and Nonconformists, and thereby will probably prove in the end fatal to the existence of a national church. Cromwell, again, was determined (and in this he sympathized with all the best men of his age) to free England once and for all from arbitrary government. Modern hero-worshippers may fancy that the men who had risked their lives in the cause of the Parliament, despised Parliamentary authority. No delusion is more baseless. It may be doubted if any man, whether a Roundhead or a Cavalier, who cared for the good of the country, wished to get rid of Parliaments. A king who legislated uncontrolled by the advice of Parliament would be a despot, and Englishmen who knew what despotism meant on the Continent, were determined not to submit to a rule like that of the Bourbons. Cromwell, moreover—and in this he was a revolutionist—clearly meant that no future ruler should be able to elude the remonstrances of the country by refusing to call a Parliament. The Instrument of Government provided specifically that Parliament should be convened at fixed intervals. He anticipated, further, and more than anticipated, the policy embodied in the Acts of Union with Ireland and Scotland. Under the Instrument of Government, or (to use modern expressions) the Constitution of 1654, the Channel Islands, as well as Scotland and Ireland, were to send representatives to Westminster. Add to this that the franchise was placed on a clear and rational basis, that the number of the House of Commons was fixed at four hundred, and that a systematic redistribution of seats anticipated and would have made needless the later demand for Parliamentary reform. Two other facts deserve special attention. The Protector's power over ordinary legislation was confined to a suspensive veto. "Fundamentals"—what modern writers would call "constitutional guarantees"—could not be changed in the same manner as laws; the principles of the Constitution could be altered, if at all, only with the assent of the Protector. The Constitution of 1654 was intended to effect a revolution. It secured religious freedom, it insured the legislative authority of Parliament, it placed the foundations of the Constitution above the risk of sudden change.

The Instrument of Government gave England a new Constitution, yet it was emphatically a work of conservative statesmanship. Some of the changes which it introduced may have seemed to its authors no more than the formal recognition of admitted principles. Charles's attempt to govern without a Parliament was admitted to be unconstitutional. The King's power of refusing his sanction to a bill carried through Parliament was an exercise of authority which was felt to be dangerous, and thoughtful men already perceived that a suspensive veto which could be used, might give greater weight to the head of the Commonwealth than an absolute veto which it might become more and more dangerous to use. Even the hindrances placed in the way of changing the fundamental principles of the Constitution were in keeping, not with any rule of law, but with principles recognized by the constitutional lawyers of the seventeenth century. Coke would have denied in theory that Parliament had a right to override the principles of the common law; and the notion that the legislature is morally justified in changing fundamental laws is of comparatively recent growth.

The point, however, wherein the Constitution of 1654 most markedly shows its conservative character, is the position it assigns to the Protector. In Cromwell's view, England needed a strong Executive, at the head of which should stand some one person, who, whether he were called President or King, should be a real ruler. He wished in one shape or another to keep alive the kingship. He was fully determined that the Executive of the Commonwealth should neither be Parliament nor a Parliamentary Committee. The thorough-going Parliamentarians wished, to use Mr. Harrison's words, "to establish the autocracy of an elected House supreme over the Executive, and free from any constitutional limit." Cromwell's idea was that there should be an Executive authority not directly subordinate to Parliament, and that the fundamental bases of the Constitution should not be alterable like ordinary laws. As a constitutionalist, Cromwell agreed with the ablest and the most public-spirited among the upholders of royal authority. He felt as strongly as did Bacon the evils that might be involved in the absolute supremacy of Parliament. He, however, perceived more clearly than the upholders of the prerogative, that in England no Executive could be permanently powerful which did not consult the will of the nation as expressed in Parliament, and that a ruler's powers ought to be given him by the Constitution, and not to depend on a vague "prerogative," liable at once to undue extension and to undue curtailment. Once grasp Cromwell's position, and we can understand both why he was utterly averse to governing without Parliament, and why he was never able to come to terms with Parliamentarians.

There is a considerable element of truth in Mr. Harrison's assertion that Cromwell's position "was exactly that of Washington, of Hamilton, Jay, and Madison." He, like the founders of the United States, wished for an Executive which should occupy a sphere separate from that of the legislative body, and for a legislature which should legislate and should not govern. The powers, nominally at any rate, conferred on the President would have satisfied the Protector, subject to two provisos, namely, that the powers should be really exercisable at the will of the ruler, and that the ruler should hold office for life. The only expression in Mr. Harrison's statement with which we quarrel is the word "exactly." We greatly doubt whether Cromwell's ideal was not far more nearly that of Bismarck than of Washington. No one supposes that the German Chancellor wishes to abolish the Reichstag or to destroy the Prussian Parliament. What he does wish—and for the time he has attained his wish—is that the Parliaments should confine themselves to legislation, and should not interfere with the action of the Executive. His old quarrel with the Prussian House of Representatives shows, indeed, that the line between legislation and administration cannot be strictly drawn. The Chancellor would assert that where the rights of the legislative and the administrative authority of the Government conflict, the representative body should give way. But Bismarck, no doubt, would also contend that where the people are sensible and the Government is patriotic, such conflicts ought not to arise. This, we take it, was the Protector's own conviction. His permanent, and from his point of view righteous, complaint was, that the Commonwealth's men would not accept the constitutional position of Parliament. Not content with legislation, they would encroach upon the sphere of the Government. To put Cromwell's views in another shape, he wished to establish formally what to the English people had been for generations the ideal of good government, namely, the rule of a powerful and patriotic monarch who, like Elizabeth at her best, should carry out the wishes of the nation, and, while listening with respect to the Houses of Parliament, should yet represent the country more truly than any assembly. This and not government by Parliament was the aim of Oliver's constitutionalism. It was not the aim of men like Vane or Bradshaw, but we may suspect that it far more nearly represented the wishes of the English people than did the ideas of more thorough-going Parliamentarians.

An apprehension of Cromwell's aim enables us to appreciate with fairness his obvious indifference to means. He was willing to have come to terms with Charles, if only Charles had shown himself capable of respecting the constitutional principles which in Cromwell's eyes were all-important. It can, we think, hardly be doubted that he would have been willing himself to accept the position of king. It may be perfectly true that, as he said, he valued the title not more than "a feather in his hat"; but he must have felt more keenly than most men the real and weighty arguments in favor of the kingship. "A 'King' was a legal, constitutional, traditional, familiar functionary; a 'Protector' was a provisional *locum tenens*, with no known prerogatives, no known limits, an indefinite and unfamiliar makeshift." And a king armed with the authority of Cromwell, and supported by Parliament, would have been just the kind of ruler whom in Cromwell's judgment England needed. His refusal of the kingship was, we may take it, due in part to policy, and in part to his real respect for the opinion of the army and of "good" men. Is it not allowable to suppose that he hoped, if his life continued, the time would come when the opinion of the army would change, and he might honestly recognize in the wishes of the saints the sign of the will of God? The revised Constitution of 1657 looks strangely like a stage towards the restoration of the monarchy.

It is one of the paradoxes of history that the restoration of royalty under Charles II. was in reality the destruction of the English kingship.

Events proved, or seemed to prove, that for England the choice lay between royal despotism of the Continental type, and government by Parliament. That the English people should, when this alternative was placed before them, choose government by Parliament was inevitable. But crises occur when the best friends of freedom may regret that the Cromwellian experiment of a strong Executive, respecting and respected by an independent Legislature, never received a fair trial. There is little good, however, in wasting thought over the tempting but useless problem of "what might have been." The experiment was doomed from the first to failure. Cromwell, with all his merits, lacked the patience, and we must add the self-control, needed by the architect of a constitution. His innovations were in advance of his times; his conservatism estranged his natural supporters. Experience, moreover, showed that for at least a century after Cromwell's death the English aristocracy had the power and (let it be conceded) the capacity to rule the English people. The Republicanism of the Commonwealth, even under its most conservative form, was premature. A careful study, indeed, of a period which, from a legal and constitutional point of view, has been too much neglected, will, it may be conjectured, show that the legislation of the Long Parliament and of the Protectorate left much more permanent traces on English law than is generally believed. Still, the history of Puritanism and of the Puritan leader will always have in it an element of tragedy; it is a tale of heroic efforts and of splendid triumphs ending in failure. The Cromwellian Constitution of 1654 is a noble fabric planned by architects of original genius; but from the first it rested on no solid foundation, and students examine its details with the interest excited by the ruins of an uncompleted palace.

First Steps in Geometry: a Series of Hints for the Solution of Geometrical Problems, with Notes on Euclid, Useful Working Propositions, and Many Examples. By Richard A. Proctor. Longmans, Green & Co. 12mo, pp. viii, 179.

Easy Lessons in the Differential Calculus: indicating from the outset the utility of the processes called Differentiation and Integration. By Richard A. Proctor. Longmans. 12mo, pp. vi, 114.

Mr. Proctor has written a great many books, most of them instructive, all of them interesting. How much he has contributed to the sum of human knowledge is a question we are not now called upon to discuss; but he has certainly done much to excite the curiosity of the many who know little, and impel them to seek information from the few who know much, in regard to a great variety of subjects. He seems lately to have been taking a retrospective glance at his own education, and to have been recalling the difficulties which he encountered and the incitements which urged him on. In this review two things appear to have especially impressed him: the difficulties he met with in the study of Geometry, and the surprise and pleasure he felt when he found that, by the processes of the Differential Calculus, he could solve, with wonderful ease and facility, certain problems in which he was interested. Neither of these experiences has anything very novel about it. Geometry, as usually taught, is, to the great majority of students, in its earlier stages a sort of mental torture; and when they have succeeded in *learning* the amount required to enter college, they are able to *do* hardly anything. The principal object of most text-books of Geometry seems to be to teach logic rather than to give the pupil a knowledge of one of the most useful and beautiful of the sciences. They shrink from any departure from the traditional manner lest it should "lack rigor." As to the Calculus, Snell, in his treatise on that science, published nearly half a century ago, remarks that when we consider the nature of the problems with which it deals, its formulas seem to have about them something truly magical (*wahre Zauberformeln*).

But novelty or originality of ideas is to Mr. Proctor of far less importance than attractiveness of presentation. There is nothing which the readers of newspapers look for with more eagerness than the accounts of occurrences about which they already know more than any reporter can possibly tell them. In the same way, all are eager to see how a writer who has often afforded them pleasure deals with even the most commonplace idea. For all this Mr. Proctor has a sense sharpened by long and profitable experience. He has accordingly, as is his custom, made the experiences above referred to the occasion for writing two new books, small but neat, ingenious, and taking—so far as these latter adjectives can be predicated of books relating to pure mathematics. From the general title, 'First Steps in Geometry,' one would almost inevitably infer that the book on Geometry was intended for those commencing the study of that science. It is not this at all. It is not a text-book, but a sort of companion to the text-book. It may be said generally that the book presupposes an acquaintance with the first two books of Euclid. In the solution of the first problem which Mr. Proctor treats there is a reference to Euclid, and two more before he goes to the next problem. The sub-title explains fairly well the character of the book. It is not an exposition of any regular system for the solution of geometrical problems, but is mostly made up of observations and illustrations, the former distinguished for their good sense, the latter for their ingenuity and attractiveness. Almost any one, teacher or pupil, will find the book useful, and, what Mr. Proctor always aims at and generally attains, interesting.

The little treatise on the Calculus is intended for a text-book. Mr. Proctor calls it 'Easy Lessons,' but tells us in his preface that "rather less" than it contains was sufficient for him to get his degree at Cambridge, and to prepare him for further acquisitions in after life. To be easy, to contain enough, and more than enough to get a degree, and to be a sufficient preparation for acquiring more, should the occasion for more ever arise, and all this in the compass of 114 small pages in large type, is about all that either pupil or professor could reasonably demand. It is certainly unfortunate that in the very first equation in so promising a book (p. 4, near the top), and that, too, the corner-stone of the whole structure, by a "printer's error" and a proof-reader's negligence, the coefficient ½ has been omitted from the last term of the left-hand member, so that the equation is no equation at all. Near the bottom of the same page, by a similar error, we have a minus sign in place of a sign of equality, thus again making nonsense. Mr. Proctor discusses (p. 59, *et seq.*) a problem in regard to the height of a light so situated that a point in a plane below may receive the maximum amount of illumination. In discussing one of the cases of this problem he says (the italics are his own): "Suppose, for example, *a* is equal to eight degrees, *the slope of my desk*, for I have taken the notion of *working out this particular problem with the practical design of determining how high I should set the moderator which illuminates the paper I am writing upon.*" Then, after showing in detail how the problem is solved, always in the first person singular, he concludes: "I find that the best height for the light of the moderator (above the surface of the table) is, as nearly as possible, 18¾ in." This autobiographical manner of treating a problem in *maxima* and *minima* has real advantages. The young students who use the book can but be impressed by the wisdom of a man who fixes the height of his light by the Differential Calculus, and all this contributes to increase the sale of Mr. Proctor's next book, which, as we write, is already in process of publication. We cannot, however, withhold the expression of our conviction that, whatever may be the case at Cambridge, some of the treatises on the Calculus with which we are acquainted are better adapted to the wants of those seeking a degree at Harvard, or Yale, or Columbia than Mr. Proctor's.

The Art of Investing. By a New York Broker. D. Appleton & Co. 1888.

The good judgment which characterizes most of this book manifests itself in the title. The author recognizes that investing is not a science, to be taught deductively, but an art, which can be learned only by experience. He therefore keeps well under control his happy faculty for coining aphorisms, and confines himself chiefly to giving significant facts drawn from business experience. Taking up, one after another, the various classes of investments, he shows in an interesting way the peculiar dangers attending each. In this portion of his work the only serious blunder made is where the author digresses into constitutional history, and maintains that "the Eleventh Amendment, which inhibits the suing of States by private parties, thus taking away a right previously existing, was meant to cut off certain claims growing out of the Revolutionary war, and for no other purpose whatever; no one at the time of its adoption dreaming that it would be used by the States to shield themselves from subsequently contracted liabilities." If the author will consult the decision of the Supreme Court in the case of Chisholm vs. Georgia (2 Dall., 479) he will find it expressly stated that claims against the States growing out of the Revolutionary war never could have been sued under the original Constitution. They represented the one class of claims which the Eleventh Amendment was *not* intended to cut off.

But an historical blunder of this sort does not reflect so seriously upon the author's credit as does the total loss of judicial temper which marks his concluding chapter upon "Speculating." This chapter is perhaps the most interesting in the volume. We have here the spectacle of a New York broker joining vigorously in the attack upon the Stock Exchange. Unfortunately, he follows the example of his eloquent comrades-in-arms (or, better, comrades-with-arms), and indulges freely in rhetoric. He represents the Stock Exchange as conducted solely in the interests of the stock-makers. It is merely "the conduit through which water is carried to the investor's pocket." "It is supposed to act as a sieve, but, . . . sieve-like, it is no obstruction to the passage of water." To his mind the Exchange does not even fulfil a useful function by supplying quotable values, and thus giving stability to business. "When securities are converted into footballs for gamblers to play with, they are pretty certain to be either too high or too low," and thus, "instead of being a balance wheel to the business of the country, the Stock Exchange is far more likely to be a disturbing factor."

In short, the entire institution is "an enemy to public morals and general business."

In support of these charges the author does state facts, and they are facts which deserve statement. It cannot, for instance, be too often repeated, that listing on the Exchange furnishes not the slightest guarantee as to the worthiness of securities. All brokers admit it, and the time may come when popular distrust will lead the Exchange to impose new duties upon its committee on applications for listing. Then, too, there is ground for the denial of the constantly repeated claim that the Exchange steadies values. When, as brokers admit, speculative orders outnumber investment orders a hundred to one, and the general tendency is to demand stocks that are rising and desert those that are falling, without thought as to dividend-paying qualities, there is grave reason to doubt whether the Exchange merits the eulogies which have been bestowed upon its steadying qualities. It may also be true that stocks listed yield on the average smaller returns than outside investments. In fact, there are two economic reasons why this should be the case. In the first place, they have the advantage of instant convertibility. In the second place, the gambling instinct which leads men to invest in lotteries, though the certainty of loss increases with the size of the investment, may also lead them to invest in stocks where the probable smallness of the dividend is compensated by the hope of adding to the principal. But these are merely tendencies which in no wise justify our author's characterizations of listed securities. Throughout the entire chapter the judgments are passionate and exaggerated. The obvious benefit which the Exchange confers, in enabling business men at any instant to convert their securities into cash, is ignored. The fact that the Exchange facilitates the sale of American securities, especially their sale abroad, by furnishing an index of their probable value, is apparently unthought of. The entire arraignment is that of a prosecuting attorney who permits himself to be carried away by his eloquence and indignation.

Most of the evils connected with the Exchange are those inherent in speculative human nature. There is, however, one which our author is justified in believing that the rigid enforcement of wholesome legislation may mitigate. John Bright once said that adulteration is a legitimate form of competition. This is true only when the fact of the adulteration is admitted. Otherwise, it is fraud. The adulteration of stocks is generally of the latter sort. When our author advocates that, in all our States, corporations which exist by the authority of the law be prohibited from issuing debentures or scrip not representing moneys actually paid into their treasuries, or proprietary interests whose values are to be determined by disinterested parties, he advocates a measure which the protection of the public against extortion and the protection of private investors against fraud alike demand. Fortunately, such laws are becoming more general. Insurance stocks in some States and bank stocks in all can now be relied upon to represent actual cash investments. When this shall hold true of all forms of corporate securities, European investments will be more frequent, American investments will be more secure, and the idea of riches be less dangerously dissociated from the idea of earnings.

The Philosophy of Kant, as contained in Extracts from his own Writings, selected and translated by John Watson, LL.D. Macmillan & Co. 1888. 12mo, pp. 356.

Mr. WATSON rightly anticipates an objection to his extracts, that "the work of a great author should be represented 'all in all, or not at all.'" But he as justly replies that "the writings of Kant, which are full of confusing repetitions that really mar their perfection of form, hardly deserve the same tenderness of treatment" that must be accorded "a faultless work of art like the *Republic* of Plato." Nevertheless, admitting the good judgment shown in the selections, the excellent character of the translations, the good print, and the general value of the work for technical class-room work, we have a more general criticism to pass. We have had translations enough of Kant. What the general student of philosophy wants to-day is an exposition.

Kant's obscurity of thought and style, his tortuous sentences and peculiar phraseology, and his meagreness of fact and illustrations, are the proverbs of philosophers. Translations can only transmit these defects into another language, where they are made tenfold worse by the necessity of making concessions to foreign idioms. Every one knows how intolerable it is to read the 'Kritik' in a translator's dress, unless he has first been initiated into the mysteries of its terms. We are convinced, however, that Kant can be expressed in as plain and simple English as was the philosophy of Locke, if his disciples will only condescend to interpret him. Prof. Royce and Prof. Schurman have both recently expressed themselves to the same effect. Until this is done, the merits of the Kantian philosophy will not be properly appreciated, as they have not been appreciated by the scientific mind—witness Herbert Spencer, George Henry Lewes, and John Stuart Mill. Kantian scholars would, therefore, do a lasting service to philosophic thought if they would perform this plain duty instead of merely translating their master, and talking only among themselves in a language that is essentially esoteric in its nature.

The Registers of the Parish Church of Rochdale, in the County of Lancaster, from October, 1582, to March, 1616. Edited by Henry Fishwick. Rochdale: James Clegg. 1888. 8vo, pp. 371.

IN this well-printed volume, the historian of Goosnargh and Kirkham has published the christenings, weddings, and burials of the parish of Rochdale. The editing is invisible, but we doubt not that the copying has been carefully and thoroughly made. There is nothing to notice except the bare names, and of these the principal are Aspinall, Ashton, Ashworth, Atkinson, Bamford, Banks, Baguley, Battersby, Belfield, Birch, Booth, Bradford, Brearley, Bridge, Briggs, Brook, Buckley, Butterworth, Byrom, Casson, Chadwick, Clegg, Collinge, Cowper, Crossley, Durden, Dickson, Dodson, Dowson, Earnshawe, Eastwood, Entwistle, Farrer, Fielden, Fenton, Fish, Fitton, Fletcher, Frith, Garside, Gorelde, Greave, Greenhalgh, Greenroade, Greenwood, Gryme, Halliwell, Hallowes, Hamer, Hanson, Hardman, Haslame, Haworth, Healey, Heyward, Hill, Holland, Hollas, Holroyde, Holt, Hopwood, Ingham, Jackson, Kaye, Kirshaw, Leache, Lees, Leighe, Lightowlers, Lorde, Lomax, Ludson, Marcroft, Mercer, Milne, Newall, Nuttall, Ogden, Radcliffe, Redferne, Rodes, Romsbothom, Rudd, Scolfield, Shaw, Shepheard, Shore, STOCK, Stott, Sutcliffe, Taylor, Turnough, Walch, Ward, Wardle, Whitehead, Whittaker, Whitworth, Wolfenden, and Wolstenholm.

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** I was unable to personally examine the property held by the company on mortgage—with that exception, I fully concur in the above report.*

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 23, 1888.

The Week.

THE Nominal Candidate must have enjoyed reading the accounts of the scene at Portland, Wednesday week, when the Real Candidate "struck the keynote of the campaign." There was not even so much as a Harrison and Morton banner, or a picture of the man who is running for care-taker of the White House. The Leader of the Party, the candidate for Head of the Administration, dominated the occasion. It was Mr. Blaine, not Mr. Harrison, to whom the chairman of the meeting alluded when he spoke of "the American champion of protection"; it was Mr. Blaine, not Mr. Harrison, to whom the same speaker referred when he said that "millions of Americans will follow him in this contest that is now being waged in this country."

That Mr. Blaine is an habitual blunderer, cannot be denied. He writes impulsively, and speaks without carefully verifying his alleged facts. This has been uniformly true of him from the time of the Mulligan letters to the "Paris Message." That he has blundered every time that he has opened his mouth since his "triumphal" return is notorious, as is the fact that he dearly loves rich men, and longs for the friendly society of all corporations and other aggregations of wealth. Like Mr. Foster, he yearns for a share of the "fat" that is in such men and combinations. That he would naturally have a warm sympathy for trusts, any one who has followed his public career would not for a moment question. But having such sympathy, and expressing it openly, are two very different things. If Mr. Blaine had sent his views on trusts in a confidential letter to Mr. Carnegie, and had marked it either "Private—use wisely," or "Burn this," nobody would have been surprised.

The press report of Senator Sherman's remarks on the subject of trusts last week left some doubt whether he intended to say that these organizations should be checkmated by repealing or lowering duties, or by the exercise of the direct taxing power. The report as we find it in the *Congressional Record* leaves no doubt that he referred to the former method. He said:

"My impression is, that in any bill reported to the Senate in respect to the collection of the revenue, there will be provisions offered seeking, if possible, to prevent the evils which unquestionably grow out of these combinations and trusts, especially by corporations. The difficulty, however, is, that many of these combinations and trusts—some of the most dangerous of them, like the Standard Oil Company—grow out of matters as to which there is no tax, and *where they do not grow out of the revenue laws.* Whether in such cases we can reach the combinations and trusts which affect every citizen of the United States, I do not know; but it is certain that where these combinations grow out of revenue laws, as the Sugar Trust, which is one of the most dangerous and wrongful Trusts ever organized in this country, the Trust can certainly be reached by the operation of our revenue laws."

The plain statement is, that some trusts do grow out of the revenue laws, and that these are to be checkmated, if at all, by modifications of the tariff. Yet the Greatest Living Statesman thinks that all the trusts are private affairs, "with which neither President Cleveland nor any private citizen has any particular right to interfere."

Mr. Blaine stated, in his speech of Friday, August 10, that the deposits in all the savings banks of Great Britain were less than in the single State of Massachusetts. In the year 1887 the amount of deposits in the savings banks of Massachusetts was $291,197,900. In Great Britain there are three classes of depositories for the savings of the frugal and industrious, which fulfil the same function as the savings banks of the United States, and the deposits or contributions to which proceed from the same source, and are in every respect similar in character. These are the savings banks under the management, as in the United States, of trustees; the Post-office Savings Banks, under the management of the Government; and the "Building" and "Friendly" Societies, also under the close supervision of the Government, and whose several liabilities and assets are returned annually under the designation of "shares," "deposits," and "profits." The official returns of the condition of the "Trustee" and "Post-office" Savings Banks for 1886 and of the "Building" and "Friendly" Societies for 1885 are as follows, the £ sterling being reckoned at $4.86.6, its real value:

Trustee Savings Banks.		
Capital (deposits).	£46,843,995	
Interest credited.	1,231,556	
Government stock held for depositors.....	810,128	
Total.....	£48,885,679=	$237,877,669
Post-office Savings Banks.		
Capital.....	£50,874,337	
Government st'ks held for depositors.....	2,896,941	
	£53,771,278=	261,671,038
Total savings-bank deposits in Great Britain in 1886.....		$499,548,707
Friendly and Building Societies of Great Britain.		
Value of shares, deposits not represented by shares, and balance of unappropriated profits for 1885....	£52,812,281=	256,984,559
Total.....		$756,533,266

It thus appears that, restricting the comparison to savings banks alone, Mr. Blaine's statement had not the slightest foundation in truth, and that the depositors of the Massachusetts savings banks lacked $208,350,807 to put them on an equality with those of Great Britain, and that, counting in the value of the accumulations of the Friendly and Building Societies of Great Britain, which represent as truly and accurately the savings of the British masses as do the deposits of the savings banks, his statement contained an error of exactly $465,335,366; and that instead of the deposits of the savings banks of Massachusetts being in excess of the aggregate deposits of the United Kingdom, the masses of Great Britain have in fact about $2.59 on deposit for every $1 on deposit in Massachusetts.

There is another point of interest in connection with this matter which is well worthy the attention of those who consider Mr. Blaine a supreme authority on all points of economy and finance, and who are fond of parading contrasts between the pauper laborers of Great Britain and the workmen of the United States, who, under our high and unnecessary system of taxation, are supposed to be rolling in affluence. The aggregate deposits in the savings banks of the United States, according to the report of the Comptroller of the Currency for 1887, amount to $1,157,867,843. This, divided among our estimated population for that year of 62,000,000, would give an average of $18.66 per head. The aggregate deposits in the public savings institutions of Great Britain for 1885-6 were $756,533,266. This, divided among the population of the United Kingdom for 1886, namely, 37,000,000, would give an average of $20.97 per capita. It is, therefore, clear that any comparison of the savings-bank statistics of the United States and Great Britain will not help the high-taxation policy quite as much as Mr. Blaine expected.

If the Greatest Living Statesman had consulted Mr. Fred. E. Richards, Bank Examiner of the State of Maine, he would never have said a word on the condition of either general business or of savings institutions. There is no better test of the prosperity of a New England State than the amount of deposits in its savings banks. In Maine, reports are made semi-annually, May 1 and November 1. That for May 1, 1887, covers a period mostly included in "the year 1887," which Mr. Blaine confesses was "prosperous." The gain in deposits during that period was as follows:

Deposits November 1, 1886.....	$37,215,071
Deposits May 1, 1887.....	38,247,470
Gain.....	$1,032,399

The report for May 1, 1888, covers six months, of which five followed the date when "the President proposed a radical change in the industrial system which had produced that prosperity, and since that day there has been reversal and confusion in the commerce and manufactures of the United States"; and the gain in deposits during this period was as follows:

Deposits, November 1, 1887.....	$38,819,643
Deposits, May 1, 1888.....	39,871,969
Gain.....	$1,052,326

In other words, the savings banks of Maine—which amounts to the same thing as saying the people of Maine—have actually been

more prosperous since the President sent in his "free-trade message" than they were a year ago!

Now that the Greatest Living Statesman is indulging in prophecy, and predicting that, if the Democrats carry the Presidential election of 1888, the factories, "if kept open, will be run at half the present wages," it is interesting to recall his prophecy as to the effect of the Presidential election of four years ago, uttered in his Augusta speech of November 18, 1884:

"With the Southern Democracy triumphant in their States and in the nation, the negro will be compelled to work for just such wages as the whites may decree—wages which will amount, as did the supplies of the slaves, to a bare subsistence, equal in cash, perhaps, to 35 cents per day, if averaged over the entire South. The white laborer of the North will soon feel the destructive effect of this upon his own wages. The Republicans have clearly seen, from the earliest days of reconstruction, that wages in the South must be raised to a just recompense of the laborer, or the wages in the North ruinously lowered, and the party have steadily worked for the former result. The reverse influence will now be set in motion, and that condition of affairs produced which, years ago, Mr. Lincoln warned the free laboring men of the North will prove bostile to their independence, and will inevitably lead to a ruinous reduction of wages."

Three years have passed since this triumph of the Democracy. So far from any of these predictions having been verified, the whole negro press at the South is celebrating the unprecedented progress made by the race in the acquisition of property during the past three years; while at the North the whole Republican argument, as urged by all the authorities from Mr. Blaine down, is that the wages of the white laborer were never so high as they are now—but that if the Democrats carry the election this year, they will be cut down one-half.

There is a general impression that business must inevitably suffer in a Presidential year. That there have been Presidential campaigns in which this was the case is generally admitted. Nor is it strange that this should have been so, for half the people in the country were long told by their political leaders that the country would go to ruin if the other party should come into power. This "scare" argument has now been conclusively answered, and no longer carries any weight. Its removal is undoubtedly one element in the present prosperous condition and outlook, which were thus set forth by the leading Republican organ of the country on Monday morning:

"The changes developed last week relating to the general conditions and prospects of commercial and mercantile communities were of a favorable character. An increased activity in general movements was reported from all quarters. The bank exchanges for last week in New York were $38,000,000 greater than for the corresponding week of last year, although the stock transactions were smaller than in the week of last year. This reflects a much greater activity in the general business of the city. There is material improvement in the condition of the iron trade, which has warranted a blowing in of numerous furnaces which for a long time have been out of blast. The coal trade never was more active, or met with a more urgent demand, than at present. The distribution of dry goods is unusually large for so early in the season, and merchants from all parts of the country speak confidently of a prosperous autumn trade. Notwithstanding unfavorable reports concerning the cereal crops, seemingly manufactured for uses at the Stock Exchange, the prospects for a fair crop of spring wheat were never better, and nothing less than a national calamity can prevent the greatest crop of corn the country has ever grown. The conditions abroad continue to indicate a large foreign demand for these crops."

Gen. Harrison had better stick to schools, home, and other such "safe" topics. He made a terrible blunder on Friday when he said: "There is not a Republican voting precinct where any man, whatever may have been his relation to the flag during the war, may not freely exercise his right to vote. There is not one such precinct where the right of a Confederate soldier freely to cast the ballot of his choice would not be defended by the Union veterans of the war." The truth is, that there is one Republican State in not one voting precinct of which can "a Confederate soldier cast the ballot of his choice," except after making humble appeal to the Legislature, and securing the passage of a special act giving him the right to vote. The Constitution of Kansas contains the following section:

"WHO NOT QUALIFIED.—Section 2. No person under guardianship, *non compos mentis*, or insane; no person convicted of felony, unless restored to civil rights; no person who has been dishonorably discharged from the service of the United States, unless reinstated; no person guilty of defrauding the Government of the United States, or any of the States thereof; no person guilty of giving or receiving a bribe, or offering to give or receive a bribe; *and no person who has ever voluntarily aided or abetted in the attempted overthrow of said Government*, except all persons who have been honorably discharged from the military service of the United States since the first day of April, A. D. 1861, provided that they have served one year or more therein, shall be qualified to vote or hold office in this State until such disability shall be removed by a law passed by a vote of two-thirds of all the members of both branches of the Legislature."

The Kansas Legislature meets only once in two years. The last session adjourned on the 5th of March, 1887, and the next will not open until January 8, 1889. No Confederate soldier who has settled in Kansas since March, 1887, can vote in November, 1888. If Senator Riddleberger of Virginia, whose vote gives the Republicans a majority in the Senate, or Judge Key, who presides over a Federal District Court in Tennessee by the appointment of a Republican President, were to resign to-day and make his home in Kansas, he would be disfranchised.

It is understood that one of the chief reasons for the disclosure of Senator Plumb's authorship of the famous quotation in the Foster "fat" circular was the disgust of Senator Edmunds at having his name associated with so egregious a blunder. Mr. Edmunds's feeling is said to have been heightened by the fact that the Mugwump editors did not know, without telling, that he "had more sense than to have written such stuff." The warmth of the Senator is natural, but we think that the mistake of the Mugwump editors was natural also. The letter told the truth about the tariff with uncommon precision and force, and the Mugwump editors have been aware for a long time that Mr. Edmunds's private correspondence was noted for just those qualities. The Vermont Senator can hardly have forgotten a certain private letter, written eight years ago, in which he described so picturesquely the rising, "musket in hand," of the Greatest Living Statesman from "behind Jay Gould's breastworks." The truth of that description was amply verified the other day, when the same Statesman showed that the same "musket" is still loaded in defence of the trusts which have been an outgrowth of the corporations since the "musket," was first shouldered in their defence. Surely the man who pointed out with such happy exactness the location of the "musket," might readily have been expected to say that "the manufacturers get practically the sole benefit" of the tariff. But what Mr. Edmunds loses in this case Mr. Plumb gains. The latter is now perceived to have powers as a letter-writer at least equal to those of his colleague, Ingalls, whose discovery that there was not one real leader among all the candidates before the Chicago Convention, and whose identification of the greatest statesman of New Jersey as "some fellow like Phelps," placed him at once in the front rank of letter-writers, ancient or modern.

That "cyclone of fear" which Chauncey Depew said last June was the only hope for the Republicans, is not sweeping the workingmen into the high-tariff party quite as fast as was expected. The Michigan State Assembly of Knights of Labor held its annual session at Detroit the other day. Circulars had been sent out requesting an expression of views on the tariff. Replies were received from 44 local assemblies, of which 8 favored absolute free trade, and 29 tariff reform as proposed by the Democratic party, while only 7 expressed any degree of favor for the present tariff. Mr. Depew, by the way, has been tendered a reception by his friends and admirers on his forthcoming return from Europe, and we shall be interested to see if it is equal in brilliancy to that which was offered to the Plumed Knight. No reception, brilliant or otherwise, has yet been tendered to Gen. Harrison in this city, and we see no way for him to get one except by taking an ocean voyage. It might be well for him to act on this suggestion, and go to Europe instead of going fishing. The National Republican Committee could doubtless get a passage for him at reduced rates, and he could return immediately on the same steamer which took him over. A reception in the harbor could then be organized, and he could thus be formally recognized as one of the leaders of his party. He might in this way work his name into the editorial columns of the New York *Tribune*.

Mr. Breckinridge of Arkansas has emphasized the issues of the present campaign by introducing five bills to repeal or reduce the duties on articles monopolized by trusts. In order to satisfy everybody, he has included the Standard Oil, the Cotton-Seed Oil, and

the Whiskey Trusts in the scope of his measure, treating them all alike. So far so so good. But there are about forty of these Trusts and Combines now "running" the United States of America, all of which equally need the medicine that Mr. Breckinridge offers to the Sugar Trust, the Bagging Trust, etc. Let us have bills for all of them, and let us have votes on the bills. It should be observed that Mr. Breckinridge leaves a modicum of protection for the Sugar Trust that would have been considered sufficient for all purposes at any former period of our history, and would be so considered now but for the plank in the Chicago platform which forbids *any* reduction of protective duties whatever.

It has been discovered in Washington by some intricate process that, although the official estimates of appropriations for the fiscal year 1889, including the sinking fund, were only $326,530,793, the actual appropriations are or will be $428,269,520. For the fiscal year 1888 the actual expenditures were $316,817,785. According to this showing, the cost of carrying on the Government has increased more than $100,000,000 in one year. This, if true, is the most alarming result of the surplus revenue that could be imagined, since it betokens an irresistible impulse towards extravagance and waste of the taxpayers' money. Better, far better, a financial panic, with its sobering lessons, than a system whose central idea and governing motive is to make the national expenditure equal to the national income. It is noted in connection with this sudden swelling of the expense account that several Republican Senators think that no tariff bill is necessary, since the surplus for the coming year will be only $12,294,213. What were these wise men thinking about when they met at Mr. Evarts's house and resolved to report and pass a bill to reduce the revenue? Did they not then know that the appropriations would swallow up the whole of it, or could be made to do so by a vigorous effort?

Mr. Powderly and Mr. George are discussing the subject of restricting immigration. Mr. Powderly, in the *North American Review*, protests against having "the surplus population of Europe transported to this country," and complains of people, like the Italians, Hungarians, and Poles, who, he says, are crowded together and live meanly; do not wash themselves enough; have "dining-room, smoking-room, sitting-room, kitchen, and bed-chamber all in one"; work cheaply, and send their money home; fill almshouses and prisons; and cannot understand our institutions nor appreciate our liberty, but are naturally serfs. Mr. George retorts in the *Standard* that Mr. Powderly is himself the son of an Irishman, and that precisely the same charges which he now brings against the Italians, Hungarians, and Poles were brought against the Irish a generation ago, as everybody who has reached middle life well remembers.

Gov. Hill said, in his interesting statement about his two personal campaign notes, for $15,000:

> "Near the close of the campaign of 1885 the Democratic State Committee were short of funds, and appealed to me to aid them. I consented to lend them my credit, and, together with Judge Alton B. Parker and Judge W. L. Muller, the Chairman and Secretary of the Executive Committee, I signed a note with them as joint makers for $5,000, which Mr. John Keenan of New York, also a member of the State Committee and a prominent County Democracy man, then of excellent reputation, cashed for the Committee, which received and used the avails in the canvass. I also, upon a like request, signed another note for $10,000, which was endorsed by my friend, Judge Muller, the Secretary, and also (as I subsequently learned) by Mr. John O'Brien, the Chairman of the State Committee."

He did not explain that neither Parker nor Muller had the title of "Judge" at that time, nor did he state that it was he himself who gave them the title. It is a fact, however, that he appointed Mr. Parker a Justice of the Supreme Court for the Third District of New York and Mr. Muller Judge of the Court of Claims, after their friendly conduct in endorsing his note. It is also a fact that on May 17, 1886, four days after he signed the aqueduct "deal" bill, he appointed O'Brien (who paid the $10,000 note out of the $30,000 which had been taken from the city treasury unjustifiably on the contract for Section 12), Receiver for the Broadway Railway. O'Brien was at that time both Chairman of the Democratic State Committee and chief aqueduct contractor. The Governor rewarded him more handsomely than he did Messrs. Parker and Muller, but then O'Brien had done more. In all cases the reward came out of the public service.

A cablegram from London says that M. Goblet has instructed the French representative in the Sugar Bounties Conference not to sign the agreement unless the United States Government signs it also. This decision on the part of France is looked upon as fatal to any agreement, but we do not see why it should be so. We were not aware that any attempt had been made to bring this country into the conference, but if such an attempt has been made, it was quite reasonable. The United States has the power commercially to bring the conference agreement to naught at any time. She can pour bounty sugar enough into the London market to bankrupt every foreign refinery that depends upon that market. It is believed that the drawback system that prevailed before the present Administration came in, did amount to a bounty on the export of sugar. There is no guarantee, so far as foreign Governments are concerned, that the drawback may not be increased at any moment. Therefore, France is quite justified in the condition which she annexes to her own signing of the agreement. We see no reason why we should not sign it also. We can see many reasons why our sugar-refiners should be willing to have it signed, for sooner or later our sugar duties will be repealed, and then they will be brought into competition with France and Germany. If the duties should be repealed in a gust of passion, as the duty on quinine was a few years ago, Congress would make no account of foreign bounties, any more than it made account of the duty on the raw material of quinine. It is, therefore, for the interest of the Sugar Trust to have export bounties abolished all over the world as speedily as possible.

Had an enthusiastic advocate of union between the different churches of Christendom prophesied, only twenty-five years ago, that a time was not far distant when an English society, composed mainly of Dissenters and Quakers, should be convened to hear an address from a foreign Roman Catholic prelate, and that a resolution in response to that address, moved by the head of the English branch of that church, and seconded by a Bishop of the English Church, should be carried unanimously, he would have been laughed to scorn. Yet all this happened in London on July 31, when Cardinal Lavigerie (Archbishop of Algiers and Carthage) addressed the British and Foreign Anti-Slavery Society on the African slave trade. The Cardinal, who has undertaken to preach a crusade against this desolating traffic in every capital in Europe, presented no new facts, but confined himself almost wholly to a description of the methods of the Arab slavers and the sufferings of their wretched victims. As a companion picture to Prof. Drummond's statement that there are districts in Africa "where *three* natives cannot be sent a message in case two should combine and sell the third before they return," may be put this drawn by the Cardinal: "Every woman, every child, that strays ten minutes away from their village [in the vicinity of the great lakes] has no certainty of ever returning to it." Cardinal Manning moved the first resolution, "urging the governments of Europe to bring the pressure of public opinion to bear upon the rulers of all countries where slavery exists," which was seconded by Bishop Smythies of the Universities Mission to Central Africa. A resolution of similar purport was moved by the Rev. H. Waller, Dr. Livingstone's editor, and seconded by Lieut. Cameron.

A cable despatch to the *Sun* says: "Providence seems decided to watch over the grand old engineer De Lesseps—that is to say, if Providence may be imagined to take an interest in the game of chance in Panama. In the lottery the two first numbers drawn were found to be on shares unplaced, so that the biggest prizes of £20,000 and £4,000 respectively will not have to be paid." This is a two-edged sword. The company's 780,000 bonds, and the syndicate's 420,000, will not find a market very readily if they take most of the important prizes. Of course, their chances outweigh those of all the other holders of these bonds, by any calculation. A public suspicion that the control of the lottery machinery is a dangerous temptation to a needy concern, will render the bonds utterly unsalable. M. de Lesseps, in his annual report, said that the work could not go on unless they were sold. They are advertised for sale wherever the company has an agency. A kinder dispensation would have allotted the capital prize to the *Petit Journal* or *Figaro*. That would have given an impetus to the sale of bonds which would have far exceeded in value the prizes the company has drawn.

MR. BLAINE ON "TRUSTS."

THE National Republican Committee's doubts about the advisability of putting Mr. Blaine on the stump in the West are not likely to be quieted by his remarkable views on "trusts," as set forth in his Portland speech on Wednesday week. We quote the passage:

"When President Cleveland delivered his message, he had something to say to the American people about the danger of 'trusts.' I think there have since been no Democratic papers in the country, whether they understood the meaning of the word or not, that have not been constantly warning the people as to the horrible danger of 'trusts.' Well, I shall not discuss trusts this afternoon. I shall not venture to say that they are altogether advantageous or disadvantageous. *They are largely private affairs, with which neither President Cleveland nor any private citizen has any particular right to interfere.*"

Mr. Blaine went on to say that, aside from this point, he desired to impress upon his hearers the fact that trusts were not the outgrowth of the protective system, because England, under a system of free trade, was "literally plastered all over with trusts." As proof of this, he cited an article which he had found in a London newspaper, announcing that all the manufacturers of coffins and all the undertakers of the United Kingdom had formed a trust with $2,000,000 capital.

We will not dwell upon the question whether the proof which Mr. Blaine cites in support of his assertion that England is "literally plastered all over with trusts," is adequate or not. If it be accepted as adequate, it puts Mr. Blaine in the position of maintaining that free-trade trusts are no more objectionable than protection trusts, and strengthens his main contention that trusts "are largely private affairs, with which neither President Cleveland nor any private citizen has any particular right to interfere." This is a very different view from that taken by the Republican platform, upon which Harrison and Morton are standing; but as Harrison himself declares Mr. Blaine to be a "matchless defender of Republican principles," it may have to be taken as orthodox during the campaign. The platform says:

"We declare our opposition to all combinations of capital organized in trusts or otherwise, to control arbitrarily the condition of trade among our citizens, and we commend to Congress and the State Legislatures, in their respective jurisdictions, such legislation as will prevent the execution of *all schemes to oppress the people by undue charges on their supplies, or by unjust rates for the transportation of their products to market.*"

It is nobody's business, in Mr. Blaine's opinion, if the people are "oppressed by undue charges on their supplies"; that is the "private affair" of the enterprising capitalists who organize the trust which decrees the "unjust charges." Of course, then, Congress and the State Legislatures have no business to meddle with it, and the Republican national platform commits an impertinence by directing them to do so. There is nothing to do, in Mr. Blaine's opinion, but to let trusts alone; for, after citing his proof of the coffin trust in England, he says: "Now I think, my friends, that we might safely bury all the President's predictions of evil from trusts in this country in the graves in which those coffins are about to go." Of course, the denunciation in the Republican platform will have to be buried there also. The party must either follow its greatest leader, or part with him.

Nobody will deny that if Mr. Blaine knew that the Republican platform contained a denunciation of trusts, as "schemes to oppress the people by undue charges on their supplies," he must also have known that, in coming to the defence of trusts, and in ridiculing President Cleveland and the Democratic press for opposing them, he was injuring his own party and its chances in the election. Yet there is direct evidence that he had read the platform carefully. It will be remembered that the platform was adopted several days before the nominations were made. It was cabled in full to the London press on June 21; and on June 22, the correspondent of the *World*, who was on very friendly terms with the Carnegie coaching party, sent an account of the day's proceedings in which he said:

"Mr. Carnegie carries a copy of the Republican platform as adopted in Chicago, and cherishes it with tender regard. 'What do I think of it?' he said. 'Why, it is the finest platform that was ever constructed. When *we* [Carnegie and Blaine] read it over again last night at Jedburgh, *we* came to the conclusion that there was not even a single particle that we would wish to have altered.'"

If Mr. Blaine went over the platform so carefully then with Mr. Carnegie, it is scarcely possible that the plank denouncing trusts escaped his eye; but if it did, how could he have failed to have his attention directed to it when he read the New York *Tribune's* comments on the platform?—for, of course, he must have read them. In its headline over the text of the platform, in its issue of June 22, the *Tribune* called especial attention to the fact that trusts were "condemned," and editorially, on the same date, it said:

"It is a grand platform, because it utters plainly the hostility of the Republican party to *those Trusts and combinations by which the best fruits of the protective system are in some cases denied to consumers.*"

What explanation, then, can be given of the Portland speech? Mr. Blaine spoke deliberately, and revised the report carefully before giving it to the press. He is too sharp a politician not to have calculated the effect of his words. Taken in connection with the extraordinary conduct of his friends in the press since Harrison's nomination, and in connection with the personal ovation which has been given him by his followers here and in other cities since his return, to the complete obliteration of Harrison, his deliverance makes but one impression, namely, that he and his friends have no love for the Chicago platform or its candidates, and are determined to defeat them. No more deadly thrust at the Republican or any other candidate could be aimed, at this time, than to make him the champion and defender of the oppressive and hated trusts. When Mr. Blaine did that service for Harrison, he put the "knife" deep into his vitals. The party must henceforth either pull with Blaine and Trusts against Harrison and his platform, or it must repudiate Blaine and Trusts and thus split itself in twain. The "aut Blaine aut nullus" policy is in full operation.

ENGLISH FOREIGN MAILS.

THE only respect in which England will not have to serve the protectionist orator, until November, as a fearful example, is in her policy of liberal payment for carrying her foreign mails. Both those, like Mr. H. K. Thurber who fear the word "subsidy," and those, like Gen. Harrison, who have lost all fear of that term, are agreed that the thing for us to do is to imitate the English plan. Exactly what that plan is, and why it was adopted, they are not careful to state. Indeed, it is to be feared, from their vague statements, that they do not know. For the sake of their good faith, it is to be hoped that they do not, and that some of their positive assertions are made in ignorance. At any rate, it is worth while to set forth the facts and their explanation once more.

It is unquestioned that England expends large sums on her foreign mail service. From the estimates submitted to Parliament by the Post-office for the year ending March 31, 1887, we find that the following sums were called for, the grouping being by continents:

Europe	$91,000
Africa	58,620
America	1,078,125
Asia	1,799,000
Total	$3,026,745

The cost of the packet service within the United Kingdom, $611,560, is not reckoned in, of course.

It is only since 1860 that the Post-office has had the letting of contracts for carrying foreign mails. Before that date the matter was in the control of the Lords of the Admiralty. Under their management the cost to the country was as much as $5,000,000 yearly, with great incidental favoritism and corruption. As the result of a Parliamentary inquiry, the whole thing was put in charge of the Post-office, in the year named. Business methods were immediately adopted. Competition was open, penalties for non-fulfilment of contract were rigidly exacted, and the consequent economy at once became apparent. No special appropriations are made to cover the cost of the foreign mail service, as it is paid out of the general Post-office surplus, which is about $15,000,000 a year, and steadily increasing. In fact, the whole cost is nearly earned by the postage on the mail matter carried, added to the colonial repayments hereafter to be mentioned. Last year all but $200,000 of the total expense was earned.

Now the subsidy advocates who argue that the sole reason for the enormous growth of English shipping, in the last thirty years, is the obtaining of mail contracts by a few lines, make complete oversight of many things in the situation. England is paying now, as we have shown, only about half as much for this purpose as in the days of sailing vessels. But American sailing vessels more than held their own then. The English "subsidies," which existed then, if ever, did not drive the Americans from the ocean, nor did they have any marked effect in expanding the shipping of England. The man who fixes his eye on mail contracts, and will not see the immensely more potent influence of the change from sails to steam,

and from wood to iron, and of our insane refusal to buy what we cannot build, seizes upon an incidental cause, and lets the main ones go. Where England has one subsidized line, so called, she has a score unsubsidized. For a long time, at the beginning of experiments in steam navigation, it was doubtful if Government aid would not be indispensable. The Inman Line was the first to demonstrate, in 1857, that steamships could be run at a profit. After that, hundreds of other lines were established.

England meets two great needs of her imperial Government by means of her large payments for carrying foreign mails. One is the need of rapid and regular communication with her colonial dependencies. That this is one aim in the establishment of the packet service is seen clearly in the terms of the contracts let. Official despatches are to be carried free. Severe penalties are provided for every hour of delay beyond the advertised schedule of trips, and the schedule is figured to a finer point every year. That this service is largely for the sake of the colonies is seen in the fact that they have to foot a part of the bill. The estimated repayments from the colonies for the year we refer to amounted to no less than $518,800—over one-sixth of the total outlay. These repayments are turned into the exchequer as extra receipts, though really, of course, they diminish the cost of the service by so much.

Another need of the Empire is swift cruisers for use in time of war. The mail steamers supply this. By the terms of the contracts, they can all be taken by the Government on short notice. In the Egyptian campaign of 1882, for example, several of the magnificent Peninsular and Oriental liners were used as transports for troops and stores to help in the subjugation of Arabi.

We are aware that our remarks will seem quite beside the point to the protectionist reader who has been carefully educated to believe that these English payments for carrying the mails are made with main reference to the extension of English trade. It only remains, therefore, to show by a comparison of the payments with the trade how utterly impossible it is that the protectionist theory of the relations of the two should be correct. England's trade with Europe is about two and one-half times her trade with Asia; but she pays to the lines of steamers running to Asian ports about twenty times as much as to lines plying between England and European ports. Moral: There are English colonies in Asia, and none in Europe. But the objection will be made that the cases cited are too far away, and the disparity of distance too great. Take two countries about equally separated from England—the United States and the West Indies. With the former, England's trade is about thirty times what it is with the latter; but the steamers carrying the West Indian mail receive within $35,000 as much as those carrying the mails to the United States, or $465,000, as against $500,000. If any man can say, after comparing these figures, that England's motive in paying generously for the carriage of her ocean mails is not what she says it is, to keep up communication with her colonies and have a naval reserve at her disposal, but to foster trade and crush out competition, he will be able to claim an altogether new ingenuity in making figures lie.

Now, the United States are under no obligation, as a home Government, to keep in touch with colonial dependencies. If we want a naval reserve, it will be better to pay for it and maintain it outright, instead of hiring men to sail over the ocean to nowhere in particular, with nothing in particular to carry as a cargo. It would be simply impossible for our Government to let contracts for the foreign mail in the way observed by the English Post-office. There could be no competition in the bidding with us. This was the special absurdity of the law of March 3, 1885. As Mr. Vilas showed, it provided for competition where as a matter of fact there could be none. Only for a part of the way over two routes was there a possibility of competing companies bidding against each other. We may add that, by a subsequent consolidation, the possibility of competition has been reduced to only one route. The appropriation of $400,000 in 1885 was meant as a gift outright, and so the companies thought, to judge by the way they all hastened to claim their share. The same thing would be true of any appropriation now. Altogether, we think the protectionist orator had better go the whole figure, and maintain that English policy is detestable in every particular, not even excepting her foreign mail service.

THE ECONOMISTS AND THE SENTIMENTALISTS.

In the current number of the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, Mr. F. J. Stimson has undertaken to give us a summary of Ruskin's contributions to Economics. The article is interesting, and is enlivened by numerous quotations of telling passages from Ruskin. If we were called upon to point out a single character which, more than any other, constitutes the difference between Ruskin's discussions of economic subjects and the discussions of the recognized economists, we should say it was that he is continually dealing with ends, and they with means. The operation of causes has always been the subject of their inquiry; the desirability of results is the constant text of his sermons. The former is the legitimate province of science; and, so far as political economy has any claim to the name of science, it is on account of such success, however imperfect, as its students have had in determining the operation of causes in the economic world. All of Ruskin's criticism is rendered worthless—worthless as criticism, however suggestive in other ways—by his apparently total failure to realize the nature of the problems which it has been the business of economists to consider.

The reasons which Ruskin has given for denying that political economy is a science are numerous, but they may be exemplified by a few citations. "It has omitted the study of exactly the most important branch of the business—the study of *spending*." It has not ventured to pronounce judgment on the land question, although it is "the nearest task of our day to discover how far original theft may be justly encountered by reactionary theft, or whether reactionary theft be theft at all." But perhaps most of all he would base his denial on the fact that the economists' discussion of value is confined to exchange value, while the kind of value which Ruskin thinks they ought to have considered is defined thus: "Value is the life-giving power of anything"; by "life" being understood "the happiness and power of the entire human nature, body and soul." All this is much as if one were to say that medicine is no science because it has not undertaken to say what kind of lives are worth living, or to prescribe the degree of sacrifice which is due from the well to the sick.

No charge that has been brought against Ruskin's economic utterances has been more resented by him than the charge of sentimentalism. Like all words that have long played the part of catchwords in great controversies, "sentimentalist" is a title of very vague meaning. Ruskin's ideal of what men ought to be and to do in their economic relations is anything but sentimental, in the sense of weak or effeminate or even unnatural; the underlying reason for the attribution of the name "sentimentalist" to economic writers of Ruskin's stamp is the fact that they propose ends to be attained by human beings, without troubling themselves to consider the means by which human beings can be impelled to action. As one reads 'Unto this Last' or 'Munera Pulveris' from cover to cover, one is amazed to find a writer of such force and a thinker of such insight complaining constantly of the social arrangements of England, laying the blame of them incessantly and with childish petulance upon English economists, and not giving the least intimation of any measure or policy which should have any tendency to alter them. From first to last we have the irresponsible judgments of a sentimentalist—that is, of a man who gives expression to his likes and dislikes, and does not feel called upon to analyze the evils he attacks or to consider the actual operation of the causes which affect them.

Two examples may serve to illustrate this attitude: "I am and always have been," says Ruskin, "an utterly fearless and unscrupulous free-trader. . . . Let other nations, if they like, keep their ports shut. Every wise nation will throw its own open." Having thus given vent to his feelings on the subject of free trade, he seems to be no longer concerned with the matter. He rails at the state of England; her factories, her smoky cities, are an abomination to him; "the tendency of the entire national energy is, therefore, to approximate more and more to the state of a squirrel in a cage, or a turnspit in a wheel, fed by foreign masters with nuts and dog's-meat." The essence of the matter is that free trade pleases him and factories offend him. That the abrogation of the corn laws has a causal connection with the increase of factories, does not seem to disturb his mind at all. Again, on the subject

of population, which occupies the closing pages of 'Unto This Last,' Ruskin says: "In all the ranges of human thought I know none so melancholy as the speculations of political economists on the population question." Ruskin does not mean by this that the speculations are "melancholy" as being erroneous, for in the sentences that follow he subscribes to the crudest and most extreme statement of Malthusian doctrine. As to the facts, they were so "melancholy" to Malthus that he could only find comfort in such features of the situation as gave promise of men's improvement in foresight and prudence; while Ruskin dispels the melancholy of the subject by turning his face away from the facts, and indulging in the contemplation of a "wise population" engaged in "the search for felicity as well as food," by whom "it will be found at last that all lovely things are also necessary—the wild flower by the wayside as well as the tended corn; and the wild birds and creatures of the forest as well as the tended cattle; because man doth not live by bread only, but also by the desert manna—by every wondrous word and unknowable work of God."

It seems to be a necessary accompaniment of this irresponsible frame of mind that sentimentalists should be bereft of all sense of proportion and even of common sanity of judgment when considering the work of scientific students. It is almost incredible that any one should suppose that selfishness and trickery and avarice have been advocated by the economists; but Ruskin does this and more: he continually writes as if these vices had to a great extent been actually created by them. He says "that this which they have called commerce is no commerce at all, but cozening, and that a true merchant differs as much from a merchant according to laws of modern political economy as the hero of the 'Excursion' from *Autolycus*." He speaks of the passion for luxury in furniture and dress being, "for the most part, provoked by economists, as advantageous to commerce"; and, to quote what is at once the most extravagant and the most incomprehensible passage of this kind that we have encountered, he says (in 'Munera Pulveris,' 1871): "Meantime, the theories of 'international values,' as explained by Modern Political Economy, have brought about last year's pillage of France by Germany, and the affectionate relations now existing in consequence between the inhabitants of the right and left banks of the Rhine."

Mr. Stimson urges, reasonably enough, that it is not by the childish and absurd opinions which he occasionally expresses that Ruskin should be judged as an economist. Nor do we judge him by them; but it is evident to us that they are only extravagant specimens of what naturally results from the false notions of economic research which pervade all his writing on that subject, and which are found in sufficient abundance in the works of more scholastic writers in whom the sentimentalist spirit is less apparent. What sober economists have endeavored to do is to gain a deeper insight into the working of the forces which make the economic world what it is, and into the agencies by which the operation of these forces may be modified. Most of the English economists whose work has produced an abiding impression have been men deeply devoted to the welfare of their fellows; some, like Mill, have expressed the profoundest abhorrence of the injustice of existing conditions, and have looked forward hopefully to a better time coming; but all have felt that their task as economists was simply to understand as clearly as possible the causes that determine economic phenomena. It may be that to do this is not to have a lofty mission; but as long as men love the light, there will be found those who will admire the thinkers that have earnestly striven to see without daring to pronounce judgment, however much they may be despised by the prophets who pronounce judgment without patient endeavor to see.

ARCHÆOLOGISTS VS. EXPERTS.

In a recent number of the *Classical Review*, M. Salomon Reinach summarizes the history of his attacks upon the authenticity of the terracotta groups which, during the last eight years, have been offered in the various European markets as "Cymæan," "Myrinæan," "Ephesian," and lately more vaguely described as "Asiatic": and with justifiable pride enumerates his triumphs over many of the leading archæologists who, at first discrediting his opinions, have gradually been won over to his side during a long controversy, the spirit of which has not been wholly scientific. The case is by no means closed yet. There are still a number of authorities eager to maintain the authenticity of the groups in question, as the correspondence in the London *Athenæum* during the month of June shows; but the fact that the directors of the Berlin Museum have been convinced—though, as we imagine, strongly against their will—and that some of the most beautiful terracottas in that and other German museums have been withdrawn from the showcases as modern forgeries, is in itself a victory of no mean importance. We confess that it is not without regret that we see such gems as the famous Charon group, and the Ganymede and the Eagle, among the convicted class, for they ranked with the most beautiful terracottas in any collection; but great is truth, and they have gone where they belong, while we are left to moralize upon the fact that their beauty made them the more deceptive.

With the main issue of the controversy we have little to do. At this distance, and with the very slender opportunities which Americans have at best to examine and handle these objects, as compared with the opportunities of almost every European scholar, it would be idle to sit in judgment upon the arguments of M. Reinach and his opponents; but the discussion contains two lessons which, it seems to us, should be brought home to every American collector, and to every American student of archæology. The first of these is with regard to the danger of purchasing so-called Greek terracottas without the assistance of the very best experts in such matters. The fact that the agents and officers of the great museums of Europe have been repeatedly duped in their purchases, should serve as a serious warning to travellers and amateurs from this country. The forgeries of terracottas nowadays are so clever as to defy everything but the most expert and intimate knowledge of the tricks by which they are produced, and there are, in any part of the world, few disinterested people to whom these tricks are familiar. So perfect is the imitation of all visual evidences of antiquity which has now been attained in this rascally craft, that we might almost say the appearance of an object is no indication whatever of its genuineness; and the Charon group, above alluded to, so skilfully reproduces the spirit and the manner of real Greek art that it was not only purchased by the Berlin Museum at a very large price, but described at length in the *Archäologische Zeitung* by one of the first of German archæologists.

We urge the warning thus strongly because the question is one of great importance to the future knowledge and appreciation of Greek art in this country. The museums which are springing up in all parts of the United States will probably sooner or later be made the receptacles of the countless works of art of all ages which now are pouring into the country year by year. It is well known among unscrupulous dealers that Americans, as a class, are the easiest people in the world to impose upon; and it is certain that a very large proportion of the spurious antiquities sold in Athens, Italy, Paris, London, and elsewhere, find their way to this country. Now if these remain in private hands, it is unfortunate—unfortunate for the possessor, and unfortunate for his friends who admire an object for what it is not. But when these objects appear in museums, as they are constantly doing by gift, loan, sale, or bequest, the misfortune becomes a public one. Unless the authorities of the institution have access to higher expert assistance than is yet obtainable in this country, they are themselves liable to deception; and the imposition, through no fault of theirs, affects the public whom the museum is intended to educate. For their own sakes, therefore, and in the interest of all lovers of ancient art, we cannot too strongly impress upon travellers who are tempted to purchase those charming relics of Greek life, the necessity of consulting some person of acknowledged authority before doing so, and of mistrusting any extraordinary circumstances attending the opportunity to purchase. One of the commonest tricks of the trade is to bury the forgeries in some obscure village in Greece or Italy which is likely to be passed through by travellers, and then excavate them in the presence of an enthusiastic "milord" or American, who is naturally not slow to buy what he has "seen dug up with his own eyes."

The second lesson enforced by this controversy is one which both students and those who make use of their knowledge would do well to take to heart, and that is that an archæologist and an expert are two entirely distinct beings. Their training is different, their knowledge is different, and the two are very rarely combined, in anything like perfection, in the same person. The knowledge of an archæologist is largely theoretic, his training academic. His ambition is to know, down to the minutest point, the characteristics of all the schools and epochs of the branch or branches of art to which he gives his attention. In the matter of terracottas it would be to recognize at a glance the locality and date in which a given figure originated, provided it were genuine, and the artist under whose influence it was created. If the figure displays anachronisms or other anomalies, his suspicion of its authenticity may be aroused, and then he displays one element of the expert; but this is one element of many, and the counterfeiters are no longer caught in this trap as often as they used to be.

On the other hand, the knowledge of the expert must be, first of all, practical. He need know nothing of schools and epochs, archaic

and Hellenistic, may be one and the same to him; but he must know what is really ancient and what is a lie. His training is experience in handling, finding, buying, and, more's the pity, often in forging on his own account. In short, his is the knowledge of the dealer, not the scholar—and the dealer up to all the tricks of his trade. An incident which occurred at Smyrna not many years since is strikingly illustrative of this point. The representative there of a large European museum was offered a fragment of a very beautiful bronze statue by a peasant from the interior of the country. The gentleman, who is an archæologist of great reputation, examined the fragment carefully, tested it by every device he knew and found it satisfactory. Fearing, however, that its remarkable beauty might have upset his judgment, he decided to refer it to the agent of another museum before buying. They went over it carefully together, and after much deliberation decided that there was no reason to doubt its genuineness. To make the matter sure, they determined to take it to an ally of theirs, an ignorant old Jew who kept a small shop in the bazaar, on whose honesty they had good reason to rely. The Jew took the fragment, scanned it critically a moment, rapped on it two or three times, and then handed it back with a reproach to them both for not knowing it for a forgery at first sight. Subsequent experiment showed that he was right.

A few of the great museums of Europe are fortunate in possessing men who are at the same time archæologists and experts of great skill, but they might almost be counted on both hands, and it is only in institutions like those, where the academic knowledge is required at the outset, and where the practical comes from the constant handling of the thousands of objects in the collections and offered to them, that both sides of the man can be developed. In this country, at least for the present, the archæological is the only side that we can hope to see carried to a high degree of perfection, and for this we have the most encouraging indications; but for the other—the expert—knowledge we must rely upon our friends across the ocean until our own collections shall be much larger and much richer in original antiquities.

SHERRYLAND AND CADIZ.

BARCELONA, June 26.

IN going from Seville to Cadiz, tourists have the choice between rail and river. A careless perusal of De Amicis's lively description of his journey down the Guadalquivir might induce one to try the steamboat; but on closer examination it becomes apparent that De Amicis derived less amusement from the river scenery than from a company of Italian comedians who happened to be aboard. Moreover, the well-posted Ford admits that an actual acquaintance with the far-famed Guadalquivir dispels any illusion which the native poets have conjured up: "This 'pellucid river' is in sober reality as dull and dirty as the Thames at Sheerness. The turbid stream slowly eats its way through an alluvial level given up to herds of cattle and aquatic fowls; nothing can be more dreary; white sails occasionally enliven the silent waters, but no villages cheer the desert steppes." At Seville itself nothing appears more uninviting than this narrow, dirty, yellow stream, which both Moors and gypsies united in calling "the great river"—a name which it might have better deserved in the Roman period, when Spain had more forests and this river was navigable as far as Cordova. Under these circumstances, I resolved to follow the implied advice of the practical Englishman rather than that of the imaginative Italian, and took the railway; nor did I regret it, for although there are neither forests nor mountains between Seville and Cadiz, there is more to see that is novel than between any other two Spanish cities.

The immediate surroundings of Seville are green with gardens and vineyards, and olive and orange orchards. But the higher vegetation soon disappears, and the ground becomes level and marshy. Here, then, are bred those huge mosquitoes which pester one so in Seville, and which would win the prize in a musical and knightly contest with their Jersey and Long Island cousins. Still, there is plenty of grass, and every ten minutes may be seen a flock of sheep, or herds of cattle and horses. Here the Andalusian bull grazes peacefully, without dreaming of molesting the poor horses not far away. He is, in fact, ordinarily a harmless enough animal, and often, indeed, has to be tormented with sharp sticks and acids before he gets up enough ferocity to go into the ring in becoming style. I could not help thinking that these animals must suffer from the fierce sun and the sultry evaporations from the marshy soils on summer afternoons. As far as the eye can reach there is not a tree, nor even a brush to afford any shade. I now began to understand why the peasants, in coming to Seville or resting anywhere, take no pains to put their donkeys in the shade, but leave them in the broiling sun. It seemed cruel, but those animals, bred in the treeless plains, obviously don't know what shade is, and might possibly shy at it the first time! Some of them, however, might have come near one of those wooden boxes, ten feet high and five or six in width, which are the homes of the solitary men placed along the line of the railway at intervals. No fences are to be seen anywhere, but a hedge of cactus follows the road on both sides, its object being apparently to prevent the cattle from getting on the track. These hedgerows of prickly pear, with their yellow flowers, make lovely fences, nor do they, like other fences, need any spikes and broken glass on the top to prevent small boys from climbing over them. They are quite able to take care of themselves.

For miles and miles these are the only scenic features, excepting an occasional straw hut, a pool of stagnant water, or a wheat field which would seem big to one who had never been in our Western States. When the train stopped at the first station, everybody rushed to the windows, attracted by an extraordinary chaos of vociferation. I thought an accident had happened, but the mystery was soon explained. Our train was filled with soldiers returning home, and at every stopping-place the relatives had assembled to receive them. To judge by the truly Southern warmth of the receptions, they must have been absent a long time, for the mothers actually shrieked with delight. Other nations may be equally affectionate, but certainly they give no such evidence of it in public as these Spanish villagers and peasants did. Fathers, mothers, sisters, cousins, aunts, and sweethearts fairly fought for the soldiers as soon as they had stepped off the cars, and almost tore their uniforms from their bodies in their eagerness to get the first kiss and the first embrace. Finally, as the train moved away, they were seen dragging their hero homeward, the father's arm round the neck, the mother's round the waist, and the younger women carrying off his baggage triumphantly. The same scenes were enacted at the other stations, and I thus had an opportunity of seeing these country people such as one ordinarily gets only at the religious festivals.

As we approached Jerez, the home of the wine whose name the English have corrupted into Sherry because that is easier to pronounce than *Häreth*, the landscape, by a curious coincidence, became somewhat rolling, as in England, though without England's chief ornament—a treeless England. The vineyards immediately about Jerez are, however, flat, and I was told that the vines need no irrigation. I stopped over between two trains in order to see one or two of the famous bodegas, which are the only remarkable sights in this city of almost 60,000 inhabitants, many of whom are English or semi-English. The extraordinary ignorance of the ordinary Spaniard may be inferred from the fact that I had to ask three persons before I succeeded in being directed to the largest of these wine-firms—the industry to which Jerez owes its name and prosperity! In this establishment 700 workmen are employed at some seasons, everything being made on the premises, including the barrels. The wood for these barrels, however, has to be imported from America. Spain has only a quarter as much forest as Prussia, and less than half as much as Italy or France, and this scarcity of wood has for a long time seriously injured the ordinary Spanish wine trade, for the smaller wine-growers, being unable to purchase expensive casks, have been obliged to keep their wine in pig-skins, which, with the pitch that is used to stop up cracks, gives it such a disagreeable flavor that although the wine is intrinsically good—especially the Val de Peñas—one can hardly drink it until one has become reconciled to that gastronomic dissonance.

The danger of writing on a subject concerning which one is ignorant is illustrated by the remark in Mr. E. E. Hale's 'Seven Spanish Cities,' that "the guide-books and other superficial critics say that if more care were taken, the rough Spanish *vin du pays* might be much better than it is. But for me, I take such criticisms with a good deal of caution. I think the people on the ground are apt to understand their own business better than travellers do." But the *fact* is that they do *not*, as a rule, understand their business, although lately some of the larger growers have followed the example of foreigners who came and made excellent wines in Spain, by excluding unripe and inferior berries and tabooing the pig-skins. The ordinary Spaniard does not object to the pitch flavor of his *vin ordinaire*, simply because his gastronomic taste is not educated. As the famous Spanish novelist Mateo Aleman remarked two centuries and a half ago, these people "eat everything, as it were, with a garlic-tooth. . . . There are but few of them in whom the senses arrive at any perfection. . . . They are like dogs that devour the meat without tasting; or like the ostrich, that can swallow a red-hot horse-shoe." It is the same with olive oil as with wine. An English merchant at Seville told me that Spanish olive oil would be the best in the world if they knew how to make it. As it is, it has, like the ordinary wine, such a disagreeable flavor that most of it is unfit to export, and at the best restaurants in Spain a bottle of French olive oil is kept ostentatiously on the table for fastidious customers. Obviously, education would be wealth to the Spaniards. But they lack not only knowledge but capital and enterprise, and the result is that foreigners are at present invading Spain *en masse*, and working the rich mines in the mountains and the olive groves and vineyards.

To return for a moment to sherry—*that* wine does not suffer from slovenly manufacture and pig-skin storage. It has another enemy, more serious even than ignorance, and that is adul-

teration. There has never been a better illustration of the fact that honesty is the best policy—in the long run—than the fate of the sherry industry. Everybody knows what fortunes have been made on sherry wine; but those times seem to be past. Mr. Ingraham, the American Consul at Cadiz, prints in one of his reports the translation of a letter written by the Mayor of Jerez to the Civil Governor of the province of Cadiz. The Mayor complains that the condition of the wine trade in Jerez could not be more deplorable than it is. Capital bears no interest, the vineyards have no value, and the town has become poor. Twenty years ago 80 to 90 francs were paid per hectolitre, now only 13 to 14. The key to the change thus deplored by the Mayor lies in the fact that some firms began to import German alcohol, and to manufacture a vile, cheap compound which has injured the popularity of the wine and limited the sale of genuine sherry, which cannot be sold at any such price. Good sherry is still to be had—I tasted some excellent samples—but there is little market for it. The extent to which the adulteration of Spanish wine is carried on may be inferred from the fact that *twelve million dollars'* worth of German alcohol (made of potatoes and beets) is imported into Spain annually, of which Cadiz alone (the port of Jerez) got $880,000 in 1886! Thus the change from honest sherry to the rank compound of villanous stuffs usually served up under that name has benefited no one but the German distillers. It would seem as if a remedy for this state of affairs might be found.

After leaving Jerez, with its (literally) miles of sherry barrels piled up in rows like cannon balls, the proximity of the seacoast soon makes itself evident in the saline marshes and the breezes redolent of salt water and seaweeds. At Seville one sees at almost every street corner a man or woman with a basket filled with moderately sized lobster-like claws, which are eaten with great avidity by the Spaniards of all classes. And no wonder, for they are excellent—much better than real lobsters, and almost as delicate in flavor as the "Oder Krebse" one gets in Berlin, or the Oregon crawfish. I often wondered what became of the bodies of these *cangrejos*, but could not find anything about them in the guide-books. But everything in its place! In speaking of the salt marshes, just referred to, Ford says: "In these marshes and along the coast breed innumerable small crabs, *cangrejos*, whose fore-claws are delicious and form titbits for the Andalusian ichthyophile. These *bocas de la Isla* are torn off from the living animal, who is then turned adrift that the claws may grow again." Here is another opening for a Spanish Henry Bergh. Still, it is a nice question of casuistry whether the *cangrejos* would rather be robbed of their claws only or be killed "outright." It would doubtless be a lingering death, involving more suffering than the tearing out of the claws, and with this sophistry the epicure may ease his conscience.

Presently, a most unique sight meets the eye of the tourist, which makes him imagine he has suddenly arrived in Egypt. As far as the eye can reach, the landscape is picturesquely studded with small, snow-white pyramids. Around each pyramid the ground is divided into square plots, like flower-beds, but dug out and filled with salt water, which is conducted thither by numerous narrow canals. That explains the mystery. The pyramids are solid salt, and the shallow beds are the pans in which the salt water evaporates. The salt crystallizes first along the edges of the pans, and looks very pretty—like a border of fresh-fallen snow. At Cadiz I was informed that ordinarily it takes ten or twelve days for one of these pans to evaporate, but when the African wind called the levanter blows, three or four days suffice. As the dry, blustering levanter is greatly disliked in Cadiz, we have here a literal confirmation of the saying that it is an ill wind that blows no one good. The importance and extent of this salt industry may be inferred from the fact that it supports a whole town of 27,000 souls, San Fernando, ten miles from Cadiz.

And now, on approaching "fair Cadiz, rising o'er the dark blue sea," it is absolutely incumbent on the tourist to take his eye away from the window and turn it inwards—to indulge in historical reminiscences and enjoy the thrills of archaic emotion. For is he not coming to a city which was founded by Hercules himself, eleven hundred years before Christ, and which is therefore half as old as the world itself, according to the Hebrew legends?—a city which supplied the ancient Roman epicures and amusement-seekers with salt-fish and dancing-girls; to which the ancient philosophers resorted to study the curious phenomenon of the tides, and which was long considered the end of the world.

It seems strange that it never occurred to any one—so far as I know—to call Cadiz the Spanish Venice. Like Venice, it lies at sea—seven miles at sea; and had the inhabitants of Cadiz wished it, they might easily have had canals instead of streets, for most of the streets begin and end at the ocean. Coming straight from the ultra-Moorish Seville, with its narrow, winding streets, one finds it strange that the neighboring Cadiz, which also belonged to the Moors more than five hundred years, should have so much wider and straighter streets, and few or no patios or other Moorish characteristics. The explanation lies in the fact that almost the whole town was newly built and laid out after the English bombardment in 1596. Cadiz, being practically on an island, is much cooler than Seville—indeed, many Seville families come here to spend the summer—so that Moorish patios are not essential for comfort, and one might say that their places are taken by the curious *miradores*, or turrets on the tops of the houses, whence the natives can enjoy the sea-breezes and a magnificent view at the same time. The blue of the sky and the sea is no deeper at Cadiz than at Malaga or at Marseilles, and the reason, therefore, why it is always so much emphasized in descriptions of Cadiz is because it obtrudes itself so much more vividly than elsewhere, owing to the entire absence of smoke in the air, and to the glaring white of the houses, which are constantly being whitewashed. It is difficult to understand the motive of this eternal, monotonous whitewashing in Spain. Religious fanaticism probably had something to do with it—the desire to hide and destroy the Moorish ornaments on the buildings. Or else the habit originated in the mistaken notion that because black absorbs the heat of the sun, white ought to afford a grateful relief. No doubt white is cool, but in large masses it is the most dazzling and intolerable of all hues. If snow ever fell in southern Spain, the inhabitants might be able to infer from the phenomenon of snow-blindness that the glare of white houses is very injurious to the eyes; or, if they were better educated, the same conclusion would be forced on them by the remarkable frequency of weakness or diseases of the eye. Foreigners, too, at Cadiz, are very apt to suffer from headache, which can be readily traced to the nerves of the eye. Why not "paint the town"—if not "red," at any rate a sombre blue or green? One never hears of such a thing as "grass-blindness." But perhaps yellow, the complementary color of the circumambient blue, would be the most poetic tint for Cadiz.

It is the custom of tourists to hurry through Cadiz, making it a mere station on their way to Gibraltar or Tangier. From the mere sight-seer's point of view this may be justifiable, for the cathedral is not a remarkable specimen of architecture, and of works of art there is only one that engages the attention of tourists—the last Murillo, in the former convent of San Francisco, in painting which the artist fell from the scaffolding and sustained fatal injuries. It must also be admitted that Cadiz is one of the noisiest cities in Spain at all hours of the day and night except between one and five A. M., the street-criers atoning by their abundance and loudness for the absence of the *sereno's* song, which has been suppressed, notwithstanding the opposition of the lower classes, who have no clocks to tell them the hour of the night. But, aside from these drawbacks, Cadiz is one of the pleasantest places in Spain to spend a week in. It is a very clean city, the beggar nuisance hardly exists, the society is the most cultivated in Spain outside of Madrid and Barcelona, the women the most graceful in Andalusia, and the Alameda, where everybody promenades in the evening, the coolest and the finest in Spain, commanding lovely views of the ocean, which is by no means always as blue as it is painted, but has its zones of dark green and purplish, according to the light. And in a walk along the sea-walls surrounding Cadiz, one meets with many unique sights, such as the large mercantile storehouses, sailors from all parts of the world, including a sprinkling of negroes and Moors, betokening the neighborhood of Africa, troops of soldiers always walking *prestissimo*, and, finally, the numerous fishermen sitting unprotected in the broiling sun, which would be insufferable were it not for the sea breeze. The fish they catch are of the most delicious flavor, especially when one gets them hot at the numerous small fish kitchens opening on the street, where they are fried in large kettles of olive oil. I tried these on the recommendation of the German Consul, who said that, however objectionable the original flavor of Spanish olive oil might be, this flavor entirely disappears after a few dozen fish have been fried in it. It then becomes as clear as water, and the fish fried in it are as crisp and as delicate in flavor as the best *chef* could make them. But that, the Consul added, was about the only thing fit to eat one could get in Cadiz, and as for himself, he chiefly lived on imported canned meats. Almost all the fresh meat is brought from Africa (Tangier), and is by no means of superior quality, while its price is so enhanced by the duty levied on all edibles at the city gates that only the wealthy can afford to eat meat—a chicken, for instance, costing 75 cents in the market.

This tax on the most necessary articles of food, which makes living so much more expensive to all classes (not only in Spain, but in some other European countries), has always seemed to me protectionism gone mad, and made me look upon smugglers as the only upholders of natural law and human rights against tyrannic and idiotic legislation. Sitting on a bench in front of the hotel one day, a man accosted me in a mysterious manner, and offered me a splendid lot of fine cigars at a ridiculous price. Of course he was a smuggler, and I was almost sorry that I don't smoke. The worst of these imposts is that neither the city nor the state derives any considerable benefit from them. Most of the money goes into the private pockets of the officials. Southern Spain is overrun with smugglers, whose trade is the safest one in the world, for they simply share their

plunder with the officials and go scot-free wherever they please. An incident illustrating their methods was told me on good authority. There is an old law according to which a foreign vessel that enters the harbor of Cadiz without having undergone certain formalities of registering at a certain place, can be seized and fined to the amount of ten times the duty that would be levied on the goods. One day a German vessel entered the harbor without having complied with these regulations, through no fault of the captain's, but because the official could not be found. Although the vessel was not bound for Cadiz, but simply stopped there to wait for telegraphic orders before proceeding on its course, it was seized, and the captain was informed that he would have to pay a fine running into the hundred thousand. He appealed to the consul, who immediately went to Madrid, where he found that the officials, from lowest to highest, had already figured out what would be their share of the plunder; and if he had not been backed up by the embassy of his country, and assumed a threatening attitude, his mission would have been a failure.

From time immemorial it has been the custom in Spain for every one, beginning with kings and ecclesiastics, to plunder and cheat subordinates, who in turn could hardly avoid following their example; and thus the thing has gone on from one end of the chain to the other. My own experiences having been entirely of an unofficial nature, my impressions of the Spaniards are almost all of a favorable nature, except in the matter of bull-fights and occasional instances of stupendous ignorance—which the present methods of education are hardly likely to modify; for I am told that even in Cadiz, cultivated by constant contact with foreigners, boys of six and of sixteen years are put into the same classes, studying the same lessons. Yet the kernel of the Spanish people is sound and sweet. I have travelled a good deal, but nowhere have I found well-dressed people so willing to go several blocks out of their way to direct you to a certain street. They constantly do it, however much you may protest. At the popular festivals, again, the most perfect order prevails, and one never sees so much as an angry look. The peasants are extremely polite and good-natured. When I left Seville, a score of peasants waited until a dozen foreigners had bought their tickets, although they were at the window first. I do not think such a thing would happen anywhere else, nor do I believe that, in the same class, one could witness in any other country a little idyllic scene such as I saw one day in Seville. I was sitting in the Alameda, and on the opposite side of the bench sat a nurse with a lovely black-eyed boy of seven years. Presently three ragged boys, a year or two older, came along, one of whom held a rose in his hand. Seeing the boy in the nurse's lap, he approached him, put the rose in his hand, and rejoined his companions, smiling, before the nurse had time to say, "Gracias." Such abundant instances of amiability and innate love of beauty could not be found in a nation which is corrupted in its core.

HENRY T. FINCK.

Correspondence.

POLITICAL COURAGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: An editorial in *Puck* (a journal which has done the cause of reform yeoman service) justifying, while regretting, the President's civil-service reform course, seems to me to mark a departure from the Independent standpoint too decided to remain unnoticed. That the President's course in this matter has been unfortunate, if we entirely ignore his relations to his party, and look only to his full patriotic duty—and to this alone he should have looked—I presume that every Independent would admit; but, placing the matter upon the far lower ground of party expediency, it seems to me equally unfortunate and indefensible. I hold that the history of Mr. Cleveland's Presidency demonstrates beyond question that political courage is not only good statesmanship, but good "politics," in the vulgar sense of that word; and it is so proved, no less by his unequivocal record on the silver, tariff, and pension questions than by his doubtful record on the question of civil-service reform.

(1.) Very shortly after his election, and, I think, before his inauguration, the country was surprised, the Democratic party was dumbfounded, by a letter on the silver question advocating fearlessly views opposed to those held by the large majority of the party leaders. If my memory serves me, Mr. Henry Watterson, in a double-leaded editorial, characterized the step as a dangerous and reckless proceeding, and as calculated to disrupt the party. What has been the outcome? The silver question is fast taking its place with the Southern question and the Greenback question as a dead issue; it has given in the Senate but one spasmodic kick since, and the Great West, the home of the silver "idea," joined clamorously in the cry for the President's renomination.

(2.) A little later, the President is confronted by a pension bill, reported by a Democratic Committee and passed by a large majority in a Democratic House. Without a thought of political expediency, with a certainty of running counter to a large organized body of those directly interested, he vetoed the bill. Then followed the same kind of outcry he had heard before: he had imperilled his chances for renomination; he had imperilled his chances for reëlection. Undaunted, he applied the same unsparing veto to numerous bills for public buildings, etc., every one of which angered some community where votes will be needed in November. What has been the outcome of this? After a few months, his party has caught up with him, and, in National Convention assembled, sustains his action unanimously.

(3.) A third time he had and seized the opportunity to demonstrate a leader's powers. I dare say that, had he submitted his memorable tariff message to a party caucus, and asked an opinion as to the advisability of sending it, a decided majority would have requested him to retain it—at least until after the election. Upon several occasions the Speaker of the House had lost the golden opportunity of proving his statesmanship by rising to the same great occasion. Not so the President. The message was sent; Democratic protectionists and Democratic reformers with a decided predilection for party success alike deplored his rashness; it was the old story—party disruption, a sure election needlessly endangered, a tyro's bravado. And now, finally, what has been the outcome of this? With a bare working majority—a majority far less than that held in either of the two preceding Congresses in which even all consideration of a tariff bill had been defeated—a tariff bill more pronounced in its nature than any yet offered, though still a moderate measure, passes with ease and certainty.

The explanation for this is to be found in the fact that a great unorganized mass will quickly assume definite shape when once it becomes conscious of a purpose. Within large limits, it was the President's privilege and opportunity to develop his party's policy, and, except in one case, he has done his duty manfully. The great mass of his party, originally indifferent, have quickly recognized his leadership, and the so-called party leaders have had to follow. I firmly believe that the President's career shows conclusively that he has frittered away the opportunity to range his party at his back on the question of civil-service reform, as he has ranged it on other questions. I realize the difficulty of procuring competent and honest assistants; I realize that he has done the cause, as it is, substantial service; but I still believe that had his own practice been as emphatic and unmistakable as his utterance, had the early lapses been met with his native vigor, the reform sentiment would have spread with a rapidity exceeding all expectation.

When I say that his fragmentary reform is not only bad statesmanship, but bad "politics," I have in mind especially Indiana. I am told that the State is considered very doubtful. It is a serious thing, if true; and if true, it is due to two causes: first, the alienation of the Independent vote; second, dissatisfaction over the distribution of offices. In the very State where the most astute means were taken to make the result a foregone conclusion, the inevitable weakness of "politics" has been most thoroughly exposed.

Nevertheless, on a review of the entire field, with a full admission of the President's shortcomings and errors—and he has made other errors to which I have not alluded—I still cannot see how any Independent can hesitate as to his duty. The President's personality has been the most healthful influence our public life has felt for years. He has done a service which may be justly compared to that of the Supreme Bench in bringing back our minds to the fundamental principles of the Constitution. In homely rhetoric, but with irresistible clearness and force, he has opened to us paths that have long since been blocked and forgotten. The political atmosphere has been purified in a way that will make Blaine, paternal government, limitless extravagance, bloody shirt, absurd four years hence—if, indeed, the sudden change of base in the Senate on the tariff does not make them partly so already. And, whether the President be reëlected or not, the long run will conclusively prove that, throughout his career, political expediency has uniformly coincided with the highest demands of public duty, and that his strength is due as fully to his fearless attitude on the tariff, the silver, and the pension questions, as his weakness is due to his vacillation on the question of civil-service reform.

F.

LOUISVILLE, KY., August 14, 1888.

A MORAL CONTEST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the course of time political questions are decided by their moral weight. The foundation of national life is morality, and its vitality depends upon the strength of this foundation. Free institutions are of a higher value only for the reason that they allow a freer scope of development to all the nobler moral qualities of man. The greatest danger threatening such institutions springs from sins against the moral law. There is no amount of wealth in this world, there is no protection afforded by political powers, that could guard against ruin a nation whose life-blood was poisoned by corruption. The economic questions that at present

agitate our social and political life are not merely questions of dollars and cents. There is a moral side in them that makes them all-powerful enemies of existing wrongs; it is their moral weight that warrants victory to them and causes waste of life to those who venture futile struggles against them. It is through their moral side that they are intimately linked with the happiness of each individual, with everything that is most dear to us, with the welfare of this nation and all the grand possibilities of its future.

Expressions such as "A reduction of the tariff will ruin the people," really mean nothing. They are convenient bridges for those who cannot swim in the sea of argument. They are used by people who do not think, or else they would not dare to utter such a despicable opinion of the vitality of this nation. They are the greatest *testimonium paupertatis* for those who have the courage to utter them; they are an insult to the pride of the nation. A nation like the United States never will be ruined by the loss of a few dollars. The real issue of the present campaign is not a tariff reduction of either 4½ per cent. or 2 per cent., but it is the same issue to-day that it was yesterday and four years ago: it is the fight for or against corruption. Everything that relates to protection means corruption. The history of the tariff is a history of corruption; the system of taxation on which it is based is a system of corruption, beyond the control of the Government and the people; its result—the surplus—is a continual source of corruption; and its most conspicuous advocate is the very prototype of corruption. No industry, nay, no species of life whatever, can thrive under a protection that is a synonym of corruption.

The present campaign is not merely a contest for less taxation, it is a contest for the purity, the glory, and the liberties of the nation that shall not be thrown as a carrion to a few crows; it is a fight of law and justice against the anarchy of dishonesty; it is the fight of the patriot who would sacrifice everything, his life and his property, to the welfare of this country, against the friend of prostitution, who would sell for money the most precious possessions of humanity.

Who will be the victor? LOUIS KA.

BALTIMORE, August 13, 1888.

PARTY NAMES AND PARTY AIMS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation* of the 9th inst. contained two articles of special interest, which made me wish they could be read and laid to heart by every man who has brains enough to do his own thinking, or who dares to say his soul is his own. I allude to those entitled "Laodicean Politics" and "Campaign Lying."

Every man who has any just conception of his duties and responsibilities as a citizen must be often tempted to lift up his voice against the endless devices of demagogues for influencing the popular vote. But while his indignation is excited by the thought that great masses of people can be swayed by the mere utterance of plausible lies, which would be transparent if men would but take the trouble to think for themselves, yet the obvious fact that they will not do so, but will greedily swallow any garbage their party leaders deal out to them, but refuse to taste of the most wholesome food without their sanction, makes him despair of effecting any good result by addressing them as reasonable beings. He feels, too, that any attempt he may make to set them right by a simple statement of obvious truths, will be attributed to precisely the same spirit of one-sided partisanship which he condemns in others, and he shrinks from the thought of thus demeaning himself.

The blind attachment to a mere party name, without investigation of the objects of its leaders, is productive of more real injury to the cause of just and wise government than any other source of evil. As long as a mere party name has weight in the popular mind, it will be made use of by knaves as a motive power for the accomplishment of their ends. A moment's thought should suffice to convince any one of the truth so ably set forth in the articles alluded to, that a "party" is only to be judged by its avowed policy. If its objects are changed, it is worse than folly to cling to the vehicle which new leaders are dragging to destruction, after working their way into the harness, like Munchausen's wolf, by devouring the horse. And yet there are tens of thousands of men clamoring to-day for measures which the original Republican leaders would abjure, but which those who have assumed their places are hoping to carry through by putting them forward as the policy of the Republican party.

A party is like a wave of the sea. Its power is as irresistible for evil as for good, but every individual drop of the human wave bears a weight of responsibility, born of the God-given power of judgment, which he is bound to exercise, instead of suffering himself to be blindly driven by the tempest of party spirit.

C.

MINNEAPOLIS, August 13, 1888.

MR. BLAINE "COACHING" THE VOTER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Surely no more friendly wish was ever uttered in behalf of the workingmen of the United States than that of Mr. Blaine at the ovation given him in New York upon his return from England. "The campaign on which you are about to enter should be prefaced, if that were possible, by every voter in the United States seeing what I have seen," etc. Mr. Blaine saw one of the most beautiful of countries in the pleasantest of manners. What voter but could wish to pass by easy stages through the green lanes of England to the hills and lakes of Scotland? Then how merrily must the horn of the coachman have sounded as Mr. Blaine and his party wended their way through the Trosachs. The trip down the Caledonian canal, the Trosachs, and the Scottish lakes is, perhaps, the finest of its kind in the world. I would recommend it to the voter as being far finer than the trip up the Rhine. But it is probable that Mr. Blaine had in mind something else than the scenery of the country through which he lately coached with Mr. Carnegie, and that he referred to the industrial conditions of England. Mr. Blaine did not satisfy the curiosity of his hearers in this matter of what he saw, and so I beg leave to supply the want in the language of Thomas Erskine May:

"The fruits of free trade are to be seen in the marvellous development of British industry. England will ever hold in grateful remembrance the names of the foremost promoters of this new policy—of Huskisson, Poulett, Thomson, Hume, Villiers, and Labouchere—of Cobden and Bright—of Peel and Gladstone; but let her not forget that their fruitful statesmanship was quickened by the life of freedom."

That is what Mr. Blaine saw as the result of free trade. Had Mr. Blaine seen England before the advent of the policy of free trade, and while she was still shielded by walls of protection, this (I again prefer Sir Erskine's language) is the scene he would have pictured to his hearers:

"Our former commercial policy was founded on monopolies and artificial protections and encouragements—maintained for the benefit of the few, at the expense of the many. . . . Every produce and manufacture of England was protected, by high duties or prohibitions, against the competition of imported commodities of the like nature. Many exports were encouraged by bounties and drawbacks. Every one sought protection or encouragement for himself—utterly regardless of the welfare of others. The protected interests were favored by the State, while the whole community suffered from prices artificially raised and industry unnaturally disturbed. This selfish and illiberal policy found support in erroneous doctrines of political economy; but its foundation was narrow self-interest."

The policy here described is the one that Mr. Blaine is so anxious to champion. Certainly he is the best-fitted man in the country to set forth the merits of this defunct British policy. Is it a compliment to American workingmen to tell them that the one thing to save them from pauperism is to adopt the very policy that did make of English workingmen paupers? Even a sea voyage is not sufficient to make this policy healthy in America.

Mr. Blaine also said that the wages of the American workingman could not be reduced without his consent. And, pray, why not? If they cannot be reduced without his consent, how is it that the wages of American iron-workers are only about one-half as much in and around Pittsburgh as they are at Chicago? One of two things must follow from such a condition of things. Either the iron-workers of Pittsburgh are paupers or those of Chicago are aristocrats. A student of political economy would explain the difference of wages in Pittsburgh and Chicago by the natural law of supply and demand, but such a student would be reminded that the laws of nature find no place under a protective policy. There is something rotten in Denmark when such conditions arise under a protective tariff of 47 per cent. ad valorem.

Mr. Blaine reminded his hearers not to forget the true issue of this campaign. This is what he said, but in saying it he sought to raise a cry and not to meet an issue. Mr. Cleveland has done the country one of his greatest political services by making a true, live issue for both parties, and Mr. Blaine will also render the country a service if, in his campaigning, he will meet that issue fairly and squarely.

In conclusion I will say that if every voter, even after the campaign is over, can go and see what Mr. Blaine saw before it, he will find it most refreshing and pleasing, and perhaps learn that a protective tariff is not a cure-all.

Y.

CHEAP CLOTHING AGAIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Gen. Harrison's objection to cheap clothing (that it would reduce wages) seems to you hard of comprehension for the reason which you state in the *Nation* of August 9, in an editorial entitled "The New View of Cheapness." This reason, as I understand you, is that clothing has been very much reduced in price during the last twenty-five years and wages not reduced in the same time. But certainly Gen. Harrison would not object to such a reduction of price, for it is due to improved methods of transacting business and to the invention of labor-saving machinery, and does not involve a cheaper man or woman under the clothing.

But the reduction of price which you desire to procure by a reduction of the tariff, and to which Gen. Harrison objects, must be obtained, it seems to me, either by going to a foreign country for clothing, in which case some one

here is thrown out of employment, or by paying a less price here, which means that some one here receives less. In the latter case I should like to ask you who is to receive less if not the laborer? Do not all advocates of free trade for this country desire to purchase various articles (except sugar) for less than they can be produced by American labor as at present rewarded, and therefore do they not wish to either reduce wages or expel industries?

A. H.

BOSTON, August 11, 1888.

[No, kind friend to American industry. It does not follow at all that we should go to foreign countries for clothing, or even for cloth. In order to get cheaper clothing, it is only necessary to get cheaper wool. In point of fact, we import the cloth pretty liberally now. We imported of woollen goods last year (exclusive of carpets) $43,500,000 worth. We should like to see a larger proportion of these goods made at home, as manifestly they might be if the American manufacturer were not handicapped by duties averaging 36.08 per cent. on his raw material.—ED. NATION.]

WHO PAYS THE DUTIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me to call your attention to a paragraph on page 270 of Taswell-Langmead's 'English Constitutional History' (2d ed.), which may be recommended to those interested in the Mills bill. The passage is as follows:

"Four years later, in 1343 (17 Edward III.), the King, being much pressed for money, assembled, with the concurrence of the Lords, a council of merchants, and procured from them, without the assent of the Commons, a grant of forty shillings on every sack of wool that should be exported. It seems to have been contended that this duty did not fall upon the people, but upon the foreign purchaser; but the Commons, in their remonstrance, showed that they possessed some rudimentary knowledge of the principles of political economy, alleging that the tax actually fell on the seller, the foreign merchants refusing to give the accustomed price on account of the additional duty. . . . In 1363, however, upon the petition of the Commons, all grants of subsidies upon wool made by merchants without the consent of Parliament were declared void by statute."

Though this is about an export duty, it shows how many centuries ago it is that the refutation, in the minds of practical men, was made clear of that false argument that foreign merchants pay the taxes we may levy on foreign commerce. But in spite of this lesson to be learned from the Commoners of England in their fight against the unconstitutional action of their King, the same old fallacy is even now at times advanced in favor of those who wish to extend monopolies at the expense of our public. Very respectfully,

OSGOOD SMITH.

AUGUST 15, 1888.

H. H. RICHARDSON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read your article on the late H. H. Richardson with much pleasure, and can, perhaps, add a little to it. In regard to the rebellion which was raised in the École des Beaux-Arts on the appointment of Viollet-le-Duc as lecturer, Mr. Richardson has often told me the circumstance which you mention, that the protest of the students was written in his room; with the additional one, that, although he took no part in the composition of the protest, he went with the other students who carried it to the Tuileries to lay it before the Emperor, and, while looking on at the demonstration, was arrested, with others, and taken to the police-station, where he remained till late at night, when Count Nieuwerkerke, then Minister of Fine Arts, made his appearance and ordered the release of the captives. Although he was for some time the only American in the School of Fine Arts, at least in the section of architecture, and was so completely a Frenchman in all his professional relations that, on leaving the School, he was offered a "marrying position" as one of the most promising of the young French architects, he never forgot his own country, and, during his seven years of student life, always declined to enter the *concours* for the medals and prizes which were open to him, preferring, as he said, to get as great a variety of work in design as possible, as a preparation for American practice, rather than spend six months on a single problem as a competitor for a prize.

As to his work in the School, it seems to be taken for granted by every one who has written about him that, after the first year or two in this country, he abandoned entirely what he had been taught, except, of course, the mental discipline that he had gained, and turned to a new style of design, which he had to evolve mainly out of his inner consciousness. There is a good deal of truth in this view, but it appears to me to be not entirely correct, and to do injustice to the influence of his patron, André, whose peculiarities of style, and even certain pet *motifs*, are frequently suggested in Richardson's work of all periods, although the rendering is very different from that which André would have employed, and the part which his old master had in his inspiration was probably unsuspected by Richardson himself. In fact, André's ideas were so congenial to Richardson's tastes that hardly any one else in Paris could have done so much to favor him. If there was any other man suited to be his teacher, it would have been Henri Labrouste, whose simplicity and originality were as dear to Richardson as the "bigness," the "stuff," the broad contrasts of light and shadow, and the largeness of detail which André impresses on all his best pupils. The cavernous triple portals, the all-embracing arches, the deep and richly decorated voussoirs, in everything, except the details, are André's as well as Richardson's, and belonged to certain Romanesque architects six or seven hundred years before their two modern disciples took pleasure in them.

It is, by the way, a little curious to recall the steps by which Richardson was attracted to the adoption of the Romanesque as a complete style. His first work in this country was classic, the Boston and Albany Railroad office at Springfield being as purely Italian Renaissance as possible. A little later came his commissions for the Medford church, and the two churches at Springfield, which were almost necessarily Gothic. About the same time he had some secular buildings to do, among them a market-house in New York. For this he made a design composed of huge round arches, which might have come direct from André, and the same fondness for the sweep and simplicity of the semicircular arch showed itself wherever he thought it admissible, even as a relieving arch. One day he said to me that he never could quite like pointed arches, even in a church. "They always had a pinched look," he thought, and his Brattle Square Church in Boston, for which he at first sometimes felt himself called upon to apologize, showed the sincerity of his aversion to them, which ripened into a profound and loving study of the Romanesque, and the adoption of it, not only for churches, but secular buildings. The delicacy of his feeling for breadth and silhouette, as well as proportion and color, was surprising in a man so impetuous and enthusiastic. "Don't stick shelves around it," was the common observation by which he quelled our inclination to exuberance in string-courses, and a "tormented" look was that which he disliked most about a building.

I have heard it said that he was very catholic in his tastes, and interested himself in a great variety of subjects. If so, it must have been in his later years. When I knew him, he thought and talked and dreamed nothing but architecture—and his family. Nearly everything was converted in his mind into a possible architectural suggestion. He was once asked to make a design for the organ-case for the Brattle Square Church, and deputed me to study the construction of organs as a source of ideas. The most conspicuous peculiarity about the instrument appeared to me to be the swell-box, which I duly described to Mr. Richardson. "Something that opens and shuts to vary the quantity of sound," he mused. "Why would it not be a good idea," he continued, "to put a gigantic head on the front of the organ-case, with its mouth to open and shut to form the swell?" He was more than half in earnest, and I think was only dissuaded from incorporating some such idea with his design by the consideration of the effect it would produce upon the children in the congregation.

T. M. CLARK.

178 DEVONSHIRE STREET, BOSTON, August 18.

"*SUPPOSITIOUS.*"

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Old as is this word, and often as it has been used, it has not yet, I believe, found a place in any dictionary. Some notion of the frequency with which it occurs in literature may be formed from the ensuing quotations:

"The testimony produced is none of his: It is *suppositious* and a counterfeit." Bp. Richard Mountagu, *Invocation of Saints* (1624), p. 212.

"A *suppositious* fragment, taken out of the Constitutions of Clemens." Abp. John Williams (1636), *Holy Table* (1637), p. 168.

"Dionysius Areopagita, an Author, however, said to be *suppositious*," etc. William Sclater (1652), *Civil Magistracy by Divine Authority* (1653), p. 10.

"Their uselesse, *suppositious*, loose, and illegitimate Directory." Bp. John Gauden, *Considerations*, etc. (1661), p. 6.

"There is no great difficulty in discovering that these Letters were *suppositious*, and not written by Ung-can." Dr. Johnson, *Lobo's Voyage to Abyssinia*, etc. (1735), p. 243.

"If he had intention of adopting a *suppositious* child, he would have fixed upon a boy, rather than a girl." Goldsmith (1769), *History of Rome* (1786), Vol. I., p. 148.

"The vanity of the ancients . . . first led them to the invention of *suppositious* cases." John Lawrence (1797), in the *Monthly Magazine*, Vol. XLVI., p. 112 (1818).

"To come, however, to these *suppositious* epistles (which remind us of 'the genuine correspondence of the celebrated Dr. Solomon')," etc. *Quarterly Review*, Vol. XII., p. 74 (1818).

"A *suppositious* dialogue;" "*suppositious* proofs." Professor H. H. Wilson, *Select Specimens of the Theatre of the Hindus*, Vol. I., pp. 14, 65 (1827).

"They . . . almost always added to their improved editions some *suppositious* pieces which claimed to be written by the original author." "This *suppositious* chronicle forms a kind of philosophy of history," etc. William Taylor, of Norwich, *Historic Survey of German Poetry* (1830), Vol. II., pp. 119, 295. At p. 314 of the same volume, Taylor has *suppositi-tious*.

The word in question is often also found in

the pages of less known authors whom it seems unnecessary to mention.

Suppositítious we took from the Latin *suppositítius* or *suppositícius*, comparable with which are *adscripticius*, *adventicius*, *collaticius*, *collecticius*, *commenticius*, *conducticius*, etc., etc. Such an adjective is based on a supine; and its termination expresses manner of origin. It is singular, therefore, that scholars like Bp. Mountagu and Abp. Williams, for instance, should have elected, instead of *suppositítious*, *suppositious*, which, answering to the factitious *suppositiosus*, from the stem *suppositio[n]-+-osus*, should denote fulness or abundance of what is signified by *suppositio*. Actual adjectives similar to *suppositiosus* are seen in *ambitiosus*, *contentiosus*, *seditiosus*, and *superstitiosus*. This pedagoguery must be pardoned. It is risked in preference to possible obscurity.

Except to import "fraudulently substituted," as, for example, when qualifying *child*, *suppositítious* is hardly authorized by good usage. Mr. Dickens, in his 'Little Dorrit,' 'Great Expectations,' 'Our Mutual Friend,' and elsewhere, makes it equivalent to "supposed," but with dubious warrant, old or recent.

What may be called, for distinction, the Latinistic *to suppose*, akin, in sense, to *suppositítious* and the ineligible *suppositious*, is defined by Dr. Johnson, "to put one thing, by fraud, in the place of another," but is left unexemplified; and his editors, Archdeacon Todd and Dr. Latham, go no further. It is not very unusual, however; nor are the related *supposite* and *supposition* unknown. Proofs here follow:

"Finding his wife Hyperia, that, in like manner, was delivered, but of a dead child, he *supposed* this in the stead." "Your nephew dyed at Sea, and . . . I *supposed* my sonne in his place, who was receiv'd for him; and ever since he has beene bred as if he had beene the true Tygranes." Anon., *Ariana* (1636), pp. 77, 203.

"No *supposed*, false, subintroduced God or Gods." Bp. Richard Mountagu (died 1641), *Acts and Monuments*, etc. (1642), p. 11.

"The Philistines would not suffer the feet of men to tread upon that threshold upon which their but fictitious and *supposed* Deitie had fallen." Rev. William Jenkyn, *The Stil-Destroyer* (1645), p. 23.

"He was then in a place where they understood nothing better than *supposing* of false titles, and never remember any reasons but such as they know will please their Clients." Anon., *The Comical History of Francion* (1655), Books I.-III., p. 62.

"What he brings of the *supposite* and imaginary causes of Paul, Barnabas, and Peter, proves," etc. Rev. Dr. Robert Bailie (1653), *The Disswasive . . . vindicated* (1655), p. 21.

"I beleeve I am not blameable for making this *supposition*" (of my sonne). Anon., *Ariana* (1636), p. 203. See the second quotation from this work, *supra*.

Quotations are added for several more words, equally new to lexicography, derived from *supponere*:

"Hence there can be no difficulty in the meaning of the word *Suppositality*, which is the Abstract of the *Suppositum*." Rev. John Serjeant, *Solid Philosophy* (1697), p. 99. Dr. South, too, has *suppositality*. *Supposital*, which it presumes, I have not met with.

"Whether (in any art or science whatsoever) a bare Hypothesis, or sole *suppositary* argument, may not be gratis, and, with the same facility and authority, be denyed, as it is affirmed." Rev. John Gaule, *The Mag-astro-mancer, or the Magical Astrological Diviner posed and puzzled* (1652), p. 107.

"Witnesse, for instance sake, those queries, whither God be materia prima, and whither Christs divinitie might not *suppositate* a fly." Rev. John Doughty (1627), *A Discourse*, etc. (1628), p. 12.

"Passions, as Actions, are of Persons or *Suppositi*." Dr. Richard Burthogge (1674), *Causa Dei* (1675), p. 55.

Copious beyond the conception of all but very diligent readers was the experimental vocabulary of bygone times. Superficial observers are wont to credit our own age with extraordinary addiction to the misusage of new terms. Yet, as can have escaped no one accustomed to incursions into the dark corners of old libraries, scientific technicalities apart, the seventeenth century was no whit behind the nineteenth in opulence of verbal innovation.—Your obedient servant,

F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, July 28, 1888.

Notes.

A NEW edition, the fourth, of that excellent English handbook, 'Descriptive Astronomy,' will be published next year; and its author, Mr. George F. Chambers of Eastbourne, Sussex, recognizing that a book of such character must necessarily have many general defects, as well as contain a certain number of errors, notifies the astronomical world that he is prepared to welcome suggestions and corrigenda from any and every quarter.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will publish immediately the President's Message in large type, small quarto, with sixteen full-page moral and graphic illustrations from original designs by Thomas Nast. The "Questions of the Day" edition of the President's Message, with annotations by R. R. Bowker, which has been delayed for some important additional material, will be ready about the same time.

G. S. Fellows & Co., New York, announce 'Protection Echoes from the Capitol,' "containing 1,200 aphorisms and leading principles of the protective policy," by Thos. H. McKee; and 'Memory Systems, New and Old,' by A. E. Middleton.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have in press 'An Elementary Treatise on Human Anatomy,' by Prof. Joseph Leidy; 'Inebriety: its Causes, its Results, its Remedy,' by Franklin D. Clum, M.D.; 'Tenure and Toil; or, Rights and Wrongs of Property and Labor,' by John Gibbons; 'Embroidery and Lace,' from the French of Ernest Lefebvre; 'Jesus in Modern Life,' by Algernon S. Logan; 'The Writer's Handbook'; 'A Marriage of Shadows, and Other Poems,' by Margaret Veley; 'Sinfire and Douglas Duane,' by Julian Hawthorne; 'The Owl's Nest,' from the German of E. Marlitt; 'Memoirs of a Royalist,' by M. de Falloux; 'Life of Henry M. Stanley,' by the Rev. H. W. Little; and 'With the Camel Corps up the Nile,' by Count Gleichen.

'The Pillars of Society, and Other Plays,' by Henrik Ibsen, edited by Havelock Ellis, will be the September volume in the "Camelot Series"; 'Poems by Southey,' edited by Sidney R. Thompson, in the "Canterbury Poets"; a 'Life of Bunyan,' by Canon Venables, in the "Great Writers." Thomas Whittaker is the American publisher of these series.

In the making of pretty books England has been rapidly advancing of late, without, however, in any way threatening the preëminence of France. It is as a pretty book that we are inclined to receive Mr. Alfred Pollard's new edition of Sir Philip Sidney's 'Astrophel and Stella' (London: David Stott). The type is well chosen and the page well shaped, albeit a thought too scant for the text; the paper is suitable; there is a frontispiece, and altogether the book reveals that its maker took thought and knew bookmaking to be an art. It is well made, also, in another sense, for the editor has done his work in scholarly fashion, supplying an adequate introduction, many various readings, and ample notes.

Quite in place in the Messrs. Putnam's "Nugget Series" is La Motte Fouqué's 'Undine,' with 'Sintram' contained between the same covers—the first prettily illustrated. The little volume is convenient for the pocket, yet ornamental for the library shelf or table.

The end of Pepys's Diary; Essays and Tales by Addison; Johnson's Lives of Addison, Savage, and Swift; and Plutarch's Lives of Pyrrhus, Camillus, etc., form the most recent additions to "Cassell's National Library."

Several years ago we reviewed Myers's 'Outlines of Ancient History,' commending the author especially for his success in making a readable book by "willingness to omit names and dates which are not essential." He has since published a 'Mediæval and Modern History' marked by the same qualities; and the earlier work is now transferred to the publishers of the later (Boston: Ginn & Co.), and republished in a revised form. In this revision President Myers has associated himself with Prof. W. F. Allen of the University of Wisconsin, who has undertaken the Roman portion, to be issued next year. In the present edition, therefore, the history of Rome appears in its original shape, as a temporary arrangement; this portion being without the maps and illustrations, which are abundantly provided for the revised work. As compared with the original, this revised edition of the Oriental and Greek histories is somewhat enlarged, and, on the whole, improved. The maps, as in the modern history, are mostly taken (by permission) from Freeman's Atlas. The illustrations are well selected, and are genuinely illustrative—a rare thing in American school histories. On the whole, we know no brief account of ancient history so well suited as this to be read by intelligent persons (not young children) who wish to acquire an accurate outline of events and to seize the spirit of the past.

Mr. John S. White's 'Recent Examination Papers for Admission to Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Sheffield Scientific School,' etc. (Boston: Ginn & Co.), speaks for itself as a work of practical utility for teachers of preparatory schools. It ought, however, either to be provided with a table of contents, or to have the several institutions designated by the headlines of the pages.

Prof. D'Ooge's 'Colloquia Latina' (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.) is the result of his own experience in stimulating the interest of beginners in Latin by oral dialogue. The dialogues here devised (or partly borrowed from classic authors) have attractive subjects and a considerable variety, and are capable of being much extended by a skilful teacher. They are quite above the ordinary attempts in this direction, which are apt to be dreary enough.

Mr. W. J. Rolfe and his son, Mr. J. C. Rolfe, have edited with notes Macaulay's 'Lays of Ancient Rome' for parallel reading during the study of Latin (Harpers). A portrait of Macaulay is prefixed, and there are other illustrations, some of which, we venture to think, ought to be retired from general circulation in favor of more recent and authentic representations. The editors dispute Matthew Arnold's judgment of the Lays as poetry, and fortify themselves by reproducing two English and one American counter-judgments. However this may be decided, there can be no doubt that the Lays are good enough poetry for youth, and are capable of being made into an acceptable text-book. Their declamatory quality and easy memorizing insure them a long vogue among schoolboys.

The 'Lessons in English, adapted to the study

of American Classics,' by Sarah E. Husted Lockwood (Boston: Ginn & Co.), we commend to the attention of teachers of high schools and academies, without feeling sure how far the use of it will approve the scheme. It is at least not a dull or forbidding text-book.

We cannot praise highly Mr. William Williams's 'Composition and Rhetoric, by Practice' (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.). Although a teacher might find handy the examples here amassed, the execution as a whole falls far short of being masterly.

Whitney's 'Compendious German Grammar' (Henry Holt & Co.) celebrates its twentieth year by appearing in a sixth edition. The typography is wholly new and greatly improved; and besides the general revision (which, by the way, has not disturbed the order of paragraphs and sections), a fresh set of exercises has been added of a very practical sort. While the new orthography has not been adopted, it has been bracketed throughout.

Some two or three years ago, Mr. H. S. Hall, Master of the Military and Engineering Side, Clifton College, and Mr. S. R. Knight, late Assistant Master at Marlborough College, England, published an 'Elementary Algebra for Schools.' It met with unusual success, a second edition having since appeared. They have now given us a 'Higher Algebra, a Sequel to Elementary Algebra' (Macmillan), which is worthy of a more extended notice than we have room for. It is an octavo of over 500 pages, embracing an unusual variety of topics, the table of contents alone covering nearly 14 pages. De Morgan used to say that some men were born algebraists, some geometricians; but great talents, even in one department, by no means necessarily implied equal gifts in the other. Messrs. Hall and Knight seem to be "born algebraists." It is true they give us no new discoveries of great importance—a book intended for practical use in the higher class of schools is, perhaps, not the place for the communication of new discoveries—but they certainly thresh the old straw with new and smoothly working flails. One of the most striking and even surprising things about the book is the collection of examples by which the abstract principles are illustrated. They are distributed through the work under the proper heads, and the answers to all of them are given at the end of the volume. Chapter 33 is intended to be an exposition of the elementary principles of determinants, and to serve as an introduction to larger treatises. It is by far the most unsatisfactory in the book.

Those who wish a short, neat, and clear exposition of the elements of determinants will find it in a recently published work of Prof. W. G. Peck, formerly Professor of Mathematics at West Point, and for many years and now occupying the same position in Columbia College (New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.). It covers only 47 pages, but Prof. Peck is extraordinarily felicitous in the composition of "small books on great subjects." The chapter of Messrs. Hall and Knight was evidently written out of other books. Prof. Peck's little work was quite as evidently written out of his own head. Not that there is anything original in it, but it is manifestly the result of reflection upon the materials furnished him by previous writers—of digestion and assimilation—and hence it has the symmetry and consistency which mark the product of a single mind.

The July number of the *English Historical Review* is unusually rich in the field of early English history. The first article, a very short one, by F. W. Maitland, "The Suitors of the County Court," undertakes to show that attendance upon the county courts was not, in the thirteenth century, the right of all freeholders, as is usually assumed, but was an obligation resting probably upon certain tenures. "The West Saxon Conquest of Surrey," by H. E. Malden, maintains that Surrey did not form integrally a part of the kingdom of Sussex, and narrates the contest for this territory of the West Saxons against Kent and Essex. Belonging to a later period is "The Early Life of Thomas Wolsey," by T. W. Cameron. "Hrotsvitha of Gandesheim," by W. H. Hudson, gives an account of the writings of the Nun of Gandesheim, holding that, while genuine, they "had very little influence upon the development of the drama in modern Europe," and James J. Breck Perkins shows that "The Great Condé" has enjoyed a higher reputation than he deserved—"as a soldier he yields to Turenne, and, except as a soldier, there was little in Condé to excite our approbation," witness "his turbulence when young," "his obsequiousness when old," and "his greediness, selfishness, and want of principle" all through life. The "Notes and Documents" are largely devoted to Cromwell, and contain two diaries of Waterloo.

The "plunder of the churches" at the establishment of the Reformation in England, is one of the most serious charges against the reformers. Cobbett's 'History of the Protestant Reformation' (§§ 207 and 208) speaks of "the value of the images, censers, and the like," as the motive of the plunderers, and says, "The robbers took away everything valuable, even down to the *vestments of the priests*." Very likely there was such pilfering, in the confusion of the change in some places. It is interesting, however, to compare the account in contemporary documents. The *East-Anglian* (Ipswich, England) has had for two or three years a series of records, entitled "Certificates of Church Goods in Suffolk, *temp.* Edward VI." Here we have, for the several parishes of Suffolk (and some of Essex), a certified statement of the church goods sold, and the disposition of the money received. We have looked these over with some care, and have found that the money was uniformly expended in objects of genuine public interest; the things sold were of course such as could be of no service in the reformed worship, usually pixes, etc. The following (for Wrentham, Nov. 4, 1547) gives a fair idea of the character of these transactions. Sold, May 1, plate to the value of £30 (at 4s. 3d. the ounce). "Imploymets wth thusen": Allowed to the buyers for waste, 13s. 4d.; "in setlynge furthe Solders to srue the Kynge," £10; "for makynge a greate Dyke for wywnynge of a comon to the commne wealthe of the poore in thsame Towne," £12; paling for the "Gylde halle" yard, 13s. 4d.; repairs of same house, 16s.; "one Surplysse wt slevys commanded to be bought by the Kings visitors," 10s.; cloth, etc., for seven new surplices, 24s.; "for iiij^{or} chaldez of lyme to deke the churche," etc., 32s.; "And so remayneth in the Towne boxe to thuse of thsame Towne" 50s. 8d. These calculations, by the way, do not quite balance. It is to be noticed that this sale, as well as some others, was in the reign of Henry VIII. Suffolk, it is well known, was a stronghold of Protestantism and Puritanism, and Wrentham was perhaps the headquarters of Puritanism in the county, being the home of the Brewsters.

An antiquarian correspondent asks how we shall designate the relationship of a man to his widow's son by a second marriage. Diagrammatically, the situation may be represented thus:

Richard[1]———Mary———Peter[2]
(son) John (son) Henry

Peter is John's stepfather. Richard is Henry's "step-back father," suggests our friend.

Quite the best among the examples of photogravure which make up the portfolio of *Sun and Shade*, No. 1, are two portraits of the rival Presidential candidates. We are much mistaken if the physiognomist would not read strength and weakness in them respectively. The other plates, to the number of eleven, show the process of the Photogravure Company of this city in divers employments, now copying a canvas by Le Rolle, now a lithograph, and again scenes from the theatre and from nature. This medley is hardly adapted for binding, and, indeed, is provided with a loose cover, which is all it needs. The office of the Company is at No. 853 Broadway.

We have received the third or August number of the *Scottish Art Review*, published at Glasgow by Kerr & Richardson. It is, without giving promise of being an authoritative expounder of art, a readable magazine, of varied and orderly contents. An etching and a phototype after Corot, and Romney's Lady Derby, are the plates of the number.

On the recommendation of the Minister of Public Instruction, King Humbert has issued a decree regulating the manner in which Italy proposes to celebrate the fourth centennial of the discovery of America by Christopher Columbus. This will consist mainly in the publication of the collected works of the great navigator, and of all the documents and charts which will throw any light upon his life and voyages. This will be accompanied by a bibliography of the works published in Italy upon Columbus and upon the discovery of America, from the earliest time down to the present. The head of the royal commission charged with the preparation of this edition is Cesare Correnti, President of the Italian Historical Institute, and among its members are Signors Amari, Cantù, Desimoni, and the Marquis Doria. An appropriation of 12,000 lire has been made to cover the expenses of this work, which is now, if we are not mistaken, about to be undertaken for the first time. Different editors have published portions of his writings, as Navarrete the account of his voyages, and Major his letters; but no one has yet collected all his writings into a single edition, though an index to them was published in 1864.

Following the example set by the Radicals of Rome, in their efforts to erect a statue to Giordano Bruno, the Liberals of Venice have voted a monument to Fra Paolo Sarpi, to be placed in the little square of Sta. Fosca, not far from the spot where he was stabbed in 1607. Opinions may differ as to the permanent political value of the services which Sarpi tried to render to Venice, but unquestionably he deserves some greater memorial than the tombstone at San Michele. Unfortunately, at the present time this monument not only is construed, but is intended, to be a demonstration against the Church. Designs for it are to be sent in for public competition to be opened in October and continued during November.

—In the August *Macmillan's*, Mr. Sidney Colvin gives a foretaste of the new material in his forthcoming edition of the letters of Keats to his family and friends. It has been previously known that Mr. Jeffrey of Louisville, who originally furnished the bulk of the most interesting letters for Lord Houghton's use in his life of the poet, tampered with the text, and the true readings and cancelled passages of a portion of the correspondence were restored in Speed's American edition a few years ago. Mr. Colvin has had the use of others of the original letters, and has found in them similar omitted parts

which he will publish, so that we are likely to have at last a final edition. There is apparently nothing of serious importance in the changes, but the originals afford a fuller and in some parts a more natural expression of Keats's mind. Among the items of interest is the mention of his friend Reynolds as the author of the satire on "Peter Bell," which appeared before the poem itself came out and gave offence to Lamb, who wished the author "whipt at the cart's tail" for it; and, following on this, inserted in the journal-letter, is a review of the skit by Keats which was afterwards printed in the *Examiner*. This piece of prose was hitherto unknown, but, trivial as it is, has some interest. The new passages are liberally quoted from in this article, and cover many subjects, as was the habit of Keats's pen. The best one is his description of meeting Coleridge, of which we already have Coleridge's own account. It is too long to be reproduced here, but it gives the list of topics spoken of by Coleridge in the two-miles walk "at his alderman-like after-dinner pace"—an endless list—and winds up with this brief but effective stroke of description: "I heard his voice as he came towards me—I heard it as he moved away—I had heard it all the interval—if it may be called so." This was the time that Coleridge felt "death in that hand," as Keats took leave of him. The first draft of "La Belle Dame sans Merci" is given, with some light jesting remarks upon its technique by the poet, and it appears from the paper that its date was April–May, 1819, the blossoming time of Keats's genius. It is matter for congratulation that these letters have at last fallen into the hands of a competent editor. The magazine contains also the first of a series of papers by Mr. Pater, upon Gaston de La Tour, in the style of his 'Imaginary Portraits.'

—Mr. James Knowles, the editor of the *Nineteenth Century*, has had the wit and skill to persuade some of the leading foreign diplomatists in London to contribute articles on topics relating to the government of their own countries which they are best qualified to treat. Mr. Phelps, our Minister, expounded the Constitution of the United States—but its letter and its spirit rather than its actual working—and he therefore said nothing particularly new or striking. The articles in the June and July numbers by M. Waddington, the French Ambassador, on local government and county councils in France, should be read by every thinking American. Not only is the subject one which is little known, and about which it is difficult to obtain accurate information, but the articles contain instructive lessons and useful hints on subjects of great importance to us. The statements made by a man who has a practical knowledge of his subject, are very different from all that can be learned by a mere theoretical study of the French Constitution and laws. The most interesting part is that explaining the machinery by which the French have built and kept up their splendid system of public roads—the best in the world—and the want of which is such a blot on our civilization. M. Waddington's remarks on the manner in which the taxes for keeping up the roads are imposed, and by which the men who use the roads most are taxed especially for their maintenance, contain suggestions that are useful to us not only in the country, but in our large cities. The paving taxes in New York, for instance, are assessed entirely on the real estate in the street to be paved or in its immediate vicinity, on the absurd supposition that the advantage of a good pavement accrues only to the owners of that property in giving it an increased value. The majority of house-owners in New York rarely use the street except for walking or riding in a horse-car. The brewers, the manufacturers, the shippers, the owners of drays and heavy carts, who use the streets most, and who succeed in destroying the best pavement very shortly after it has been laid, pay nothing for the paving; whereas in France they pay very highly on account of the damage which they do to the roads, and their assessments are regulated yearly after a discussion between them and the authorities.

—A very important contribution to our knowledge of the English laboring classes is to be found in Mr. Charles Booth's very suggestive paper on the "Condition and Occupations of the People of East London and Hackney, 1887," published in the Journal of the Royal Statistical Society. The aim of Mr. Booth, whose similar investigations in respect to the Tower Hamlets attracted wide attention last year, is "to show the relation which poverty, misery, and depravity bear to regular earnings and comparative comfort, and to describe the general conditions under which each class lives." He accordingly divides the population of the district under examination, numbering about a million souls, from information collected from house to house and family to family by the School Board visitors, into eight classes designated by the letters of the alphabet. The four classes A–D include the poor, using the term in its widest sense, A being the "loafers and semi-criminals," and D those who have "small regular earnings." Between these are the "poor," persons having a "sufficiently regular though bare income, such as 18s. to 21s. per week for a moderate family," and the "very poor," who fall below these meagre figures and live in a state of chronic want. In these four classes are to be found a little over thirty-five per cent of the population, the largest proportions being in the second, the "very poor," and the fourth classes; the "loafers" forming only a little over one per cent. Mr. Booth then proceeds to show the causes of this poverty. These he divides into three kinds, which he terms questions of employment—that is, irregular work, low pay, and small profits; questions of habit, as intemperance; and questions of circumstance, as illness or large family combined with irregular work, etc. Out of sixteen hundred families of the classes A and B, 4 per cent. were loafers, those who will not work; 55 per cent. were "very poor" because of irregular work, etc., 14 per cent. on account of drinking habits, and 27 per cent. because of illness or large family. The condition of twenty-four hundred families in classes C and D was due in 68 per cent. to irregular work, 13 per cent. to intemperance, and 19 per cent. to illness or large family. It appears, therefore, from these figures that irregular work and low wages are the principal causes of poverty. In this connection Mr. Booth insists strongly upon the fact that "the poverty of the poor is mainly the result of the competition of the very poor." To the rich "the very poor are a sentimental interest; to the poor they are a crushing load." And he adds, evidently confident of the feasibility of his remedy: "The entire removal of this class out of the daily struggle for existence I believe to be the only solution of the problem of poverty."

—Another important observation is upon the necessity of "organizing the enforced leisure" of the poor. He makes no suggestion as to the methods, beyond referring to Mr. Auberon Herbert's plan for educational classes, and inviting the workingmen's clubs to endeavor to supply some other place of rendezvous for the unemployed than the public house. There is one ray of light which breaks the gloom of this paper in the confident statement that "the hordes of barbarians of whom we have heard, who, coming forth from their slums, will one day overwhelm modern civilization, do not exist. The barbarians are a handful, a very small and decreasing percentage." Among the numerous tables which Mr. Booth has prepared as the result of his investigations are ten showing the occupations of the inhabitants of East London and Hackney. From these it appears that by far the largest proportion are engaged in the clothing and furniture trades and upon the docks. From another table we learn that one million, out of the four millions who live in London, are in the "classes in poverty sinking to want." At the close of his paper Mr. Booth stated that an inquiry similar to his was about to be undertaken in Central London and Manchester; also, that the results of his investigations were soon to be published in a book "of which he would be editor, and to which there would be several able contributors," and which would deal with many points referred to in his paper, and especially in the discussion which followed its reading before the Society.

—Vol. 4 of the Astor Library Catalogue carries on the alphabet from R to Z, and finishes this important work in 4,276 pages, as it has been determined to accompany this author-catalogue with no subject-catalogue or index—not even such as was printed with the earlier catalogue. A subject-catalogue is really much needed at the Astor Library, that which was furnished with the original catalogue having been only a fragment of what Dr. Cogswell intended; and, though it serves a purpose, it falls far below what the public has a right to expect from so large a library. But economical reasons, we believe, prevented the Library from completing the former work according to Dr. Cogswell's plan. The Library has a subject-catalogue on cards of the portion covered by these volumes, and also of the later accessions since 1880, or, at least, is supposed to have such a catalogue. But we know from experience that, so far as the volumes covered by this author-catalogue are concerned, the subject-catalogue is rather unsystematic and imperfect, so that it strangely leaves a large number of volumes, to say nothing of articles in periodicals, unrepresented. We hope that before long the Library will print such a subject-catalogue as it needs and the value of its contents deserves. The method and the merit of the present catalogue we have already discussed; but it may be interesting to note here, among its curiosities, that the largest number of pages is given to the letter B, 404, and S comes next with 357, then M with 322, and C with 300. A leads the vowels with 240 pages, and is followed by U with 109, and E with 104. The smallest number of pages falls to X, 1½. U also contains the longest entry under one main heading, viz., United States, which requires 76 pages, or, including the entries in which United States appears as a part of the title, 82. The public is very much indebted to the Trustees for so valuable a help in consulting the resources of the Astor Library.

—The convention for the creation of an International Union for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works was signed at Berne, Switzerland, on September 9, 1886, by the representatives of ten countries: Germany, Belgium, Spain, France, Great Britain, Hayti, Italy, Liberia, Switzerland, and Tunis. The exchange of ratifications took place on September 5, 1887, also at Berne; but on that occasion Liberia was not represented, and, therefore, did not become one of the countries of the

Union. The treaty by which the Union was created, in accordance with its twentieth article, went into force three months after the day upon which the ratifications were exchanged, namely, December 5, 1887. Although only nine States, therefore, entered into this most important Union at the time of its formation, its promoters are hopeful that ultimately all civilized countries — including even the United States — will become members, and article eighteen of the convention provides that any country may accede to it in the future, provided the domestic laws of the country secure to authors and artists a protection for their works equal to that granted by the terms of the Union. Notification of such accession is to be sent in writing to the Swiss Government, and the latter, through the Bureau of the Union, is to communicate the fact to all the other countries. Accession implies a full adhesion to all the provisions of the convention and admission to all of its advantages. The first country to avail itself of the privilege of accession is the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg. A law to permit that State to enter the Union was passed by its Chamber of Deputies on April 25, agreed to by the Council of State on May 11, and approved by the Grand Duke, King William III. of Holland, on May 23 this year. This was followed, June 27, by a royal decree promulgating the accession, which is to date from June 20, 1888; and notice to that effect was promptly sent, on July 10, by the President of the Swiss Confederation, to the other countries of the Union. The Grand Duchy takes its place in the sixth class as regards its contribution to the expenses of the International Bureau, its present proportion being, therefore, about one fifty-fourth part of the entire expenditure.

—Every contribution to a better understanding of our modern literary English is welcome, all the more so when it betokens careful and systematic study. Such is Morsbach's 'Ueber den Ursprung der neuenglischen Schriftsprache,' a pamphlet of nearly 200 pp., published by Henninger Bros., Heilbronn, 1888. The author's general position is that the language embodied in the London documents (public and private) from 1384 to 1430 may be taken as the prototype of our modern literary English. It comes nearest to the language adopted and perpetuated by Caxton and his press in the latter half of the century. And from Caxton's speech to that of Shakspere and the King James Bible is but a short step, we add. Some opposition has already shown itself in England to Morsbach's view; but we suspect that this opposition rests, in the main, upon a misconception. As we understand the author, he does not assert that the actual *spoken* language of London—what we should call fifteenth-century Cockney—is the prototype of Caxton. He merely implies (his language is not so precise as we could wish) that there seems to have grown up in and around the public offices of London a conventional *modus loquendi et scribendi*, which had official currency throughout the greater part of England. If this be so, London document-English played in the fifteenth century a part analogous to the Saxon-Chancery German in Luther's time. At any rate, whether we accept or reject Morsbach's opinion, the bulk of his work is not to be assailed, for it consists of 150 pp. of analysis of the language of the documents from every point of view, phonology, declension, and conjugation. It is the most satisfactory grammatical discussion that one could wish. Only at one point do we feel called upon to raise the voice of protest. Morsbach, with many of his German colleagues, speaks continually of *Northern* speech, *Anglian* influences, and the like. To our mind Mercian would be the better term, especially since Sweet's edition of the Vespasian Psalter has enabled us to follow this great Midland speech from a very early date. "Northern" suggests too much the language of Northumbria. And "Anglian" should be restricted to the Peterborough region.

DOMESDAY STUDIES.

Domesday Studies: Being the papers read at the meetings of the Domesday Commemoration, 1886. With a bibliography of Domesday Book, and accounts of the MSS. and printed books exhibited at the Public Record Office and at the British Museum. Edited by P. Edward Dove, of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister-at-Law. Vol. I. Longmans, Green & Co. 1888. 4to, pp. 399.

In this age of centennial celebrations, it is right and fitting that so remarkable a centennial as the eight hundredth anniversary of the compilation of Domesday Book should not have passed without notice. The commemoration took place two years ago, but it is not surprising that so long a time has elapsed before the publication of proceedings so extensive, varied, and abounding in puzzling detail. The first volume consists entirely of papers read at the meeting; the second volume, "which will be published as soon as possible," will contain the rest of the papers, together with bibliography, index, etc.

The extreme importance of this unique document was only slowly realized, and for many centuries it was, to all intents and purposes, unknown. The full recognition of its value, and its systematic study, were only made possible by the development of the scientific methods of historical study in the last century. About a hundred years ago (1783) it was printed in two volumes. Shortly after, it was made the subject of careful analysis by Sir Henry Ellis, whose labors, embodied in a series of indices which make up the third volume (published in 1816), have formed the indispensable foundation for all subsequent study. This analysis has been made once for all, and will for ever be a monument of Sir Henry Ellis's well-directed industry. His discussion of the subject-matter of the survey, with definitions and classifications, had great value at the time, and formed the starting-point for further investigations; these later investigations have, however, corrected and superseded his conclusions in many particulars. In the same year (1816) a fourth volume was published, containing supplementary matter—the Exon Domesday, the Ely Inquest, etc.

Since the publication of Sir Henry Ellis's labors, a vast amount of work has been accomplished in detail, especially by the late Rev. R. W. Eyton, who, as Mr. Round says in the present volume (p. 191), "may, perhaps, fairly be described as the greatest of our Domesday scholars. He may be said to have saturated himself with the Record, and to have been virtually the only student who has really grappled with the Survey and explored its inmost recesses. . . . The great characteristic of his work was his marvellous and untiring industry." Mr. Round adds, however: "Whether his judgment or his critical acumen were equal to his devouring industry, I must be permitted to doubt." Mr. Eyton's most important publication upon the subject is his 'Key to Domesday,' based upon the survey for Dorsetshire. The Commemoration of 1886 will probably prove an important epoch in the study, by commencing a more systematic coöperation in the examination of the document, and laying the foundation for the coördination of the work of different students. A "Domesday Society" has been proposed, and the "Selden Society," devoted to the study of the history of English law, has been organized, and has commenced the publication of early documents bearing upon the subject.

The papers contained in the present volume are for the most part directed to the examination of certain fundamental technical expressions, upon the proper understanding of which must depend any fruitful study of the subject. The thing to be firmly fixed in the mind by the student is, that the document is named the *Exchequer* Domesday: that it was not drawn up for the purpose of taking a census in the modern sense, still less of enlightening posterity as to the social and economical history of England in the eleventh century, but solely to assist in the collection of the revenue. What is to us its principal value was not present in the minds of those who collected the statistics; consequently, the information we can derive upon the points most interesting to us must be purely incidental. The system of taxation being based upon the land, it follows that, for revenue purposes, the divisions of the land are the first thing to be considered; and consequently we find these territorial areas described with exactness in every part of the Survey, as the most important feature of it. The nomenclature is not uniform; the divisions are given as *hides* in most counties, as *carucates* in the northern counties, and as *solins* in Kent; but as these divisions, by whatever name, form the basis of taxation, obviously the first thing to be done is to ascertain their exact meaning. Upon this subject a great deal of labor has been employed, but perplexities, confusions, and apparent contradictions in the data have been so great as heretofore to baffle the most industrious researches. The key to the problem was discovered by Mr. Eyton, in the fact that the term *hide* and *carucate*, as used in Domesday, were "terms denoting fiscal value rather than areal quantity" (p. 192); the establishment of this true principle, "that the hide of Domesday (that is, the *hida ad geldum*) was not a measure of area, but a unit of geld assessment, led him to reject the conception of the hide as being ever a definite areal measure." Here, according to Mr. Round, is his mistake; in the double use of the term, as an areal measure (of one hundred and twenty acres), and as (in Domesday) a unit of assessment, is to be found the source of the confusions and contradictions alluded to.

The largest number of papers by any one person in this volume is the three by Canon Isaac Taylor, who contributes the interesting article on Domesday Survivals, printed in the *Contemporary Review* two or three years ago, a paper on "The Ploughland and the Plough," and one on "Wapentakes and Hundreds." The paper upon "The Ploughland and the Plough" brings out a very important fact—the coexistence of the three-field and the two-field systems, with the rule for testing them; his examples are taken from Yorkshire, the county of his residence. This same local association gives interest to the paper upon "Wapentakes and Hundreds," in which he establishes an equally important principle. It is generally assumed that Wapentake was the name given to the Hundred in the Danish counties. This he shows to be a mistake, saying that, "instead of the Wapentakes of the Danish shires 'answering,' as has been affirmed, to the Hundreds of the Saxon counties, it would appear that they were districts of three times the extent [containing three Hundreds each], probably constituted for

a different constitutional purpose, and for a time coexistent with the associated Hundreds of which they were composed" (p. 76).

The longest paper in the volume, occupying, with notes and appendix, one hundred and sixty pages, is by Mr. O. C. Pell—"a new view of the geldable unit of Doomsday." In this valuable and elaborate paper we have a complete survey of the monetary system and the systems of weights and measures of the different nationalities of early Britain, from the point of view of the two parallel methods of dividing the *libra* or pound: the Roman division into seventy-two *solidi* (from which is derived apothecaries' weight), and that of Charlemagne, which divided the pound into twenty *solidi* (shillings) and two hundred and forty *denarii* (pennies) (the same as in Troy weight). He also shows (p. 233) that there was a third pound, of 7,680 grains, divided into 256 pence, which he considers as pre-Anglo-Saxon, but calls "Mercian," because "for a long period it was the basis of the moneys of account of the Kingdom of Mercia": this is, however, of inferior importance. In this paper we find what is not uncommon with persons of mathematical and statistical turn of mind—a habit of ignoring the intellectual needs of those who are not gifted with similar powers, so that many steps in the argument are obscure or left out altogether. Mr. Pell's remarks in the discussion (p. 32) were quite unintelligible to us until we compared them with his paper; and even now there are several things we cannot understand. Where, for instance, does he get his authority (p. 229) for saying that the Roman shilling (*solidus*), 1-72 of a pound of gold, was divided into ninety-six grains? The Romans at no time had a weight called a *grain;* and certainly the Roman pound did not weigh 6,912 grains Troy. The gold *solidus* of the post-Diocletian period had a counterpart in a silver coin of precisely the same weight, 1-72 of a pound, known as the *miliarense*, and valued at 1-14 of the *solidus*. The *siliqua*, of half of this value, gives us again the *half-siliqua*, 1-288 of a pound; that is precisely the *scruple* of apothecaries' weight, the *penig* of the Anglo-Saxons; and it must be this with which he has somehow confounded his mythical grains of 1-96 of a *solidus*.

Another of Mr. Pell's theories we cannot accept—that "the words 'villanus' and 'servus' in Domesday Book do not necessarily imply a reference to *one person* only. They very often mean an estate of one or more villani, or servi, etc." "I have found," he says, "so many cases in the Hundred Rolls and other old MSS. where the number of virgates exactly tallies with the number of villani, servi, bordarii, sochemanni, and libere tenentes stated in Domesday." This is not surprising under any theory: but if his theory were correct, should we not expect this correspondence always to exist? But this certainly is not the case, and our impression is that the greatest irregularity exists in this respect. The mention of half-villani is, to be sure, a difficulty; but we should incline to explain it rather as half-*service* than as half-*tenure*. Neither can we agree with him that the *servus* of Domesday Book "was not a slave as we understand the word"; he is mistaken in the assertion that "in the Latin translation of the laws of Ina, made in the twelfth century, . . . the word 'gebur' is construed 'servus.'" In Ina's laws the word *gebur* occurs only in chap. 6, § 3, and the Latin translation uses the same word—*gebures* and *geburo;* so in the *Rectitudines*, chap. 4. On the other hand *servus* is regularly used in Ina's laws to represent *theow* (chaps. 3, 11, 23, etc.).

It is very proper that the systematic study of Domesday Book should begin, as is done in this volume, with the attempt to determine this fundamental point of the territorial areas. This once done—and the present discussion appears to have very nearly accomplished it—new questions of the highest interest, social, economical, and constitutional, will present themselves in abundance. It is probable that we are even yet far from realizing the wealth of information in these several lines of inquiry which remains to be derived from this incomparable record. In this connection it may be worth while to call attention to Mr. Birch's 'Domesday Book,' published by the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge, as the most compendious introduction to the study of this book, and best suited to the wants of beginners.

TWO EDITIONS OF THUCYDIDES.

Thucydides Book I. Edited on the basis of Classen's Edition by Charles D. Morris, Professor in the Johns Hopkins University. Boston: Ginn & Co.

Thucydides Book VII. Edited on the basis of Classen's Edition by Charles Forster Smith, Professor of Greek in Vanderbilt University. Ginn & Co.

The Sixth and Seventh Books of Thucydides, with an Introductory Essay, Explanatory Notes, and Indexes. By W. A. Lamberton, A.M., Professor of Greek in the Lehigh University, Bethlehem, Pa. Harper & Bros.

If the ratio of the number of new text-books in any branch of study pursued in our high schools, academies, and colleges, to the whole number of students in those institutions is any indication of the extent to which that study is pursued, then the friends of classical literature, and especially of Greek literature, have no reason to complain. Two series of the ancient classic authors are now passing through the press in two of the great publishing houses of this country—"Harper's Classical Series," embracing both Greek and Latin authors, published under the editorial supervision of Professor Drisler of Columbia College, and the "College Series of Greek Authors," published by Ginn & Co. of Boston, under the supervision of Professor White of Harvard and Professor Seymour of Yale. Although these gentlemen have the general oversight of the editorial work, yet each volume is intrusted to a special editor, with entire freedom to carry out his own ideas of how the work should be done, so far as is consistent with the general plan. The lists of the names of special editors include a large portion of the most distinguished classical scholars in America. In this respect there is perhaps nothing to choose between the two series. The latest issues of both which we have received cover in part the same ground, and thus suggest comparison.

In their general appearance the books of the "College Series" are by far the handsomer. The "Harper's Series" look more like school-books, the "College Series" more like books for the library of a scholar. So far as legibility of the Greek text is concerned, both series deserve the highest praise; but the "College Series," by using a slightly broader type and a wider spacing, has secured for the Greek text a freer, more open, and handsomer appearance, which, though perhaps not necessary to legibility, is yet a commendable sacrifice of paper to taste. The larger page and broader margins also contribute to the same end.

The next great difference between the two series is in the arrangement of the matter. In "Harper's Series" the text is placed continuously in the fore part of the volume, the notes in the back part; in the "College Series" the notes are on the same page with the text—indisputably the better method for all the purposes of study—while extended discussions and textual criticism alone are relegated to the back of the book.

Coming now to the works, the titles of which we have given, it will be observed that the seventh book of Thucydides appears in both Series. Prof. Lamberton, in "Harper's Series," gives us an edition of both the sixth and seventh books. Prof. Smith, in the "College Series," gives us only the seventh, but Prof. White, in the prospectus of the series, promises us the sixth edited by himself. Even with this future publication in view, we think Prof. Smith would have done well to have prefixed to his edition of the seventh book a summary of the contents of the sixth. Certainly, without attaining in some way a knowledge of the events recorded in the previous book the seventh cannot be fully appreciated. In fact, the two together form a book within a book. Had all the rest of his history perished, and these two only come down to us, although the loss to mankind would have been irreparable, yet it would scarcely have lessened the fame of the historian. The two books would still have been regarded, as they always have been and probably always will be, as the great masterpiece of the human intellect in the department of descriptive historical literature. Thucydides considered the Peloponnesian war as the most important that had ever been carried on up to his time. The expedition against Sicily, which forms the subject of the sixth and seventh books, he regarded not only as the greatest event of that war, but as the greatest in all Greek history. Impressed with this opinion, or rather sentiment, he exerted all his powers to make his narrative worthy of its subject, and the unanimous verdict of posterity has been that he was completely successful.

When the Athenian people in their public assembly decided to undertake the expedition against Sicily, Athens was at the height of her power. Although the war with Sparta had been dragging on with varying fortune for fifteen years, yet it had hardly retarded her growth. The number of private citizens whom in our day we should call "millionaires" was, in proportion to her population, very great. The public treasury was full, revenues from all quarters were pouring into it, her only trouble was her "surplus." When the enormous cost of the expedition was dwelt upon by the few who opposed it, they were silenced by the popular cry, "Money is no object; stop talking and tell us how much you want." The two books in which Thucydides narrates the history of this expedition, the magnificence with which it set out and the annihilation in which it ended, form the two members of a mighty antithesis. It is wonderfully impressive to read the thirtieth and thirty-first chapters of the sixth book and then turn over and read the last two chapters of the seventh. In the former he tells us how, early in a midsummer morning, the whole population of Athens, citizens and strangers, flocked down to the Peiraeus to witness the departure of the fleet, and gazed in wonder and astonishment at the splendor and completeness of their own work; in the latter he seems in the compass of a few lines to have exhausted the resources of the Greek language in summing up the completeness of its ruin.

In the character of the notes the two editions are entirely different. Any two scholars editing independently the same author will each, of course, find some points that he thinks worthy of attention which the other will pass

by unnoticed. But, speaking with approximate accuracy, we may say that the edition in the "College Series" contains all that is in the edition in the "Harper's Series," and a great deal more. From a somewhat minute examination, and making due allowance for the difference in the size of the type, we find that the commentary in the "College Series" is more than three times as extensive as that of the Harper's. Prof. Lamberton seems to have aimed at the construction of a good and serviceable text-book for a young man who is learning Greek. We think he has been remarkably successful in accomplishing this purpose. But the editors of the volumes of the "College Series," while keeping this object in view, have aimed at much more. Both Prof. Morris and Prof. Smith have made the edition of the German scholar Classen the basis of their own, and have incorporated in their commentary the great bulk of his labors. But they have modified, altered, and added as they saw fit, and have assumed the responsibility of the whole. They have endeavored to give us an edition of Thucydides, not only for the use of pupils but of professors and special students, exhibiting all the essential results of modern scholarship, or, where this would lead to an inconvenient amount of discussion, pointing out the sources of more minute information. We had marked several notes on the same passage in the two editions for comparison, but omit them for want of space. But a very fair idea of the greater elaboration of the edition in the "College Series" may be obtained from a comparison of the summaries placed at the heads of the chapters. Taking the first chapter of the seventh book, Prof. Lamberton in the "Harper's Series" has:

"Chapter 1. Gylippus lands at Himera, Collects a force of Greeks and Sicels, and advances towards Syracuse."

Prof. Smith in the "College Series" has:

"1. After refitting his four ships, Gylippus leaves Tarentum, and, receiving at the Epizephyrian Locri more favorable news of the situation at Syracuse, proceeds undisturbed by Attic ships through the Strait to Himera. From this point he enters into communication with Selinus and Gela and various Sicel localities, and with seven hundred men of his own troops, and over two thousand who joined him from Himera and the allied places, begins his march through the interior towards Syracuse."

This is not more than an average specimen. In fact, the summaries of the chapters in the "College Series" edition, when read consecutively, form a more interesting and more detailed narrative of the ruin of the great expedition than will be found in many large histories of Greece.

In the "College Series" the first book of Thucydides bears upon its title-page the name of the late Prof. Morris as editor. But he left it in an incomplete condition. "Death prevented him." Out of the 146 chapters of which the book consists, he had completed the commentary on 124 and revised it in print. He had, however, left blanks, from chapter 88 on, for the subsequent insertion of the dates of the events recorded in that part of the book. The critical notes were also left in a very inchoate state. The chronology and the criticism are precisely the two points in regard to which scholars would have most liked to see a full statement of Prof. Morris's views. At the end of chapter 88, Thucydides pauses in his narrative of the events immediately preceding the Peloponnesian war, and, in one of the most interesting episodes of his work, proceeds in the next 30 chapters to sketch the history of the development of the Athenian power during the half century, the "penteconta-etia," or "fifty years," of the Greek grammarians, which had elapsed since the close of the Persian war. The date of nearly every event recorded in these chapters has been a matter of controversy. Prof. Morris had made the chronology of the whole period a special study, and although, from papers read by him before the Philological Association, from correspondence, from his memoranda, from MS. notes on the margins of the editions of Thucydides which he used, and from friends, Prof. White has probably succeeded in giving us the conclusions at which he arrived, yet the reasoning by which those conclusions were supported is irretrievably lost. The preparation of the commentary on the last 22 chapters of the book and the revision, and to a considerable extent the preparation of the critical notes on the whole book, have devolved upon Prof. White. In performing this task he has "endeavored to follow out with scrupulous care the lines which he [Prof. Morris] laid down." For practical purposes it is altogether probable that the book does not differ essentially from what it would have been had Prof. Morris lived to finish it.

The notes include a number—unequalled, we believe, in any edition of a classic author that ever appeared on this side of the Atlantic—of references to parallel passages of Thucydides, to other Greek authors, and to grammatical, philological, and historical works. Thus, on chapter 1, which consists of fourteen lines of text, we have ninety-three references, on chapter 2, consisting of twenty-eight lines, we have ninety-seven, on chapter 3, consisting of twenty-three lines, we have seventy-one, and so on through both the first and the seventh books. In very many of these cases reference to the original sources is rendered unnecessary, by quotation or by summary statements of the views of the authors referred to. There are, however, a great number of works which, from the language in which they are written, from their inaccessibility except in large libraries, or for other reasons, are of no use to the average pupil in Greek, but to the professor or specialist are of the highest value.

The Household Library of Ireland's Poets, with full and choice selections from the Irish-American Poets, and a complete department of authentic biographical notes. Collected and edited by Daniel Connolly. Published by the Editor, 28 Union Square, New York.

THIS sumptuous cyclopædia of Irish poetry, with its eight hundred closely filled pages, excites at first the sort of vague and remote curiosity with which the visitor at the Dublin University Library looks at the loaded shelves of untranslated Erse literature; but these contributions to poetic treasure have the advantage of the English tongue, and of being as a rule far easier reading. The collection is of the greatest variety, yet gives on the whole a creditable impression of that Irish harp which appears, laurelled with shamrock, on the wide green covers. In quantity Mr. Connolly exceeds all previous editors, yet so much of the interest of Irish poetry is retrospective that his arrangement, which is wholly topical, affords, after all, a less attractive volume than the smaller work of Alfred M. Williams, 'Poets and Poetry of Ireland' (Boston: Osgood, 1881), which preserves the historical form. Viewed historically, such a collection may almost be called fascinating in its interest; there is nothing in the Scottish ballad literature, before Burns, more thoroughly poetic than some of the songs of the Irish Bards and Hedge-Poets, as translated by Sir Samuel Ferguson and others. Mr. Connolly gives us a few of these, as, for instance, "Dark Rosaleen" (p. 404); but they are necessarily intermingled, by his arrangement, with what is modern and contemporary, thus losing their peculiar flavor. In Croker's 'Popular Songs of Ireland,' although we have less of this earlier matter, we at least have the works of each author brought together and elucidated; but Mr. Connolly's topical arrangement prevents even this, and though the book is thoroughly indexed, and there is an appendix of biographical sketches, yet we have, after all, an encyclopædia rather than a manual. Of this, however, there is no good reason to complain; it is simply a question of arrangement.

It is perhaps a just ground of complaint that out of 260 poets we have biographical sketches of only 167; although in many cases, where the career is unchronicled, the place and date of birth, and sometimes of death, are given. The ground of this limitation is not clear; there is, for instance, no memoir of Dion Boucicault, who is certainly well known without it; but neither is there any of Julia Crawford, whose tender lines "We parted in silence" found a place in many albums of the last generation, but of whom we are here only assured that she was "born in Ireland." Equally questionable is the too expanded range of the selection. There can be no fair objection to including those who are Irish through their parents or even through one parent only—thus comprising, for example, the Brontë sisters; but to include James Whitcomb Riley, on the ground that one of his four great-grandparents was Irish, and to print the "Bunker Hill Centennial Ode" of the late Mr. George Sennott without offering evidence that he had any claim to Irish origin at all, is to stretch the range almost as widely as when Ossian is placed on the rolls (p. 477), with the assertion that it is a vexed question whether he belonged to Scotland or Ireland. Mrs. Sarah Helen Whitman's insertion is explained on the ground that although her ancestors for four generations had lived in America, they (the Powers) were descended from the Norman family of Le Poer, one of whose ladies defended the castle of Don against Cromwell; and that Mrs. Whitman wrote a poem on this subject, which appears in this volume. So Thomas S. Collier is included, not merely because one of his ancestors left Ireland soon after the battle of the Boyne, but because his "Sunburst" is a warm and vigorous protest against English rule. Yet this is to make the book a campaign pamphlet, which it should not be, and which it is not really designed to be, since the editor inserts Charlotte Elizabeth's spirited verses on the siege of Derry, "The Maiden City," though omitting, strangely enough, to index her under her proper name of Tonna; and adds, also, though with some unnecessary apology, the Orange ballad, "Oliver's Advice," by William Blacker. Inasmuch as the editor rightly makes no distinction, among Irish-American poets, between the songsters of the Union and the Confederacy, there seems no reason why the far older Irish feuds should be commemorated even in foot-notes.

It is curious to notice how many of the best poems in this large volume are in that rolling ballad measure of which Moore knew nothing, but which is only too familiar to the ear, through the hand-organs, in "The Wearing of the Green," and is exemplified in literature by Sir Samuel Ferguson's "Forging of the Anchor" and Thomas Davis's "Fontenoy" and "The Sack of Baltimore." Mrs. Norton indicated her Irish blood by employing it in "Bingen"; and Boyle O'Reilly holds to it in "The Fishermen of Wexford." Mr. Connolly gives

the text of all his poems with much critical and typographical accuracy; and where he has a new text of his own he has doubtless reason for the substitution. Thus, in poor Callanan's fine verses beginning:

"There is a green island in lone Gougane Barra,"

he gives a version differing in some respects from that familiar to us in Croker's and in Williams's collections, and, on the whole, more effective; yet this affords no explanation of his spelling the name of the poem differently in different places. It is "Gougane" (the usual form) on pages 9 and 734 and "Gougaune" (twice) on page 184. In some cases we note omissions: Mr. Connolly leaves out Lady Wilde's strongest poem, "A Million a Decade"; and that best stroke of Charles G. Halpine's wit, his song in favor of the enlistment of black soldiers in the Union army, with its droll burden:

"Ivery day in the year, my boys,
And ivery hour in the day,
I'll let Sambo be murthered in place of meself,
And niver a word I'll say."

The exclusion of humorous songs has, we think, been carried rather too far; it may have been very well to draw the line this side of "The Night before Larry was Stretched," or even of "Bumpers, Squire Jones"; but we confess to a sigh at looking in vain for "The Gathering of the Mahonys." After all, Mr. Connolly is better than his word, and gives us "Groves of Blarney" and "The Widow Malone"; but it must be remembered that an Irishman without humor becomes a miserable being; if you doubt it, visit the essentially cheerful slums of Dublin, and then the grim haunts of the transplanted Irish in Glasgow. If we may believe one of our editor's best poets, this sense of fun extends fully among the priesthood; thus, in Arthur Graves's "Father O'Flynn," we read:

"And though quite avoiding all foolish frivolity,
Still, at all seasons of innocent jollity,
Where is the play-boy can claim an equality
At comicality, Father, with you?
Once the bishop looked grave at your jest,
Till this remark set him off with the rest:
'Is it lave gaiety
All to the laity?
Cannot the clargy be Irishmen too?'" (P. 536.)

Near and Far: An Angler's Sketches of Home Sport and Colonial Life. By William Senior, Angling Editor of the *Field*. London: Sampson Low. 1888.

Mr. Senior, to whom we owe several previous entertaining and well-written books on angling and pastoral life, has made this one in two divisions—the first entitled "Sketches of Home Sport," the second, "Sketches of Colonial Life." The chapters on home sport are a charming combination of narrative and divergence therefrom to the varied topics of rural life and economics suggested by the scenes and incidents presented to the reader, and seeming to come naturally and properly within the scope of the chapter headings. No fishing excursion is described in which there is not conveyed a pleasing and graphic idea of much more than the sport it yields—the peculiarity of the people of the district, interesting facts of the neighborhoods (and what country so full of them as England?), the trees and flowers, their seasons and changes, the animal life—all incidentally brought in, with scarcely anything left out that a lover of nature would observe.

All this, however, must yield in interest to the contents of the second division of the book. The "sketches of colonial life" are mostly from Queensland, a part of Australia not well known, in this country at least, and give descriptions of the life, manners, customs, and industries of that colony, from which the average reader will learn much more than he would get from a volume of statistics. A most interesting chapter is the third, on "Horse-hunting." It seems that in parts of Australia wild horses, there called "brombies," the descendants of animals which have escaped from their owners, have become such a nuisance that, besides being captured in large numbers for use, they are shot for their hides and hair. The extent to which this is done can be imagined from Mr. Senior's statement, p. 183, that one hunter whose acquaintance he made had shot, within two years, 3,000 horses. There are twenty pages of description of this novel sport, which certainly leave one to infer that Mr. Senior did not regret his own lack of success in killing the noble specimens of horseflesh he writes about. At any rate, the sympathies of the reader are altogether with the animals.

Chapter v., "The Dugong," gives a history of this marine animal, and of the Queensland industry of catching and converting him into leather, meat, ivory, and oil, the latter having remarkable medicinal effects in the diseases of rheumatism and consumption. Chapter iv., "Among the Sugar-canes," can be recommended; and Chapters viii. and xii., "The Sheep Station" and "On a Cattle Station," contain full and well-written accounts of these chief Australian industries, of the people engaged in them, and their mode of life. Chapter xi., on Kangaroos, is also most interesting. They are the great foes of the Queensland colonists, and it is estimated that each one consumes yearly sufficient grain to feed two sheep. At certain seasons when it is very dry, the kangaroos come down in vast hordes from the mountains, and literally "eat up the country," with the result of bringing thousands of sheep and cattle to starvation. The colonial authorities give a reward for each kangaroo scalp, and to earn this, and for self-protection, the settlers organize hunts, in which, by the employment of numerous beaters, the kangaroos are driven within range of the concealed sportsmen. At one of these, in which Mr. Senior assisted, 921 kangaroos were killed, and he states that an idea of the "incredibly great number" of these animals can be got from the fact that at one station in the same district 23,000 were shot during one year.

The Land of the Pueblos. By Susan E. Wallace. New York: John B. Alden. 1888. 285 pp., with illustrations.

This little book is a reprint of a series of papers published several years ago in different periodicals. As such it must be judged, and while it, of course, still possesses the same charm which these papers offered to the reader at the time, it also suffers from the same defects. The author should have informed herself, before undertaking this republication, of whatever advance historical knowledge has accomplished in the lapse of time intervening, and should have incorporated it in the present issue, insofar as it entered in the scope of her work. For, while the book has many bright sides, it is lamentably adrift in all that touches upon the history and ethnology of New Mexico. It would be useless to go into any details; the entire picture of New Mexico's past is so utterly at fault that it would be superfluous to specify. This is the more regrettable, since the headings of several chapters give the idea that the author's data and facts are derived from the Spanish Archives at Santa Fé. Nevertheless, it is plain that, while the author has doubtless *seen* many documents, she has had no opportunity of reading, let alone studying, any of them. As far as actual life in New Mexico is concerned, the author cannot be too much praised for her admirable pictures of it. But the past seems to her a sealed book, in regard to which she is content to repeat, though in a beautiful way, statements and appreciations which at their time were just and seemed true, but which are no longer of our period. Should a second edition of the work be intended, a thorough revision of these parts would make it very valuable.

Schriftsprache und Dialekte im Deutschen nach Zeugnissen alter und neuer Zeit. Beiträge zur Geschichte der deutschen Sprache von Adolf Socin. Heilbronn: Gebrüder Henninger. 1888.

The idea of this elaborate and learned treatise is to exhibit the evolution of literary German in its relation to the spoken dialects of the people. This object the author endeavors to accomplish partly by descriptive exposition of his own, but mainly by means of illustrative quotations from the literary documents and the grammatical authorities of every epoch. Thus we are given not simply a history of the German language, but also a history of opinion with regard to it; a history of the contending forces, the controversies, the reformatory efforts that have made it what it is. Along with this purely historical matter the author finds space to interweave a tolerably full account of the researches and conclusions of recent scholarship, so far as these bear upon his general subject. Thus the book serves the double purpose of a mine of facts and a conspectus of discussion.

A treatise of this character was a real desideratum, and it is a pleasure to be able to testify that the task set himself by Socin has been performed with thoroughness and good judgment. He does not, indeed, so far as we have discovered, bring forward any new material of importance, and his personal contributions to the numerous learned discussions touched upon by him are not very momentous. It is also true that specialists may criticise here and there the perspective of the work and the leanings of the author with regard to controverted matters. In a longer notice than is here possible we might ourselves indulge in a few animadversions of that sort. It is to be remembered, however, that no book of like intent could possibly be written which would be altogether secure against criticism along those lines. Such strictures, in any case, would affect but little the real value of the great service which Socin has performed in patiently digesting an enormous literature, much of which is difficult of access, in presenting the results of his reading in a clear and compact form, and thus furnishing what may be called a bird's-eye view of this vast field of scholarship.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, W. I. L. The Photographic Instructor. Scovill Manufacturing Co.
Besant, W. Fifty Years Ago. Harper & Bros.
Brewer, D. C. Madeleine: a Poem in Fragments. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Broken Fetters: The Light of Ages on Intoxication. New York: Amies Publishing Co.
Chateauclair, W. The Young Seigneur. Montreal: Wm. Drysdale & Co.
Cobb, S., jr. Karmel the Scout. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Cook, Prof. A. S. Phonological Investigation of Old English. 50 Problems. Boston: Ginn & Co. 10 cents.
Dall, Mrs. C. H. Life of Dr. Anandabai Joshee. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Davidson, J. W. The Poetry of the Future. John B. Alden.
Davis, M. E. M. In War Times at La Rose Blanche. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Dickinson and Dowd. A Winter Picnic. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
D'Ooge, Prof. B. L. Colloquia Latina. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents.
Finch and Sibley. John B. Finch: his Life and Work. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.50.
Galton, A. English Prose from Maundeville to Thackeray. London: Walter Scott.
Gibbon, C. Beyond Compare. Chicago: T. S. Denison.
Gosse, E. Life of William Congreve. London: Walter Scott.
King, Capt. C. A War-Time Wooing. Harper & Bros.

HENRY HOLT & CO.'s
Important New Educational Works.

THE NEW EDITION of WHITNEY'S GERMAN GRAMMAR. Teachers' price, $1.30; by mail, $1.45.

In revising the work many additions and improvements, suggested by experience, have been introduced. All the matter has been put into type averaging much larger than in earlier editions. The new spelling of German words appears in brackets beside the old. The exercises, which formerly were scattered through the volume, have been excised, and a much fuller and more comprehensive series, provided with references, appear at the end. No fundamental changes have been made in the plan or structure of the book, even the paragraphing having been retained.

PACKARD'S ENTOMOLOGY for BEGINNERS. 12mo. Teachers' price, $1.40; by mail, $1.53.

This book not only starts the beginner in the study, but gives amateurs and dilettanti copious directions for collecting and preserving insects and forming cabinets. It also is intended as a handbook for the farmer, fruit-grower, and gardener. After supplying the fundamental knowledge which all these persons need, it refers each very fully and specifically to the detailed works which supply his special requirements.

HOWELL'S DISSECTION OF THE DOG. Teachers' price, $1.00; by mail, $1.07.

Prepared originally for the author's own class at Johns Hopkins University, as a basis for the study of physiology.

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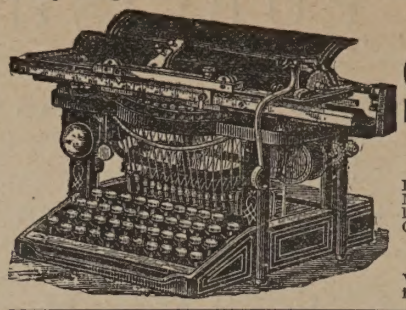

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Alphabetized, first, by States; second, by Towns.

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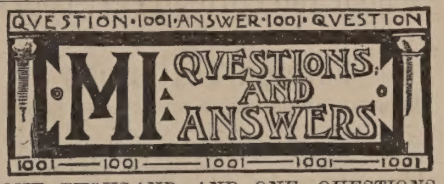

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 30, 1888.

The Week.

THE rejection of the Fishery Treaty had been so long anticipated that the event took nobody by surprise either in this country, or in Canada, or in Great Britain. The situation is now what it was in 1870 and again in 1885, except that there is a *modus vivendi* under which fishing operations are now carried on, which, if not satisfactory to all parties, does nevertheless answer the purpose. It is in the nature of a gratuity from the other side, and is, therefore, not revocable by us. No American fisherman need take out a license if he does not want it. If he does take it, he acts voluntarily and has nothing to complain of. If he prefers to stand on his rights under the Treaty of 1818, he can do so. That is the alternative. The rejected treaty was in large part a definition of rights under the old treaty. If the Gloucester fishermen prefer law-suits to licenses, the door is open to them to make that choice. They set out to get a monopoly of the fish market. They told President Cleveland that they wanted Canadian-caught fish prohibited from entering our ports. They wanted to have fresh as well as salt fish kept out. They wanted to secure by indirection the repeal of the law, passed by a Republican Congress and approved by a Republican President, which makes fresh fish free of duty. To accomplish this they have put the peace of nations in peril, and now they have failed.

The general opinion of patriotic Americans regarding the President's recent message is well expressed by Judge Thomas M. Cooley, a lifelong Republican whose character and standing lend great weight to his words, when he says: "The message is unquestionably a masterpiece of dignity and statesmanship. It is a document of great merit and will be likely to wield a great influence." As for the Republican politicians, there is but one word which will describe their situation: they are dumbfounded. One moment they declare that "the President has come over to our side" and "has surrendered to Republican policy"; the next, they declare that his position is untenable, and that the policy which he proposes is preposterous. As for the Republican press, its situation bespeaks the compassion of all tender-hearted men. The editors have not the slightest idea what the Senators will finally conclude to do about it, and the chances are consequently even that if they fire off their guns in either direction, they will slaughter their own friends.

On the 14th of June Mr. Sherman reported from the Committee on Foreign Relations, and the Senate unanimously passed, the following resolution:

"Resolved, by the Senate (the House of Representatives concurring), That the President be and is hereby requested to invite from time to time, as fit occasions may arise, negotiations with any Government with which the United States has or may have diplomatic relations, to the end that any differences or disputes arising between the two Governments which cannot be adjusted by diplomatic agency may be referred to arbitration, and be peaceably adjusted by such means."

Later on the same day Senator Riddleberger of Virginia entered a motion to reconsider. This motion has never been called up, and the resolution therefore now stands on the calendar with this motion to reconsider entered against it. The news of the passage of the resolution had no sooner reached Gloucester than the American Fishery Union broke forth in loud protests against the idea of submitting the pending dispute with Canada to arbitration, and the Republican Senators at once yielded to these protests. Now, however, that President Cleveland has proposed decisive action, in the failure of attempts to settle the trouble by negotiation, the Gloucester men come out strongly for arbitration. "The only way these vexed questions can be settled is by arbitration," says in August one of the Babsons who in June denounced the idea of arbitration as not to be thought of. Mr. Cleveland's message appears to have left the fish politicians stranded all around.

A telegram to the *Herald* from Montreal says that "a movement has been set on foot to petition the Imperial Government, in the event of the United States declaring non-intercourse, to place a nominal duty on American wheat and other grains, while admitting the produce of Canada and the other colonies free. This, it is claimed, would soon bring the United States to her knees, depriving her of her principal market, and would not injure England, while benefiting Canada; it being contended that India, Canada, and Russia could more than supply the British demand without increasing the price to the consumers. A public meeting in support of this proposal will be called in a few days." Whatever may happen or not happen between the United States and Canada, England will not adopt differential duties against any country with which she has any commercial relations at all. She maintains free trade, and accordingly scouts differential duties for her own benefit, and not for the benefit of foreigners. Least of all is she likely to put a tax on American cereals at a time when her own harvest is deficient. Nor, if she were otherwise disposed, would she be likely to forget that Canada has lately put in force protective duties against English manufactures which have caused a high degree of irritation in Parliament. Differential duties belong to the infantile period of national growth, which Great Britain has passed some time since. Non-intercourse also belongs to the infantile period. What President Cleveland has recommended is not non-intercourse, but the non-transshipment of other people's goods across our territory if they refuse to allow ours to be carried across their territory.

The Republican party promised in its national platform of 1884 to "correct the inequalities of the tariff," but instead of redeeming this promise or taking any step looking that way, it has offered every possible resistance to every attempt made in Congress to correct those inequalities. Now, what are the inequalities of the tariff? We think that most people will agree that duties of more than 100 per cent. are cases of inequality, seeing that some other duties are as low as 10 per cent. The following articles in the present tariff list are taxed 100 per cent. or more, viz.:

Articles	Duty per cent.
Castor oil	194.77
Acetate of lead	131.11
Tannic acid	196.97
Cylinder and crown glass { two sizes	106.21
do. do. do. { two sizes	108.50
Iron and steel beams and structural iron	102.75
Steel for railway wheels and tires	101.22
Steel wire, galvanized	111.18
Wire cloth, under No. 16	100.75
do. do. galvanized	114.21
Rice, cleaned	113.03
Paddy	134.50
Peanuts	106.04

The number of articles above 70 per cent. is too numerous to mention, but we subjoin a few in the woollen schedule which may certainly be classed as "inequalities":

Woollen cloths, etc.	Duty per cent.
Valued *not above* 80 cents per pound, no matter how low (poor man's cloth)	89.84
Valued *above* 80 cents per pound, no matter how high, broadcloth, etc.	68.91
Shawls, not above 80 cents per pound (poor women's shawls)	88.44
Ditto, above 80 cents	65.41
Ditto, alpaca, camel's hair, etc.	61.53
Woollen goods in general, not above 80 cents per pound	88.81
Ditto, above 80 cents	64.46
Flannels, not above 30 cents per pound	73.42
Ditto, above 30 and not above 40 cents	64.46
Blankets, not above 30 cents per pound	79.66
Ditto, above 30 and not above 40 cents	63.84
Knit goods, not above 30 cents per pound	88.33
Ditto, above 30 and not above 40 cents	65.20

These discriminations against the poor and in favor of the rich are presumably some of the "inequalities of the tariff" which the Republican platform of 1884 promised to correct, but which the party is now holding on to with all its might.

A most important document connected with the present tariff discussion was published by the *Evening Post* on Wednesday of last week, viz., a comparative statement of the present rates of duty on each article and the proposed rates on the same articles in the Mills bill, all reduced to an ad-valorem basis. There has been a great demand for this information. The document is prepared by the Committee of Ways and Means. It is interesting to note that the duties on woollens remain at 40 per cent. in the Mills bill even after the repeal of the duties on the raw material, wool. That does not strike us as very alarming to the American woollen industry. Nor does the average reduction to 42.78 per cent. from the present average, 47.10 per cent., appear to warrant the paroxysms that some people have been thrown into by it. Gen. Harrison has gone so far as

to admit that this bill is not in itself dangerous. He finds the real danger to be in the state of mind of those who support it. If they support it on grounds of protection, it is all right; if not, it is all wrong. No means have been suggested by Mr. Harrison for collecting their opinions, but if all the friends of the bill could be brought together and should take their Bible oaths that they support it on protectionist grounds, we are sure that Mr. Blaine would not be satisfied, although Mr. Harrison possibly might be. Perhaps the best way to judge of the bill is by its merits, without regard to anybody else's state of mind.

Mr. Thurman's speech at Port Huron last week showed that he has lost none of his intellectual vigor, and is as well qualified, in point of age, to serve in the Vice-Presidency as is his senior by a few months, Justice Bradley of New Jersey, to sit upon the Supreme Bench. It was an admirably plain, straightforward, common-sense presentation of the issue of the campaign. The *Tribune*, we observe, editorially refers to Mr. Thurman's speeches as "demagogic" and "cheap," and therefore, of course, calculated to drive voters away from the cause he advocates. We expected, consequently, to find the full text of the Port Huron deliverance in the *Tribune's* news columns as the best way of making votes for Harrison (Harrison is the name of the candidate the *Tribune* supports, isn't it?); but, somewhat to our surprise, found only the briefest possible abstract. This is very odd.

Mr. F. B. Thurber writes a letter to the *Times* to say that he is in favor of tariff reform, and also in favor of protection, and that he intends to vote for Mr. Cleveland this year. In an interview in the *Herald* he adds that he voted against Mr. Cleveland in the last Presidential election. We call the attention of Gen. Harrison especially to Mr. Thurber, because the former has been so anxious to know the exact state of mind of Mr. Cleveland's supporters on protection in the abstract. Here is a truly representative man, one of the foremost merchants and one of the most untiring "anti-monopolists" in the United States. Probably Mr. Thurber had no intention of offering himself as an example to satisfy Gen. Harrison's curiosity, but he serves the purpose all the better for that reason. The *Press* of this city should also take courage from Mr. Thurber's letter. That stipendiary newspaper of Thursday said that "the question of the difference between a 47 per cent. 'robbery' [meaning the present tariff] and a 42 per cent. 'robbery' [meaning the Mills bill] is not worth discussing": the real gist of the controversy is whether you are for protection, adequate protection. Now, Mr. Thurber declares that he is for protection, and, of course, that must mean adequate protection, because nobody can logically say that he is in favor of protection but not in favor of adequate protection. We are glad to have the acknowledgment of the stipendiary *Press* that the difference between the present tariff and the Mills bill is not in itself worth discussing.

The farmers of the South and Southwest are taking active steps to protect themselves against the exactions of the Cotton-Bagging Trust. At Memphis a large meeting resolved that they would use no jute bagging to wrap their cotton, but would buy osnaburgs or anything else merchantable rather than submit to the extortion sought to be practised upon them. The Boston *Commercial Bulletin*, on the other hand, tells us that there is no such thing as a Cotton-Bagging Trust, but only a "corner" in cotton bagging. We presume that it is immaterial to the farmers whether the combine is technically a Trust or a corner, seeing that they lose the same amount of blood in either case. The *Bulletin's* explanation of the way the corner came about is a queer one. It says that when the Mills bill was passed, reducing the duty on bagging to ⅜ cent per pound (the former duty having been 1½ cents), the manufacturers became alarmed, notwithstanding the fact that the same bill put their raw material, jute, on the free list, the former duty having been $5 per ton. They were so much alarmed that fifteen or sixteen bagging mills shut down without waiting to see whether the Mills bill would pass the Senate and become a law or not. "These mills," says the *Bulletin*, "were hopeless of being able to manufacture in competition with the Calcutta manufacturers under the small protection afforded by the Mills bill"—that is, by a bill which has not become a law, and cannot without the approval of the Senate. Not only were these particular mills shut down, but those which kept open "ran on short time so as to be ready to close down and not be caught with large stocks if the duty should be removed." It is so much easier to stop working when you are running half time than when you are running full time. "The condition of affairs," it continues, "presented an excellent opportunity for a corner, and it was seized by a large and financially strong St. Louis firm, which owns some mills and controls the products of more, who began to quote low prices and further depressed the market. Then, in conjunction with a strong New York firm, they bought up the product of certain mills, and leased other mills until they secured control of the product of about all the mills running except one Boston mill, and had leases of all the mills not closed. From present prospects we expect to see a further advance, say to 14 or 14½ cents for two-pound bagging, as the cotton crop is large and the bagging must be bought." What impresses us most strongly in this narrative is the excellent understanding that the owners of the fifteen or sixteen closed mills must have had with the wicked but financially strong St. Louis firm, to neglect the opportunity of doing a good season's business by opening their mills and taking advantage of the great rise in the price of bagging.

"J. W. T." puts certain questions to us regarding the duty on wool, which we shall endeavor to answer. We import about 114,000,000 pounds of wool, and we produce about 265,000,000 pounds. We also import about 200,000,000 pounds in the form of woollen goods and yarns. What the free importation of wool *will do* can be best judged by what it *has done* in other countries. The English wool-growers were terribly alarmed when it was proposed to make wool free of duty in that country. But the experiment was tried, and it resulted in enormously increasing the growth of wool in England, notwithstanding the high price of land. Indeed, one of the chief complaints after the wool duties were abolished was that too great a portion of English territory was turned into sheep pasture to the detriment of the cultivators of the soil. Some people would have us believe that no sheep were grown in this country until the wisdom of Congress devised a tariff on wool. There was no duty on wool until the year 1824, and it is quite certain that wool-growing constituted as large a *proportion* of the aggregate national industries prior to that time as it has done at any time since. Again, wool was substantially made free by the tariff of 1857 without any diminution of the home-grown product. On the other hand, the enactment of the high-wool and woollens tariff of 1867 was followed by a most extraordinary slaughter of sheep and decrease of home-grown wool product. The woollen manufacture was correspondingly depressed. The bulletin of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers for 1872 complains bitterly of the state of the industry "during the past five years"—that is, ever since the tariff of 1867 was passed, declaring that "it has been extremely difficult during all this time to buy wool and manufacture it into goods and get a new dollar for an old one." The same document says that the large profits made during the war had been mainly exhausted during this sad five years' period. The blow struck at the manufacturers by the wool tariff of 1867 recoiled on the wool-growers. Hence the great slaughter of sheep that ensued. Finally, let us observe, the object of human industry is to *have* wool rather than to *grow* it.

An incident in Sunday's meeting of the Central Labor Union is thus reported:

> "A complaint was made that one of the highly protected manufacturers was trying to squeeze more money out of his employees. The New York Woven Wire Mattress Company, that paid lower wages than other similar concerns, had reduced the wages of its men 33⅓ per cent. The Arbitration Committee had investigated the matter, and had found that there were no just grounds for any reduction."

The duty on galvanized woven wire is 4, 4½, 5, and 5½ cents per pound, according to the sizes, and is equal to 114.21 per cent. ad valorem. That is to say, the purchaser of $100 worth of such material abroad must pay $114.21 additional for the privilege of bringing it to this country, in order to protect Labor; and of course Labor must pay the whole sum, $214.21, for the woven wire in the form of mattresses if Labor ever sleeps on one, which may be doubtful. Would it not be well to increase the

duty on woven wire in order that the domestic makers of the article may be enabled to pay wages satisfactory to the Central Labor Union?

Mr. David A. Wells has been writing a series of articles in the columns of the *Financial Chronicle*, replying to that journal's criticisms on his 'Economic Disturbances since 1873.' In this work Mr. Wells sought to account for the great decline in the prices of leading staple articles in recent years by improved facilities of production and transportation, leading to an increase of supply in the markets of the civilized world disproportionate to the increase of population in the same time. Incidentally Mr. Wells dropped a stone on the heads of the bimetallists, for if the fall of prices can be accounted for by a careful observation of what is taking place on the earth, it is a waste of one's energies to fetch from the clouds another reason, viz.: the demonetization of silver. The *Chronicle*, whose one weakness is bimetallism, sought to show that Mr. Wells's statistics and his reasoning from the same were alike erroneous. To its criticisms Mr. Wells has replied in detail, and appears to us to furnish a hard nut to crack for those who look to the amount of the circulating medium to find out what the range of prices ought to be at any given time. It is commonly held by economists that Tooke gave the *coup de grâce* to that class of opinions in his celebrated 'History of Prices.' Mr. Wells's argument is on all fours with that of Tooke, although quite independent and original.

It is a satisfaction to us to agree for once with Senator Beck on a question of national finance. His bill to repeal the Sinking-Fund Law is right and ought to pass, and for the very reasons he has given. He said: "The sinking fund is not only encouraging Trusts and combinations of bondholders to increase the premium on our bonds, but our outstanding indebtedness is in such a condition now that I can name ten men in the United States who, by combinations, can purchase all our outstanding bonds and hold them, and, under the law as it now stands, force the Secretary of the Treasury under our laws to pay $200,000,000 for every $100,000,000 of bonds he obtains from them, and he is compelled by law to buy annually over $50,000,000 of them, even if he pays 100 per cent. premium." There are good reasons to believe that the combination to corner the bond market against the Government, which Mr. Beck speaks of as possible, already exists. It would be wonderful if it did not exist, considering the necessity imposed upon the Secretary of the Treasury by the Sinking-Fund Law, and the limited amount of floating bonds in the street. If there ever was a public advertisement to form a Trust, it is that which the Sinking-Fund Law and the state of the bond market together create.

The official evidence that Pat. Ford and his brother were deserters from the army while in face of the enemy during the Rebellion, ought not to surprise anybody. It is said that Ford's political influence will be ruined by the disclosures, but they are not the worst revelations which have been made of his character and of that of his newspaper. Is it any more cowardly to desert than it is to hire fiends to take dynamite into a great city and blow up buildings without regard to innocent human lives? Ford not only did this, no longer ago than 1885, calling it a "holy war," but he publicly rejoiced over it. He raised $40,000 for a Dynamite Fund, and when in January, 1885, news came of frightful explosions in London, Ford publicly claimed credit for the diabolical work. Ford was collecting his Dynamite Fund while "supporting" Blaine in 1884; yet Blaine thanked him personally at the close of the campaign for his "strong and valuable support." His coöperation has been eagerly sought again this year. He was one of the men who came back from the Chicago Convention full of grief because Blaine was not nominated.

Ex-Mayor Grace's testimony rounds out and completes the story of Gov. Hill's disgraceful connection with the aqueduct. Former witnesses have made it clear that the Governor entered into a "deal" or conspiracy with certain Republican jobbers to put the control of the building of the aqueduct into the hands of Squire, a man whom the Governor knew to be a characterless adventurer; they have shown, also, that one of the Governor's personal campaign notes for $10,000 was paid out of the exorbitant profits which the Governor's influence had enabled a firm of contractors to make at the expense of the city taxpayers. Mr. Grace now shows that instead of $10,000 or $15,000 in such notes, Keenan said that the Governor had $30,000 in them, and that Keenan and other political workers used all their influence to get the contract for Section 12 of the aqueduct awarded to the firm whose bid was $54,000 in excess of the lowest, in order that the profits might be used to pay these notes. The contract was so awarded, and was sold out for precisely $30,000 profit. Mr. Grace puts an end to the plea of the Governor's friends, that the Governor's notes were not personal, but were for the Democratic party as an organization. He says they were for the Governor's personal campaign expenses, and he was told that if he would help in one way or another in getting them cared for, he would secure the political friendship of the Governor.

Keely, of motor fame, is justly indignant at the legal steps taken by the directors of the Keely Motor Company to compel him to disclose his secret. The directors, reflecting alike upon the shortness of life and the longevity of Keely's experiments, have bethought them that if the inventor should die in the midst of an interesting trial of the etheric sympathizer, or if he should be paralyzed by an explosion of cold vapor, or if any other of an unnumbered series of accidents should happen while he is working alone among the vibrators, the secret would be for ever lost, and their stock would at once fall about seven points and become utterly worthless. So they have exercised only common prudence in requiring him to divulge the secret which he has held so long in his own breast. But Keely is no more ready to give it up now than he was thirteen years ago. He has issued a circular to the stockholders in which he threatens to stop work immediately unless the suit is withdrawn. He tells them that his contract with the Motor Company does not include his "ultimate system," which is that of "sympathetic attraction," but only the etheric vibrator, a much inferior force. The stockholders, it is said, are much alarmed by this threat, for although the vibrator was to carry a train of cars sixty miles an hour with no other expenditure than one spoonful of water—a saving of fuel which ought to satisfy the most avaricious shareholder—yet they are justly apprehensive of a new invention which may accomplish the same result by sympathetic attraction with no water at all. We advise them by all means to turn out the litigious directors and pay any reasonable assessment to secure an interest in the new invention. The Philadelphia stockholders are said to be backing up Keely strongly. It is very evident that they know on which side their bread is buttered.

The *Économiste Français* of August 11 publishes an elaborate article, by M. René Stourm, on the Public Debt of France. The most usual estimate of the capital of the debt is said to be $6,400,000,000. The most moderate estimates place it a few millions lower. M. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu figures it at $6,343,573,630. The result of M. Stourm's computation is a total of $5,902,800,000, with the qualification, however, that he has omitted $432,000,000 of life annuities, which other economists have treated as part of the capital of the debt. The annual charge for interest and sinking-fund, on the entire debt, including the life annuities, is $258,167,083. Of the funded debt, $2,900,000,000 are perpetual three per cents, $1,357,600,000 perpetual four and a half per cents, and $967,906,200 redeemable bonds of various descriptions. Annuities to divers companies and corporations, of $477,400,000, and $200,000,000 of floating debt, make up the balance of M. Stourm's total. This is by far the heaviest burden borne by any nation on the globe. The nearest approach to it is the debt of Russia, which is stated at $3,605,600,000. England is next, with $3,565,800,000, and Italy next, of European nations, with $2,226,200,000. The debt of Austria is $1,857,600,000, and of Hungary $635,600,000. Spain owes $1,208,400,000, and Prussia $962,800,000. These are the figures of M. Stourm. None of these nations, excepting England and Prussia, raises sufficient revenue to guarantee a permanent equilibrium of the budget, but France is the most heavily burdened of them all, and the increase of her debt has been the most rapid in the recent past and is the most threatening for the future.

THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE.

THE message sent to Congress by the President recommending an addition to the Retaliation Act, so that the transshipment of Canadian goods in bond across our territory may be inhibited unless Canada shall allow our fishermen to transship their catch across Canadian territory, calls attention to a glaring fault in the present Retaliation Act, and refutes the charge that the Administration, throughout the fishery dispute, has been seeking to advance British interests at the expense of American interests. The latter charge has been shown by Mr. W. L. Putnam to be absolutely false. Mr. Put nam proved by citations from the record that the present Administration, having to deal with the same problem that Gen. Grant's Administration had to deal with in 1870, and having the same class of seizure cases on hand, had exhibited far greater energy and assiduity in defending the interests of our fishermen. But the indifference of our people at large to these details is such that not one in one hundred of the voters will ever read them or care anything about them. But they can understand a single concrete fact like that stated in the President's message, namely, that the Senate, which has been rumbling for two years against Canada and Great Britain, for the entertainment of Ireland, and threatening retaliation and non-intercourse, and declaring that the fishery dispute was not a subject for treaty negotiation at all, has neglected the most important branch and the most appropriate form of retaliation all the way through. Regarded as a "move for position" merely, the President's message is worth all the speeches and reports of Messrs. Frye, Edmunds, and Hoar, and all the rhetorical exercises of Mr. Evarts, ten times over.

Regarded as a step seriously taken to secure a valuable right, the message is also weighty and important. Among all the privileges claimed by us and denied by Canada, that of transshipment in bond is the one which has the best foundation in reason. It is quite true that it was not conceded in the Treaty of 1818, under which we are now living. It is true, nevertheless, that it is the correlative of the privilege that we extend to Canada of transshipping her goods across our territory from Portland, Boston, New York, and numberless other places. There is nothing in the realm of reason or in the nature of things to distinguish fish from any other kind of portable property. You cannot in this case make fish of one and flesh of another. A long line of precedents tending that way does not suffice. The precedents only serve to show how long a bad principle may survive in spite of the amelioration of manners and the enlarging comity of nations. The privilege of transshipment is necessarily a mutual one. If we are denied the privilege as to one thing by Canada, we may rightfully deny it to her as to all things. Moreover, the denial of the right of transshipment is the appropriate mode of retaliation for that particular grievance.

The President makes mention of the inconvenience that may be suffered by citizens of the United States. There are a number of American railways engaged more or less in carrying Canadian goods in bond. Some of these earn freights on such goods all the way from the Atlantic seaboard to Manitoba. There are other American railways (the Canada Southern for example), whose earnings are derived from the carrying of American goods across Canadian territory. Both classes will be sufferers from retaliation of this sort. Both will have to thank the Senate for precipitating a crisis by rejecting a treaty which promised peace and good will to both countries.

It is too early to foretell the action of the Republican Senators in answer to the President's flank movement. If they pass a bill of the kind recommended by him, they acknowledge their laches in the past. They take their place in the rear of the procession and follow his lead. This will be a sorry exhibition to make. Even Ireland might be provoked to laughter by it. On the other hand, not to pass the bill will put them in the attitude of refusing to the President the most appropriate and effectual remedy that can be imagined to meet the most substantial grievance we have to complain of. Senators Edmunds, Sherman, and Hale gave us on Friday their opinions and comments on the President's message. Before noticing these important deliverances it is necessary to take a retrospective glance. In the first place the Retaliation Act of 1887 was in principle a reversal of all the precedents in our history applicable to non-intercourse with foreign Powers. It was likewise in conflict with the spirit of the Constitution, which, by giving the war-making power to Congress exclusively, gives to Congress the discretion of judging what steps shall be taken of a hostile character which may lead up to war, and when they shall be taken. Until the passage of this act, Congress has in all such cases assumed the responsibility, and in no case has sought to shift it upon the President. In the Retaliation Act of 1887, however, the precedents were abandoned, and the policy reversed. Instead of declaring non-intercourse upon a given state of facts, Congress authorized the President to declare it if any acts should be, or if any *had been*, committed by the Canadians to justify so grave a step. The acts which had been committed were as well known to Congress as to the President. As a matter of fact, the most objectionable of the acts complained of had been committed prior to the passage of the Act of 1887. It is plain, therefore, that Congress, to use a common illustration, was seeking to "hit it if it was a deer, and miss it if it was a calf." It was seeking to claim all the glory of retaliation if it turned out well, and to put all the blame on the President if it turned out ill. In the former case, retaliation would have been enacted by a wise and courageous Congress. In the latter, the President would have misjudged the occasion, and mistaken the kind of acts calling for so extreme a remedy. The latter charge would have acquired greater force by reason of the fact that no acts were committed by Canada after the passage of the act more objectionable than those committed before.

Now, the gravamen of Senator Edmunds's argument is, that the President had all the power necessary before he sent in this message asking for new and different powers, and that he has simply come over to the Senate's side and acknowledged that the Senate was right all the time. The President affirms that an unrepealed law of Congress authorizing the transshipment of Canadian goods in bond stands in his way. Leaving this question of fact to be settled as it may be, what, we ask, was Congress doing all those years that it did not exercise its own powers by declaring the time and measure of non-intercourse? Why did it not show the bravery and candor of the Congresses of 1808, 1809, and 1811, and perform its own duty in the spirit of the Constitution? Simply because it was engaged in a game of political fencing.

Senator Sherman, if he is correctly reported, made a greater blunder than any other who took part in the debate. He said that "if the President had based his treaty on the principles laid down in his message, there would have been no difficulty about the treaty, and it would have been ratified by a unanimous vote, because the message did assert the right of American citizens." This remarkable saying comes from one who signed a report from the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, which contains the solemn declaration that the subject-matter of the fisheries is not one for treaty negotiations at all! But it appears that if the President had negotiated a treaty providing that if Canada did not within a certain number of days allow our fish to be transshipped in bond across her territory, we should forbid her to transship her goods across our territory, then and in that case the fishery question would have been a good subject for treaty negotiation!

Upon the whole, the advantage lies with the President in an overwhelming degree. If serious trouble grows out of the complication, let the responsibility rest with those who have publicly declared against any negotiation whatever, and who have rejected the treaty not merely because it was in their belief a bad one, but because they would not have even a good one.

THE EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF THE PRESENT CAMPAIGN.

IT has long been a commonplace with political observers that the preservation of a government founded upon universal suffrage depends upon the education of the voters. No one can dispute the truth of this proposition, but if we consider what is meant by the term education, we shall find much difference of opinion. It is rather hastily assumed that education is the same thing as going to school, and it is inferred that special political instruction should be given to the children attending our common schools. To this end there have of late years been prepared a number of manuals of diluted constitutional law and primers of elementary social science, by the aid of

which it is supposed that good citizens may be produced systematically.

Unquestionably it is desirable that all citizens should be acquainted with the nature of the government under which they live, and we have no disposition to depreciate the efforts of those who attempt to give them this information. But political education is a very different matter from this. It is not acquired by committing to memory the details of governmental machinery or by learning political maxims by rote. In fact, there is little that is peculiarly political about it. It is quite as practical as business education, and as little capable of being taught in schools. It consists simply in applying reason to the constantly varying problems of legislation. It implies a natural or a developed capacity for logical investigation. So far as schooling trains the powers of observation, of generalization, and of deduction, it prepares the scholar for the intelligent discharge of political duties. Unless the common schools give this training, they do not impart a political education. As a matter of fact, a lad may be graduated with a very considerable knowledge of the features of our Government, and yet be wholly unable to pass judgment upon any act of legislation or to vote intelligently on any issue.

Altogether the most valuable political education is furnished by just such a campaign as that in which we are now engaged. A specific measure of legislation has been proposed in order to cure a particular evil—to meet a particular condition, as President Cleveland says. This measure, however, not only relates to this condition, but necessarily brings up for discussion the general scope and policy of government. It calls forth the most contradictory statements as to its immediate effects and as to its general tendency. A great many speakers and writers are engaged in beclouding the issue, and in misrepresenting the nature of the measure. A great many others are as busily engaged in refuting them, and in defining and explaining the real principles involved. The general public is, as it were, in the jury-box. It hears all the evidence, and listens to the inconsistent statements of the witnesses and the conflicting arguments of the counsel. It is placed in a position to exercise a rational judgment, and the exercise of judgment is itself an education.

No believer in popular government can contemplate the present state of affairs without exultation. For many years there has been little that was educational in our politics. The old parties had ceased to represent any distinct principles, and the old leaders were decidedly unwilling that principles should be made an issue. The Republicans declared that their candidates should be elected because their party was in power during the war, and the Democrats declared that their candidates should be elected because they were better than those of the Republicans. There was plenty of feeling developed in these contests. There were abundant appeals to hatred and revenge, to pride and prejudice and jealousy. But there was very little that appealed to the reason; that compelled voters to think and study and reason with one another. Neither the question whether one set of office-holders was better or worse than another, nor the question which of these sets would be the least treacherous in supporting civil-service reform, was interesting as a subject of rational investigation and discussion. Even the last campaign, which involved the important political question of the proper qualifications of a chief executive officer, necessarily aroused so much personal bitterness that the value of the political lesson was very much diminished.

But, thanks to the honesty and courage of the President—qualities which, in his case, rise almost to the level of genius—the political intelligence of our citizens is now furnished with a subject worthy of all its latent powers. The theory of government involved in protective tariffs is no longer to be acquiesced in. It is on the defensive, and it cannot be defended by falsehood, no matter how shamelessly proclaimed, nor by money, no matter how lavishly expended. Such means may be temporarily successful, but permanent success can be attained only by valid argument. Now that the subject has been brought before them, the mass of the people cannot long be deceived or corrupted. The issue is not of a character to arouse passion except in the breasts of protected manufacturers, and it is of a character to arouse serious thought among all who have to be careful in their expenditures. It cannot be discussed without a very considerable degree of mental exertion. Men cannot attempt to convert one another without being compelled to base their arguments upon the general principles of government, and this process is attended with permanent results. The education thus acquired is not lost; it is not a temporary possession. It will be available for future emergencies.

For many years our voters have done little but follow traditions and memories. They have blindly supported the old parties merely because they love the old party names. Many of them have never thought and never had occasion to think of the principles of popular government, and how they are to be applied and limited. But the question that is now before the American people for their decision will compel them to think on these things, and the effect of their thinking will be felt in the formation of sound habits of political reasoning. Political education of this sort is of so much value as a safeguard to our future that it would be worth purchasing at the expense of some present suffering. The defeat of the Democratic party at the coming election would be disastrous to the country, but it would be far better both for that party and for the country that it should appeal to the intelligence of the country, even if it suffer a temporary defeat, than that it should win a temporary success by avoiding that appeal.

BLAINE'S BLUNDERS.

THE speech delivered by the Greatest Living Statesman at Bangor on Thursday served formal notice upon the country that the issue of the campaign is the position of the Leader of the Party. It was wholly devoted to an effort to explain away one of the ridiculous blunders which its author made as soon as he had reached this country. Mr. Blaine began his explanation with a characteristic misstatement. We place side by side what he really said in this city, as reported in the *Tribune* of August 11, and what he now says that he said, as reported in the *Tribune* of August 24 :

WHAT HE SAID.	WHAT HE SAYS HE SAID.
The wage-workers of Great Britain and Ireland, of England, Scotland, and Ireland, *the entire savings to-day that these wage-workers can draw upon in the hour of need* in that great kingdom, are not as great as lie to-night in the savings banks of Massachusetts to the credit of the wage-workers of that small State.	In a brief speech which I made in the c ty of New York on the day of my arrival from abroad, I remarked, as illustrating the superior condition of laboring men in the United States, that the wage-workers in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland *did not have in the savings banks of that country* as large a sum to their credit as did the wage-workers of the comparatively small State of Massachusetts in the savings banks of that State.

The original statement, it will be seen, referred to "the entire savings" of the wage-workers of Great Britain and Ireland, including, of course, the Friendly and Building Societies, which hold £52,812,281 —not, as is now claimed, to the amount "in the savings banks of that country." Mr. Blaine had apparently run across the figures of the private or trustee savings banks, as they are called in Great Britain, which were by the last report £48,885,679, or $237,877,669; and, ignorantly supposing that these were the only savings institutions existing in Great Britain, and seeing that the amount fell short of the deposits in the Massachusetts savings banks, jumped to his conclusion. Since then he has found out that Great Britain has a post-office savings bank system, the deposits in which considerably exceed those in the trustee savings banks. He has referred to the article on savings banks in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' and now revises his statement as follows : "The total amount at the close of last year in both the savings and postal banks of the United Kingdom was, in round numbers, $520,000,000." The amount in the savings banks of Massachusetts at the close of last year was about $317,000,000.

Mr. Blaine thus convicts himself of having made a blunder of about two hundred million dollars, but he tries to wriggle out of it by the claim that the proportion of the total deposits made by the "wage-workers" is less in Great Britain than in Massachusetts. In order to substantiate this claim, he goes again to the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' But he does not say so. Of course not. An "intense American" consult the 'Encyclopædia Britannica'! Perish the thought. What he really did consult was "an authoritative British publication," which, however, by a remarkable coincidence, proved to read very much like a portion of the article on sav-

ings banks in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' vol. 21, page 329. Not exactly like the article. No; the differences in Mr. Blaine's version are very significant. Here is the return "showing (as nearly as could be ascertained) the number of depositors belonging to various occupations, and the amount of their deposits," at a period some years back, as it actually appears in this "authoritative British publication":

	Depositors.	Deposits.	Average.
Tradesmen and their assistants, small farmers, clerks, mechanics and artisans not described as journeymen, and their wives	296,407	£8,144,206	£27
Domestic servants, charwomen, nurses, and laundresses	257,711	6,907,388	27
Minors having accounts in their own names, including apprentices	182,636	2,426,195	13
Laborers, farm servants, journeymen, mechanics, and their wives	152,057	4,354,080	29
Females described only as married women, widows, or spinsters	138,858	4,037,458	29
Dressmakers, milliners, shopwomen, and female artisans	24,859	580,202	23
Trust accounts (principally for minors), including all joint accounts	22,347	417,786	19
Soldiers, sailors, boatmen, fishermen, policemen, letter-carriers, revenue officers, pensioners, railwaymen, and their wives	21,525	739,248	34
Persons engaged in education, male and female	10,497	327,795	31
Gentlemen, persons of independent means, professional men, and their wives	20,961	579,528	28
Miscellaneous, and persons without any given description	60,289	1,394,351	23
Total	1,188,147	£29,908,237	£25

Here is the version of it given by the guileless Shepherd of the People at Bangor:

"The whole of this sum was by no means to the credit of the wage-workers of the kingdom. Under the English law, various other classes are permitted to make deposits both in the savings and postal banks. From an authoritative British publication you may learn that persons of independent means, professional men and their wives, may deposit in these institutions; so also may policemen, letter-carriers, revenue officers, pensioners, and their wives; so also may minors having accounts in their own names; so also may 'females described only as married women, widows, or spinsters'; so also may 'trust accounts' be deposited, including all joint accounts, principally for minors; so also may persons engaged in education, male and female, which includes professors in universities and colleges, and principals and teachers in all other schools."

Now observe the series of misrepresentations. "Persons of independent means, professional men and their wives, may deposit in these institutions"—the implication of the statement being that this class of depositors is an important one. In point of fact, it will be seen, it is less than 2 per cent. "So also," Mr. Blaine continues, "may policemen, letter-carriers, revenue officers, pensioners, and their wives." True, but note the omissions which he makes in reciting this class—"soldiers, sailors, boatmen, fishermen"—at the beginning, and later see how carefully the term "railway-men" is excluded. With these omitted employments, this class, it will be seen, amounts to less than 2 per cent. of all depositors, and, pray, are not "railway-men," to say nothing of the others, wage-earners? How do they live, if not by earning wages? "So also may minors having accounts in their own names." True, and why are not the savings of the youth of eighteen, nineteen, or twenty as well worth considering as those of the young man of twenty-one, twenty-two, or twenty-three? "So also may 'females described only as married women, widows, or spinsters.'" True, and do not married women, widows, and spinsters ever work for wages in Great Britain, as so many of them do in this prosperous country—say in the mills of Lewiston, Maine? "So also may 'trust accounts' be deposited, including all joint accounts, principally for minors." True, but how much does this amount to? A little over 1 per cent. "So also may persons engaged in education, male and female, which includes professors in universities and colleges, and principals and teachers in all other schools." True, but how large is this class introduced with such a flourish? Exactly 20,961 out of 1,188,147.

Mr. Blaine goes on to speculate as to what proportion the deposits of wage-workers bear to the whole. It is not officially reported, he says, but he saw a man in England who put it as low as 10 per cent., and others who put it at about 25 per cent. If he had studied the table given above, he would have seen that all his alleged informants were deceiving him. Why, the class of "domestic servants, charwomen, nurses, and laundresses," alone—and who work harder for wages than they?—number almost 25 per cent. of the whole.

Moreover, the very article in this "authoritative British publication" which Mr. Blaine consults, and accepts as far as it serves his purpose, explains in the same column that "savings banks are *institutions for the purpose of receiving small sums of money* and investing them for the benefit of the depositors at compound interest"; that "the offer of a bonus on thrift was of necessity accompanied by provisions to guard against its being used by others than the classes it was intended to encourage"; that "this was done by limiting the amount that each depositor should be permitted to pay in" to £30 a year, and a total, including interest, of £200; and that "*not 2 per cent. of the deposits, either in number or amount, are made by classes whom it may be supposed it was the intention of the Legislature to exclude.*"

In Massachusetts, on the other hand, Mr. Blaine has found an estimate that "75 per cent. of the whole amount belongs to the wage-workers of the State." If he will turn to the report of the Savings Bank Commissioners for last year, he will find that the deposits then aggregated $302,948,624, and that $131,779,298 of this amount, or nearly one-half, was in accounts exceeding $1,000—which is above the maximum that an account is allowed to reach in Great Britain.

This is the way the Greatest Living Statesman starts the Republican campaign. One long speech for his savings bank blunder; another must be devoted to his blunder about the condition of business. How many it will take to explain away the Trusts blunder, nobody can guess.

GEN. HARRISON ON COMPETITION.

In his tariff address on August 15 at Indianapolis Gen. Harrison said:

"There are some who profess to be eager to exclude paupers and Chinese laborers, and at the same time advocate a policy that brings the American workman into competition with the products of cheap foreign labor. The disastrous effects upon our workingmen and workingwomen of competition with cheap, underpaid labor are not obviated by keeping the cheap laborer over the sea, if the product of his cheap labor is allowed free competition in our market."

This statement exhibits Gen. Harrison at his best. It is the sincere commonplace of a fair intellect equally out of touch with scientific thought and popular instincts. Its sincerity entitles it to a reply.

In the first place, it may be well to remind Gen. Harrison that the competition of those who wish to sell what we wish to buy has never been regarded with dread, even by his own leading constituents, the directors of the Trusts. The most pronounced and aggressive foes of competition have always made sharply the distinction which Gen. Harrison professes himself unable to discern. They have always been as active in bringing into our country the competition of foreign laborers as they have been in shutting out the competition of foreign labor products. As buyers of labor they have wished to buy cheap, and have imposed no restriction upon the importation of foreign labor; as the sellers of the products of labor they have wished to sell dear, and have imposed every possible restriction upon the importation of foreign labor products. The instincts of the laboring classes are finally asserting themselves in an emphatic protest against the injustice of this system. These classes are now thoroughly alive to the fact that the one commodity which they have to sell, namely, labor, is admitted free, while the commodities which they wish to buy are burdened with an extortionate taxation. If, as some of their leaders are beginning to advocate, they should turn the present system bottom side up, and admit free the commodities which they wish to buy, while absolutely shutting out the one commodity which they have to sell, they would be merely enforcing in their own interests a distinction which has always been recognized and acted upon by their employers.

Yet Gen. Harrison says that there is no distinction. The popular instinct he fails to feel; the scientific argument he fails to see. Only recently did he learn that there was any possible evil in the importation of foreign laborers. Having finally admitted this, he tries to use the admission to buttress up his traditional belief that there was every possible evil in the importation of foreign goods. The suggested parallel is interesting. The argument against unrestricted immigration has been admirably stated by Prof. R. M. Smith in the last number of the *Political*

Science Quarterly. In brief it is this: Unrestricted immigration decreases our average wealth, even though it increases our aggregate wealth. The average wealth of our citizens is $1,000 per capita, that of the immigrants not more than $100. The average well-being of our community is therefore lowered by their arrival. The question is not one of the greatest possible production of national wealth, but of its best possible distribution. The immigrants are laborers. Their presence therefore adds to the wealth of the rich, who wish to buy labor cheap, but diminishes the earnings of the poor, who are equally interested in selling their labor dear.

Turning now to the importation of foreign goods, where is the similarity? So long as the "pauper laborers" remain on the other side, no increase in our *aggregate* wealth is possible without a corresponding increase in our *average* wealth. No problem in mental arithmetic could be more simple. Yet the fact that our aggregate wealth is increased by the importation of foreign goods is as obvious as that it is increased by the importation of foreign labor. Not even so "uninstructed" an economist as Gen. Harrison could maintain that any nation would continue to send its products abroad unless that which it received in return was of greater aggregate value. Here again the question is not so much one of the greatest possible production of wealth as of its best possible distribution. The importation of foreign goods subjects to competition the rich and not the poor. The poorer classes own none of the commodities which the policy of exclusion makes dear. Yet they must buy the bulk of these commodities, and are interested in buying them untaxed. The effect of the importation of cheap goods is in every way diametrically opposite to the effect of the importation of cheap labor.

It is a fortunate circumstance that this distinction between the importation of cheap products and the importation of cheap labor is becoming as clear to the laboring classes as it always has been to their employers. Gen. Harrison's assertion that he can see no distinction will not seriously confuse matters. All over the world the clamor for protection comes entirely from the parties which represent the plutocracy. The parties which represent the poor are everywhere against it. Even the Socialists, in spite of their bias in favor of State interference, have everywhere joined hands with the Liberals in resisting protection as the worst form of indirect taxation, and indirect taxation as the chief instrument in the oppression and plundering of the masses. The workingmen may not comprehend the question of national economy involved in protection or free trade, but they do comprehend the question of personal economy involved in the taxation or non-taxation of necessities. The fear of cheap goods will not terrify them. When, therefore, Gen. Harrison offers them *protection by extortionate taxation*, and President Cleveland offers them *protection from extortionate taxation*, there is little doubt which they will choose. On this question, popular instincts are entirely in accord with scientific thought.

IMMIGRATION AND WAGES.

In a debate in the House on the 20th instant on the Chinese Immigration Bill, Mr. Dingley of Maine undertook to define the policy of the Republican party in reference to foreign immigration. "I believe," he said, "that I speak for this side of the House when I say that we have always been ready, that we are ready now, to amend or strengthen the present law prohibiting contract labor, if the President shall inform Congress that it needs amendment in order to accomplish the end sought; and that we further ask that it shall be faithfully enforced. [Applause.]" Then he went on to tell what he thought about the other kind of immigration and its effect upon the wages of our own laborers. He said:

> "The logic of protection requires that it should be applied not only to the imported products of cheap labor, but also to imported labor *under contract made abroad to work at foreign cheap wages*. The sober, industrious, voluntary immigrant who comes here to improve his situation and become an American in every sense of the term, and who has entire freedom of choice after his arrival, demands and soon receives *American wages*; and their coming in such numbers as are likely to voluntarily leave old homes *will not reduce the wages of labor*."

We might simply turn Mr. Dingley over to the buffetings of Mr. Powderly, with assured confidence that Mr. Dingley would get the worst of it. But we cannot refrain from saying that Mr. Dingley's argument is delusive if not insincere. Do the importers of contract labor make contracts to pay only "foreign cheap wages"? How many new hands would they get on such terms? Of course they must offer something better than foreign cheap wages to induce them to abandon the ties of home and country, so dear to every human creature. But, continues Mr. Dingley, the voluntary immigrant "demands and soon receives American wages, and their coming in such numbers as are likely to voluntarily leave old homes will not reduce the wages of labor." The assumption here is that American wages are a fixed sum or stipend, which a voluntary immigrant is sure to get, while an imported contract laborer gets something less, namely, "foreign cheap wages." Every laboring man, whether native or foreign, imported or volunteer, knows that wages, whether high or low, are, at any given time, the quotient reached by dividing the wages-fund of that particular time by the number of laborers; and that, of the two kinds of immigrants, that one receives the higher wage who has made his bargain beforehand, knows just what he has to do, and loses no time looking for a job.

Twelve hundred immigrants per day coming hither will not reduce the wages of labor, forsooth. Mr. Dingley will never get the laboring men to believe that. Testimony taken by the English Parliamentary Commission on the "Sweating System" is directly opposed to Mr. Dingley's thesis. It has been shown, and the showing has produced an unpleasant surprise, that there is a lower deep for the East End of London than anybody a dozen years ago could have thought possible. The condition of the working classes in that metropolis has deteriorated in a marked degree within that period. The reason is that, degraded as were the English poor, there were still poorer and more degraded ones on the Continent of Europe—vast numbers of them, to whom the small wage obtainable in the East End of London was a boon and a betterment. So these poorer ones flocked to London, and, being unused to English ways and English speech, fell into the hands of middlemen or "sweaters," who took a slice off their earnings. The revelations before the Parliamentary Commission have been a train of horrors almost beyond belief. To say, as Mr. Dingley does, that "their coming in such numbers as are likely to voluntarily leave old homes will not reduce the wages of labor," is either to ignore all the facts brought out by the Commission on the Sweating System, or to assume that what has happened in England cannot, on account of the greater distance, happen here. But it is only too plain that distance has ceased to be any obstacle to immigration. Any Italian, Hungarian, Bohemian, Pole, or proscribed Russian Jew who can migrate to London can migrate to New York.

That the sweating system exists here also has been abundantly shown in the course of the investigation of the Ford Committee now in progress. Wages in cloak-making, shirt-making, and similar trades, formerly $9 to $10 per week, have been reduced to $5 by the competition of the "pauper labor of Europe" brought to our own doors and coming daily. But sweating is only one boil on a diseased body. The sweater takes advantage of the ignorance of the swarms from Castle Garden. Mr. Ammidown, President of the American Protective Tariff League, and publisher of the *Bulletin* of that organization, takes advantage of their numbers to fill his mill at Passaic with Hungarian immigrants. The *Bulletin* is filled with ejaculations addressed to workingmen on the subject of the pauper labor of Europe. Yet he has the effrontery to write a letter saying that "there is no more faithful, sober, thrifty, intelligent, and self-respecting class of operatives in the country than those same Hungarians." This may be true, although Mr. Powderly finds them of a different type in the coal regions of Pennsylvania. But the point is not whether they are sober, thrifty, and intelligent, but whether they are the *pauper labor of Europe*, that so horrifies Mr. Ammidown in his *Bulletin*.

Looking at the long string of delusions that have imposed upon the simplicity of mankind at various stages of the world's history, there is none more amazing than the idea that a man who is actually employing the pauper labor of Europe in his own factory, and using every exertion to get labor at the lowest sale—such men as Ammidown and Carnegie and the rest, for they are all alike in this regard—is really concerned lest the pauper labor of Europe shall reduce the wages of American workmen. These men subscribe for newspapers like the *Press*, to be sent gratis to their operatives, or to such of them as can read English, telling them that their wages will be reduced by European competition if the Mills bill becomes a law.

Yet their wages *are* reduced every time it suits these employers to hire a fresh lot of hands from the Old World. Instead of giving heed to such barefaced lies, the workmen ought to twist these newspapers into a gag for the mouth of every protectionist orator or colporteur who shows himself inside their shops.

Nobody blames Mr. Ammidown and Mr. Carnegie or even the Trusts and Combines for employing the cheapest labor they can find. Manufacturing cannot be conducted on eleemosynary principles. A certain amount of philanthropy may be mixed with it on condition that the philanthropy is strictly subordinate to the business. No reasonable complaint can be made if the philanthropy is left out altogether. It is one of the necessities of the manufacturer that he should employ the cheapest labor that can be had, lest he be undersold by others and driven out of business. All that we can ask is, that in leaving out philanthropy he shall leave out hypocrisy also, and not pretend that he is solicitous to secure high wages to his workmen when he is, and necessarily must be, seeking the very opposite.

ENGLISH RAILWAY LEGISLATION.

For the past three sessions a contest concerning railroad regulation has been going on in Parliament not unlike that which we ourselves have recently seen in Congress. To understand what has been done we must look back over the general history of English railroad legislation, and see how the conditions in that country have differed from our own.

England has never had the liberty of railroad construction which has been allowed in this country. Each road required a special charter, given only after strict investigation. Such charters originally contained long sets of provisions with regard to rates and fares, modelled on the old canal tolls, but much more complicated. At first the whole matter was treated independently in each charter. In 1845, by the Clauses Consolidation Act, a general form was established, which was only altered where the special necessities of any particular case demanded it.

All the English railroads were thus limited to maximum rates of fare and freight; but the majority of these maxima proved of no effect, because the railroads were able to do their work at so much lower rates than had been anticipated. They could thus carry their charges almost indefinitely within the legal maxima, and produce all the evils of uncontrolled discrimination. After one or two premature efforts by Parliament to establish a Railway Commission, the courts were directed to deal with this matter by an important act in 1854, which forbade all preferences. This soon put a stop to the worst forms of personal discrimination; but it left local differences untouched. These differences were specially hard to deal with in England, because of the number of stations whose railroad traffic was directly subject to water competition. Such is the extent of English coast line, of navigable rivers and canals, that, according to the estimate of a recent Parliamentary committee, two-fifths of the stations in the kingdom are affected in this way.

So great were these difficulties that nothing positive was done till 1873. The "Regulation of Railways Act" of that year provided for the establishment of a Railway Commission of three members, who should possess the special qualifications which would enable them to take cognizance of cases which the courts had been unwilling to consider. The experiment was far from being as successful as had been hoped. The Commission had at once too much authority and too little. It was empowered to decide a great many things, but was not given sufficient power to enforce its decisions. The railroads resisted its authority, the courts sometimes sided with the railroads, and during its whole existence it has accomplished little in the way of settlement of disputed questions.

There has been a growing demand for additional legislation which should strengthen the public control over railroads, especially in the matter of local discrimination. A moderate bill was brought forward in 1886; another of the same general character, but pretty obviously influenced by our own Inter-State Commerce Act, was introduced by the present Government in 1887. This has been gradually amended in the direction of greater stringency on some points and greater vagueness on others. On the whole, the English law seems much stricter than ours, but it is impossible to speak with confidence on this point, because many important sections are so worded as to be uncertain in their effects.

Of this character is that part of the act corresponding to our "long-and-short-haul clause." It forbids charging more for a shorter than for a longer distance for the same service. It is so loosely drawn that some people think that it demands equal mileage rates—a system which could not be enforced without disaster. It does not contain the limiting clause that the shorter shall be included within the longer distance—an omission which will make it much more difficult to apply.

The most specific provision under this head is one which prohibits preferential rates for foreign merchandise. This clause was not in the original bill. It was inserted through the influence of the agricultural interest in the House of Lords. The state of things which gave rise to this legislation has been somewhat peculiar. In order to share in supplying the London market with American beef, the railroads from Liverpool or Glasgow have been compelled to make a combined water and rail rate which should be as low as the direct water rate from New York to London. This left the railroads a very small margin above operating expenses; and they could not possibly apply such rates to their whole traffic. The effect of this clause probably will be to cause more shipments of American products to London direct, instead of via Liverpool or Glasgow. There will be a similar effect on the traffic from Continental Europe. It remains to be seen whether the chief expense of the change will be borne by producers or by consumers.

The Commission is continued, but its composition has been somewhat changed. It is to consist of two "appointed" and three ex-officio members. One of the latter is a judge nominated by the Lord Chancellor in England, the others by the corresponding authorities in Scotland and Ireland. Each judicial member acts as chairman for cases which arise in his kingdom, and is assisted by the two appointed members; his authority on questions of law is nominally final, but is, in fact, a good deal limited, because his colleagues have an equal voice in deciding just what is a question of law as distinct from one of fact.

The motives for this arrangement are clear. So much trouble arose from conflicts between the Commissioners and the courts under the Act of 1873 that it was thought wise to bring the new Commission into closer relations with the judiciary of the three kingdoms. But the wisdom of the plan adopted is not so clear. More may be lost than is gained. The law is extremely vague; the right to interpret it is practically given to three distinct judges for three different parts of the country. If the views of these judges are not wholly in harmony, the development of a body of railroad-commission law, such as we have seen in America within the last year, will be quite impossible.

To make matters worse, the Commission is not the only body which is given independent power under the act. The Board of Trade has, under the "maximum clauses" of the charters, always had a certain nominal power over classifications and rates; it is proposed to make that power a real one. In other words, the judicial and administrative powers of our own Commission are separated; the former is given, with various additions, to the Railway Commissioners, the latter to the Board of Trade. But such a separation could be carried out only on condition that the powers of the Board of Trade were accurately defined. The act conspicuously fails to do this. It leaves the Board such a wide discretion in determining what are reasonable rates that they must, if they use their powers at all, be forced to exercise judicial functions. It was in this way that the judicial authority of the Inter-State Commerce Commission took its rise. But if anything of the kind happens in England, there will at once be a conflict of authority. It is this lack of unity in the means of enforcement which seems to us the most vital defect of the English law in its present form. We do not believe that it will seriously injure the railroads, as such a thing would do in this country; but we fear that it will retard the development of a sound and practical law on railroad transportation.

THE BETRAYER OF LA SALLE.

Santa Fé, August 13, 1888.

The fate of the men who, in 1687, conspired against Robert Cavelier de la Salle, and finally murdered him, has been told by Mr. Francis Parkman, as far as the murderers proper,

Duhaut and Liotot, are concerned. Of their main accomplice, L'Archevêque, only so much was known (as Mr. Parkman has had the kindness to inform me), viz., that he and another companion in crime, the sailor Grollet, were captured by Alonzo de Leon in Texas two years after La Salle's death, and probably sent to Spain. What afterwards became of them had not been ascertained.

Two months ago, while searching the archives of the Pueblo of Ka-Po or Santa Clara (New Mexico) for documents of historical import, in behalf of the Hemenway Southwestern Archæological Expedition, my attention was drawn, among others, to the great number of manuscripts called in Spanish *Diligencias matrimoniales*. They are investigations made on the petition of parties applying for license to marry, and consist in the main of the application of him or her, and of the examination of witnesses in regard to the standing of the applicants, their relations to each other, etc. Among these I found at Santa Clara one headed: "Ynformacion de Pedro Meusnier, francés.—1699." The fact that a Frenchman should be found in New Mexico at such an early date, and in face of the stringent laws of Spain against the admittance of foreigners into the colonies, appeared interesting. My interest soon increased upon discovering that Meusnier had come over to America in the fleet commanded by "Monsieur de La Sala" in 1684. This is testified to by two witnesses, one of whom signs himself Juan de Archeueque, while the other, rather illiterate, has not signed, but states in his deposition that he is a native of La Rochelle, and his name is given as "Santiago Groslee." Both these witnesses claim to have come over with Meusnier in the same fleet, and in the year 1684 also. Both Meusnier and Archeueque were in 1699 soldiers of the garrison of Santa Fé; Groslee was a resident of that town.

There was only one L'Archevêque in La Salle's ill-fated expedition, and the evidence seemed quite conclusive that this was the one whose signature I had before me at Santa Clara. Mr. Parkman, to whom I communicated the fact, also inclined to the belief that he was the fellow who enticed La Salle into the fatal snare, while Groslee seemed to be Grollet the sailor. I have since found the latter as Grolle and Groli in two official documents now in my possession. As late as 1705 he was a resident of the little town of Bernalillo, on the Rio Grande. Of Meusnier I have not been able to find any further trace as yet.

But the chief interest to me rested in the person of L'Archevêque, the more so since there is to-day in New Mexico a family calling themselves Archibeque, and of whom it is surmised, at least, that they are of French descent. Furthermore, I had met, in documents antedating 1720, the name and declarations of a Capt. Juan de Archiveque. It was but natural to suspect that the Captain of the War Councils of 1715 and of 1720 was the same man as the private soldier of 1699; the more so since at the latter council, where the project of the ill-fated reconnoissance to the Arkansas River was discussed, the said Capt. Archibeque strongly recommended it, alleging in its favor, among other reasons, that it would procure definite information in regard to "his countrymen the French."

Researches at the archives of the U. S. Surveyor-General's office at Santa Fé brought to light documents which impart valuable information. There is in the first place a transfer to Juan de Archibeque, "a soldier," of certain real estate in Santa Fé, in the year 1701. Lastly, there is "the Inventory of the goods and chattels of the Captain Juan de Archibeque, a Frenchman," bearing date 1720. From this manuscript we gather that our man accompanied the expedition to the Arkansas which he had so strongly advocated, and that he, with some forty-three other Spaniards, was killed there by the Pawnee Indians on the 17th of August of the same year. This, by the way, is the expedition to which Mr. Shea refers in his 'Peñalosa.' The official investigation held at Mexico in regard to it is also in my possession.

We further gather that Archibeque was twice married, and left two legitimate and two illegitimate children; that after leaving the military service he became a successful trader, extending his trading tours into Sonora, and sometimes buying directly at the City of Mexico. His estate, after settlement, yielded 6,118 pesos to the heirs, an amount quite respectable for the time. Upon a second visit to Santa Clara I found there at last the *Diligencia matrimonial* of l'Archeueque *alias* Archibeque. It bears date 1697, and his (first) wife was the widow of Thomas de Ytta, murdered in 1694 near Zacatecas by a mulatto. She herself was a native of Tezcuco, in the valley of Mexico.

The life of him who served as decoy to the murderers of the great French pioneer becomes thus sketched almost in full: Jean l'Archevêque was born at Bayonne in France in 1671 or '72, and came over to America when only twelve or thirteen years of age. When he played the odious rôle on the bank of the little creek in Texas, he was a boy of sixteen. This indicates precocious depravity, or, perhaps, to be charitable, boyish ignorance. He was picked up by the Spaniards among Indians in 1689. Of the eight years following I have as yet no information, but I have no doubt of finding documents which will shed light on that period. In 1696 he appears as a soldier of the "Presidio" of Santa Fé, and claims the hand of the widow of a murdered man. One year later, when sufficient proof is at last furnished that Thomas de Ytta is really dead, he gets married. In 1701 he becomes property-holder at Santa Fé, afterwards a successful trader and a respected and experienced "capitan." As such he foments an expedition whose indirect purpose is against his own countrymen, and in the course of that expedition he is killed—a strange and wild career, worthy of its beginnings upon American soil. His son, Miguel de Archibeque, was, as far as I can determine, the ancestor of the present family of that name.

It is noteworthy that L'Archevêque was the youngest of the three Frenchmen implicated in La Salle's murder who turned up in New Mexico. Grollet was his senior by at least seven years, and Meusnier was one year older than L'Archevêque. The former was, as already stated, a native of La Rochelle, and Meusnier a Parisian.

AD. F. BANDELIER.

IRISH AFFAIRS.

DUBLIN, August 12, 1888.

THE "Members of Parliament (Charges and Allegations) Bill," called by many Unionists the "Parnell Commission Bill," and by many Home Rulers the "*Times* Forgery Bill," passed the House of Lords last night. Everything connected with this bill is unfortunate for the relations between England and Ireland—the circumstances which gave it birth, the angry passions that have been aroused during its discussion, the unsettlement and bad feeling certain to exist during the inevitably long sittings of the Commission. The Commission constituted under the bill is not to try whether Mr. Parnell and his party are accessory to murder and outrage, but to show that they have not always borne themselves regarding murder and outrage, and acted in relation to the law, as the plethoric English middle and jingo classes say men should invariably act—as they claim they would themselves act under all circumstances.

The present Irish movement had its rise ten years ago. It was the outcome of Irish history, of an intolerable agrarian system, and, more than is generally supposed, of the treatment of the Fenian prisoners. It was led by Mr. Parnell and several other young men, some of them almost lads, most of them directly sons of the people, with only a village education, often with the narrowest views of life, imbued with deep hatred of England and the English. Those who have studied the history of political thought in England during the present century know how bitter at times has been political feeling there; they must know something of what was said and done, and must have tried to imagine what they themselves would have said and done and left unsaid in certain circumstances. In this Irish struggle there has been like bitterness, and there has been involved a national question, a class question almost comparable to that of your Southern planters, and a rancorous hopelessness such as English political contests have never known.

Mr. Parnell has welded together the extreme and discordant elements of Irish thought and action at home and abroad by recognizing the central possibilities of union in all, by never denouncing or ostracizing, by letting others pursue their different orbits, secure, in his own powers of attraction, that all would converge to him. I have known direct private appeals made to him to silence or modify the extreme proceedings and utterances of certain of his followers, and his reply has invariably been: "No; it is natural they should think and act so; leave them to themselves and they will unconsciously moderate." Had Parnell done as O'Connell or Butt did in like circumstances, his party would long ago have collapsed. He has brought the Irish people to believe as they never before believed in constitutional agitation. There was a time, before the discovery of dynamite, when they believed in little but "Greek fire," or shooting from behind a hedge. I can well remember when Irish national poetry and feeling breathed only a spirit of hatred towards England; and later when the mass of our people manifested their nationality by marching to the chorus of "We'll pull down the alien rag in our own beloved, dearest island home." All is now changed; Englishmen are the most popular speakers in Irish national assemblies, our leaders address ten words to English audiences for one they address to Irish, the centre of interest has changed from the hedgerow and the dusty, noisy popular gathering to Westminster, and the Irish people with perfect equanimity hear their representatives discussing the terms upon which a lasting and permanent union is to be effected with their once hated neighbors.

Is all that has been gained during the past ten years to be cancelled? This question of Irish outrage is an awful one, concerning which it is difficult to be entirely candid. Mr. Parnell and his party never knowingly compassed or encouraged murder and outrage. But when men believe, as most of us believed, that murder and outrage were a sure consequence of the mental condition in which affairs had placed us, and when men believe, as most of us believed after the calamitous experience of a generation and the sad knowledge of history, that nothing but murder and outrage would arouse English attention to our wrongs—well, human nature is fallible; few of us live entirely in ac-

cordance with the dictates of the Sermon on the Mount. I often shudder at the state of mind prevalent during the Forster régime. One of the best and most useful citizens I know, a Protestant, occupying a leading mercantile position, instant in good works, once said in my hearing: "Don't you know that if Forster had been then assassinated, we should all have rejoiced, as our opponents would now rejoice if Parnell were assassinated?" The murders of 1882, and such events as the boycotting of the Curtin family, were, I think, a terrible awakening. Age and experience had begun to do their work. In these murders, as in a mirror, were shown the inevitable results of a certain state of feeling in Ireland. And I believe the present agitation would then have been largely abandoned by the present leaders, had they not begun to see that the English people were becoming convinced, and that the desired end could be gained by influencing English opinion. Mr. Parnell, so far as I can recollect, has addressed no outdoor Irish audience since 1882.

This Commission is a superb piece of tactics, so far as passing party purposes are concerned; but it is a lamentable blunder as to the relations between England and Ireland. Were half the implications and charges which the most rancorous Liberal Unionists make true, they would still be better ignored. The Irish Parliamentary party are the ambassadors of a people. There is nothing they have done or said, nothing they could do or say, that would not be understood and excused (because understood) by the Irish nation. Some settlement may be postponed—surely Mr. Balfour does not propose to substitute his policy for a settlement. Mr. Parnell and his party form a body of men matured and rendered reasonable by suffering and experience, who can bind by agreement the Irish people as few leaders could have bound them in the past, and as it would be long in the future before another Irish party could be got together to bind them. The Commission can decide nothing. If the Parnellites come out of it like driven snow, that will not alter the question of union (or disunion, as Mr. Dicey and the logical exponents of the Liberal Unionists would put it). If the Commission on the whole declare against them, both Liberals and Nationalists will remember that it was a commission constituted and chosen for a party purpose, regarding whose details and scope of inquiry all important attentions suggested by the accused parties and their friends were vigorously negatived.

There is much less definiteness in Irish politics at present than there has been for some years. To some extent, affairs are in solution again, and we cannot tell what may result. The suspense is weary, at times nearly intolerable. Still, it may be all for the best—better than a hasty settlement years ago. It is as well, perhaps, that the present system should be fully tested. There is less talk on the subject (out of the newspapers) than there used to be, because everything has been said, every one who has a mind to make up has made it up, and we have become used to the severing of old friendships and to the avoidance of political discussion in mixed companies. Although no Government in Ireland was ever more intelligently hated, the mass of our people are, I think, for the time somewhat tired of fierce political agitation, so far as it does not seem to concern their immediate interests and amusements. Lately I heard a Nationalist railway official complain that on his line one Sunday, when there were cheap trips to a foot-ball match and to a political gathering, the former was crowded and the latter neglected. The continued migration of the healthiest and best of our populace to your shores has, to say the least, a quieting effect. The Registrar-General's return shows, as usual, a steady decline in our population within the last year. When a maid-servant went yesterday from my house to pay a visit in one of the most contented and prosperous agricultural portions of Ireland, I expressed a hope that she would have a pleasant time, and perhaps some dancing. "Oh no! that was not likely. Most of the young people of the neighborhood had gone to America." I can recognize in popular feeling more tendency to urge individual, class, and trade interests than there was a few years ago—less willingness to merge everything in one supreme political struggle. This is good, in so far as it may remove from the path of future legislators under home rule the fearful difficulty of satisfying a people imbued with the belief that legislation is omnipotent to produce individual happiness and general prosperity. The Papal brief, whatever may be said to the contrary, is patently having a sedative effect. The "nevers" and "for evers" of the leaders on both sides are as loud as ever, but a spirit of compromise is in the air.

Surely some better way of settling public questions than by party will yet be evolved. At times the political atmosphere is almost insufferable, and one feels the almost uselessness of reading newspapers on either side or listening to the utterances of public men (Mr. Morley, in many respects, excepted). They afford no light on a given state of things and given facts. Such a party such an opinion, seems the rule.

Whatever truth there may be in the foregoing considerations, certain facts appear to me evident regarding Ireland. (1.) It is impossible that the present contemptuous bureaucracy can be permanently maintained despite the general public opinion of the country. Even if we Irish were all unreliable, thievish liars, in order to obtain any peace we must somehow be made to govern ourselves and suffer for our own shortcomings. (2.) Nothing can permanently shake the confidence of the Irish people in their Parliamentary party, and nothing can satisfy them but some form of responsible national life.

—Since writing the foregoing, the interest of the situation has been intensified by the announcement that Mr. Parnell has taken action against the *Times* in the Scotch courts. The proceedings there and before the Commission will be followed with breathless interest.

I cannot but regard as a sign of the times a letter which Mr. Davitt has just published concerning distress in the islands of Arran and elsewhere in the west. He cites the wealth and power of the Catholic Church in Ireland:

"In a portion of one archdiocese over £70,000 have been collected and expended for building purposes within a period of ten years. A memorial church is now being built to O'Connell in an impoverished locality at a cost of £25,000. A bazaar recently held in Dublin (for what precise object the public scarcely knew) realized over £4,000. Costly churches and convents can be erected, even in the poorest districts of the country, with comparative ease, while kindred works in support of religion are constantly going on all over Ireland."

He then goes on to ask whether "the preservation of a people in the land where they have imbibed their faith, is not a work worthy of the attention of the Church to which they belong," and whether it might not be well if the Church turned its resources more towards improving the material condition of the people. No popular Nationalist Catholic leader would have thus publicly expressed himself some years ago.

D. B.

MORE REVELATIONS OF BENJAMIN CONSTANT.

PARIS, August 18.

THE papers of Benjamin Constant were left in 1835 to the Public Library of Geneva by his cousin, Charles Constant de Rebecque, with the proviso that they should not be communicated to the public under thirty years—that is to say, before 1865. The family asked the tribunal of Geneva for a further delay, but the tribunal only consented to extend the interdiction till 1867. M. Crépet was therefore able to publish, in a review which exists no longer, the *Revue Nationale*, two articles on Benjamin, which were full of new documents; but he was very cautious in his selection, and there were, besides, some papers of Constant's which he did not see. The letters of the famous orator to his aunt, the Countess of Nassau, had been quite forgotten in a trunk, where they were only found in 1884. M. Dufour, the librarian of Geneva, has but lately made a complete inventory of the letters and papers of Benjamin Constant. Some of these letters have been published lately in Italy, where they created a great sensation, and we have now before us, in the shape of a volume, a selection of the most important among the four hundred which are kept at Geneva.

We must say something first of the ordinary correspondents of Constant. His family was of French origin; the Constants de Rebecque lived in the province of Artois, in the north of France. After the religious wars, they settled in Switzerland; one of them, the Baron de Constant, was a friend of Voltaire's. He lived at Lausanne, which then possessed a brilliant aristocracy, whose members took service in the armies of France and Holland. Voltaire saw much of Samuel de Constant, who was a young and handsome man; and we find in the 'Vie intime de Voltaire aux Délices et à Ferney,' published by Lucien Perey and Gaston Maugras, that notwithstanding her forty-seven years, the niece of Voltaire, the inflammable Mme. Denis, fell in love with the young Constant. He married, however, Charlotte Pictet, and had four children, one of whom left the Constant papers to the library of Geneva.

Rosalie, the eldest daughter, became one of the principal correspondents of Benjamin Constant, who was her first cousin. Benjamin was the son of Juste de Constant (not of Samuel, as some biographers have said); his mother died when he was born; at the age of seven he was sent to Holland with a preceptor. He was a brilliant child—so much so that his family kept his letters. He lost at an early age his grandmother, and her place near him was taken by his aunt, Mlle. de Chandieu, who had married a Count of Nassau, but had almost immediately separated from him. Mme. de Nassau became a second mother to young Benjamin. Two persons, Rosalie de Constant, his first cousin, who never married, and his aunt, Mme. de Nassau, remained during his whole life his best friends and advisers.

We will not relate here the history of Constant. He was very wild and eccentric in his youth; he was also clever and intelligent, as his first letters show. The collection of those to his family begins as far back as 1775. While he was still very young, he married a lady-in-waiting of the Duchess of Brunswick; the marriage was not a happy one, and Constant was divorced from his wife, as well as from his post of Chamberlain at Brunswick. It was on the 19th of September, 1794, that Benjamin Constant was presented to Mme. de Staël, who was well acquainted with the members of the Constant family, and who was

already much admired at Lausanne for her extraordinary genius. The cousin Rosalie said at once, speaking of Mme. de Staël and Benjamin: "She is stronger than he." This first meeting was the beginning of a *liaison*, to use the French word, which lasted fifteen years, and whose incidents are the most dramatic part of the correspondence which is before us.

The passion of Mme. de Staël and of Benjamin Constant was extremely stormy. We find them together at first in 1795, not far from Paris. He has espoused all the ideas of Mme. de Staël; he writes to his uncle: "I have the best hopes of the destinies of the Republic." Mme. de Staël writes at the same moment some "Reflections on the Peace of the Interior." They both think that France will find her way "between despotism and anarchy." In 1796, after fighting a duel with a journalist in Paris (a bloodless duel, which, however, put Mme. de Staël almost beside herself), Constant joined her at Lausanne. Here is a curious account of a visit of Rosalie Constant to Mme. de Staël:

"I have seen two or three times my cousin Staël and my cousin *le tondu* [Benjamin, who had cut his hair, in the revolutionary fashion]. The day before yesterday I made them a visit. I found her between the fox [M. de Tracy], the kitten [Adrien de Meun], and the other [Benjamin], having one of her elbows on the breast of one and taking another by the head, while the third one held her by the neck and called her 'good little cat.' This picture somewhat disgusted me."

Cousin Rosalie admired the genius of Mme. de Staël, but did not admire her manners, and she felt very sorry that Benjamin should be completely under her sway. In 1796 Constant published a pamphlet under the title 'On the Strength of the Present Government and the Necessity of Rallying to it.' Two thousand copies were sold in a fortnight, and a second edition was issued in 1797. Mme. de Staël became, in 1797, the mother of a daughter, Albertine de Staël, who afterwards became the Duchesse de Broglie. Benjamin Constant was intimately acquainted with the Director Barras, and confessed in his letters being under many obligations to him. Though he wrote on the necessity of supporting the Republican Government, he had not many illusions as to its vitality; he wrote to his aunt: "The Goverment has not a sou; the negotiations with the Empire and with England are on the point of being broken off; those who buy the *biens nationaux* [the confiscated property of the *émigrés*] are assassinated every day; the country people are fanatical; the patriots are calumniated in the most horrible manner."

He was living at that moment at Hérivaux, on the edge of the great Chantilly forest, in a most quiet and deserted place, where he is still remembered, though he only remained in it two years. Mme. de Staël made him long visits, and he made long visits to Paris. In 1799 Benjamin Constant was appointed a member of the Tribunate. Mme. de Staël and he were now completely before the world. In 1802 M. de Staël died, and it has often been disputed whether Mme. de Staël, who was now free, entertained or not the idea of a marriage with Constant. The publisher of his letters to his family thinks that Constant himself did not wish to marry Mme. de Staël, and that his sister Rosalie was the only member of the Constant family who desired it; she writes to her brother: "You know the romantic story of M. de Staël. Benjamin must be at Coppet. Everybody sees reasons against the marriage; to me, it seems certain." But, on the 7th of July, 1802, two months afterwards, she is less positive: "We have had Benjamin for a few days. . . . His character is that of a malicious child who is always guided by the present, and on whom it is impossible to count. He seems to me to be in great fear of a marriage which I thought at first could not fail." Benjamin Constant knew that he had a master in Mme. de Staël. As long as he was not married to her, he felt that he had a chance of becoming free; he did not wish to alienate his liberty completely. She seems not to have wished it any more than he, and to have been contented with the state of things as it was. Rosalie writes to her brother on the 5th of August, 1804: "It seemed to me so natural that she should marry Benjamin, when she became free, that I did not have a doubt on the subject. It seems that they had both such a fear of it that they understood each other on the subject. . . . They hold each other by the intellect. No other man offers to her the resources of his mind. She wishes absolutely to keep him, and she succeeds, sometimes by the force of habit, sometimes by despotism, sometimes by services. He remains, but he murmurs."

He did not always content himself with murmuring, and he began to look for a wife. When Bonaparte ordered Mme. de Staël, who was making opposition to him, to retire to a distance of forty leagues from the capital, she left for Germany, and at such a moment Constant accompanied her, but deserted her at Berlin. Hearing soon afterwards that Necker was seriously ill, he left for Lausanne, and started immediately for Coppet. On the road he met the coachman of Mme. Necker, who came to announce to him the death of the former Minister of Louis XVI. The situation remained the same between Mme. de Staël and Benjamin Constant.

In a letter of December 14, 1800, to his cousin Rosalie, we find this mention: "I should like to know what has become of Mme. de Marenholtz or de Hardenberg, who is about thirty-one years old, and, if Victor has seen her, if she has spoken of me." Mlle. de Hardenberg, of a good Hanoverian family, had married a M. de Marenholtz, and the marriage had been so unhappy that she was divorced. "Though she is neither young, nor pretty, nor wealthy, she is not old, nor ugly, nor poor," wrote Rosalie concerning this person, who became the wife of Benjamin Constant. We see that even as far back as 1800 he was thinking of her. The marriage only took place on December 10, 1808. If you read the letters of Rosalie to her brother during the period which preceded the marriage, you will not be surprised that Benjamin Constant wished to make a change in his life. The scenes which Rosalie describes are almost incredible. "You don't know," she says, "the passionate character, the extreme violence, the despotism of this woman [Mme. de Staël]. She believes that her intellect gives her the right to rule over the whole universe. She wants to have slaves, especially Benjamin, whose mind suits her better than any other." What followed the marriage is worthy of the wildest novel. Though he was married, Benjamin Constant remained at Coppet, and did not dare to leave, for fear, he said, of pushing Mme. de Staël to desperate extremities. Finally, his cousin Rosalie made him feel the ridiculousness and odium of his position, and he ran away. He had kept his marriage secret for some time, and only declared it in 1809. Altogether, it is difficult to say who behaved worst in this extraordinary drama.

The father of Benjamin Constant died in 1812. He had given much trouble to his son, and had had two natural children by a servant, whom he finally married. Constant published in 1814 at Hanover his pamphlet on 'The Spirit of Conquest.' He followed King Bernadotte to Liége, and thought at that moment of defending his candidacy to the throne of France. After the return of the Bourbons he came back to Paris, and wrote several political pamphlets. He lost his aunt, the Countess of Nassau, in the month of May, 1814. About that time he fell in love with Mme. Récamier, and it was probably to please her that he wrote his famous article of March 19, 1815, in which he bitterly attacked the savage Corsican who had left Elba. A few weeks afterwards he became a member of the Council of State of the "savage Corsican." He was a gambler; he had no principles, though he was fond of writing on constitutions and laws; he looked upon life as a lottery. His famous 'Adolphe' appeared in January, 1816. Everybody recognized him in 'Adolphe,' and this novel has, in consequence, not been entirely forgotten, and it is still read occasionally by those who take some interest in Constant and in Mme. de Staël. During the Restoration Benjamin Constant remained one of the advocates of constitutionalism and of parliamentary government, and after the Revolution of 1830 he was made a Councillor. King Louis Philippe gave him 200,000 francs to pay his debts, and he died shortly afterwards. After his death the letters of Mme. de Staël to him were claimed by the Duchesse de Broglie, and were returned to her. The readers of the new volume will not find a line in it from Mme. de Staël herself; all the letters, without exception, are those addressed by Benjamin Constant himself to the members of his own family.

Correspondence.

PROTECTION AND WAGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Among other things, I have been studying the labor question here, without books. Our laboring men are ranch-hands and cowboys. We pay the former forty dollars, and the latter forty-five and fifty dollars per month —about twice the amount paid for the same kind of labor in the States. Two brothers came out here last spring from the State of Maine, where they were paid twenty dollars per month for farm work, and are now at work on this ranch for forty dollars per month. While their present high wages are, no doubt, the result of "our protective system," why did it not protect them as well in the State where Mr. Blaine lives? I. N. Stiles.

Hobson's Ranch, Utica P. O., Montana, Aug. 20, 1888.

H. C. CAREY ON INDIRECT TAXATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: We have heard Henry C. Carey referred to more than once in the present campaign in support of the Republican position on the tariff question. Carey believed in protection as a means, not an end. To the present generation of protectionists, who assert that it is a good thing in itself, and should be the permanent policy of the Government, Carey is a stumbling-block that cannot be too carefully avoided.

On pages 464-465 of 'Past, Present, and Future' may be found the following:

"Everywhere it has been attempted to correct error resulting from the effort by England at indirect taxation, by other error in desiring to use tariffs as a means of similar taxation at home. It has been the substitution of plunder by a pickpocket for that of a highwayman. The whole system of indirect taxation is mere petty larceny. It is an attempt to filch that which cannot be openly demanded. It is one of those 'inventions' of man by which the

few are enabled to grow rich at the expense of the many, and is therefore greatly favored by that class of men who prefer living by the labor of others to living by their own. The man who plunders a city is of the same species with the highway robber. The one who imposes indirect taxes is of the same species with the *chevalier d'industrie*. All belong to the *genus* of great men. All are equally destitute of manly or generous feeling. The plunderer of cities selects those which are weak and defenceless, and the collector of indirect taxes selects the commodities used by poor men who cannot defend themselves; and where the system most prevails, men are most weak and cheap and food most dear."

Will any one maintain that the man who wrote such words would now be in favor of retaining permanently our present system of tariff taxation? W. H. J.

SOME QUESTIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The *Independent* of August 16 has this on page 13:

"Ex-Senator Warner Miller is a sensible business man; and when he speaks in public, as he did last week at Angelica, he says a great many good things, as will be seen by the following sketch, to which we invite public attention:

"'The President argues that the farmers are injured by the tariff system. If it is an injury, then away with it: for agriculture is the foundation of our prosperity. . . . You get 100 per cent. more for your farm products than you did in 1860, and the prices of manufactured products are 50 per cent. less than they were then. Why Democrats should have put wool on the free list, I am puzzled to understand. . . . How much wool goes into a suit of clothes? In a heavy suit not over seven pounds, worth $1.40. Now, therefore, your suit would cost you that much more; but if you have fifty sheep, your loss by the abolition of the duty on wool would be $30. Therefore, to save $1.40 you would lose $30. I can't see the profit of that. Moreover, everything we consume on the table, with the exception of sugar, is cheaper than in Europe.'"

Now I want to know: (1.) Why it is that I hear and read so much about the straits the farmers are in, about the rarity of a New England farm free from mortgage, etc., if farmers give only half of 1860 prices for what they buy, and get double for what they sell? Farmers certainly ought to know how the matter stands with them; and one of two things, it seems to me, must be true, either the "sensible business man" was as wide of the mark when he talked on farm matters as Mr. Blaine was when he talked about savings-banks deposits and trusts in England, *or else* the farmers are in a remarkably happy condition as compared with 1860.

(2.) How is it that protected wool makes a suit of clothes with seven pounds of wool in it cost $1.40 more than it would with wool free? Mr. Miller says it would, and he is "a sensible business man," and of course he knows. An apparent explanation is, that to the cost of the home-made product Mr. Miller added *the whole amount* of the duty on the imported article. But on page 2 of the same issue of the *Independent*, fourth column, Prof. Thompson of the University of Pennsylvania refutes (to the satisfaction of the *Independent*, I take it), the position that "nearly the whole amount of the duty" is added to the cost of the home-made product. "It is Mr. Cleveland and Mr. Springer who make that assertion," he tells us, "and nobody but convinced free-traders ever make (*sic*) it." And the editor himself, on page 20 of the same issue, denies the fact of this increased cost. Somehow, the professor and editor do not seem to agree with the "sensible business man," *i. e.*, *if* the tariff on wool was 20 cents a pound. (3.) What proportion of our farmers are engaged in sheep raising?—for Mr. Miller's argument about losing $30 in order to save $1.40 can apply only to them, and even then it loses the force of its comparison unless we go on the supposition that a farmer with fifty sheep needs only one suit of clothes for his family, or only seven pounds of wool in the clothing for himself and family. And how about a farmer who has no sheep, and who can save $1.40 on every seven pounds of wool used by him in clothing himself and family? "Laughter and applause" greeted Mr. Miller's telling hit. Mr. Editor, do you imagine that that argument really fooled many farmers? (4.) Where is the sense, from the farmer's point of view, in levying a tariff for protection when "everything we consume on the table, with the exception of sugar, is cheaper than in Europe"? Why not let our farmers send their cheap products abroad and bring back what they receive in exchange, without having such a big proportion of it taken away from them in passing the United States Custom-house? Perkiomen.

WINTER IN NEWFOUNDLAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: My recent letter to the *Nation* on Newfoundland has occasioned the writing of letters to me by intending excursionists, one of whom proposes to camp out in Newfoundland next October. This has alarmed me so much that I hope you will allow me a few additional lines for the benefit of any others whom I may have similarly affected.

When I said that October is no more like winter in Newfoundland than in central New York, I was unhappy in my comparison, as it led to the inference that October in Newfoundland is just like October here, which is far from being true. But it is true that the last days of October do not fairly represent the month in Newfoundland any better than they do in central New York. In central New York the woods early in October are a delight to the eye, and the weather some people consider the pleasantest of the entire year; but late in October the trees are bare, and, although winter has not yet arrived, one is not surprised if all "the season's chill symptoms begin." In Newfoundland the contrast is greater. In the early days of October there is likely to be bracing weather, which nobody except a chronic invalid would call winter, while towards the end of the month winter may set in in grim earnest. Lord Baltimore complained to the King of England that winter in Ferryland began with the "middlest of October." He so wrote when sick and dispirited, and pleading for a grant of territory far south, and, under the circumstances, he naturally made the date as early as he conscientiously could. W. E. Cormack, who travelled across Newfoundland in 1822, says that winter commenced on the 17th of October in that year. He was at the time far from the western coast, towards which he was travelling, and was "alarmed" by the circumstance, as it upset his calculations. This shows that the 17th of October was an unusually early date, according to his experience, for the setting in of winter. There may be snow in Newfoundland any time after the middle of October, but one fall of snow in that country no more makes a winter than one swallow makes a summer. Nevertheless, anybody who wants to camp out for pleasure in October had better pitch his tent far from Newfoundland.

Lord Baltimore estimated the length of the winter in Newfoundland at seven months. He seems to have reckoned from the first ice to the first appearance of vegetation. But every one who has lived long in Newfoundland knows that this is putting the very worst face on the matter. The snowfall is very heavy there—heavier by far than it is anywhere in this State; and it takes many days of genial weather to clear away the snow before there can be any vegetation. The days during the last half of April and the first half of May, when the melted snow is pouring down the hillsides, are not called winter in Newfoundland, but spring. I may add that although the winters there are longer by some weeks than here, they are often less severe. Last winter was a case in point.

John C. Cozens.

Notes.

The Clarendon Press, Oxford, will bring out in October a series of more than eighty hitherto unpublished letters written by David Hume to William Strahan, the King's Printer and member of Parliament and friend of Dr. Johnson. They will be edited by Dr. G. Birkbeck Hill. The period they cover is from 1756 to 1776. Hume was no friend to the war on the American colonies, as his language to Strahan shows unmistakably. A further interest which the correspondence possesses is that it treats of the quarrel with Rousseau.

Thomas Whittaker will publish directly a cheap American edition of the 'Reminiscences of William Rogers,' a quaint and original character in the English Church.

The Rev. W. Wilberforce Newton is preparing a life of the late Rev. Dr. Muhlenberg, for publication by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Ticknor & Co.'s September publications include 'Western China,' a journey to the great Buddhist centre of Mount Omei, by the Rev. Virgil C. Hart, Fellow of the Royal Asiatic Society; a cheaper edition of Tennyson's 'Dream of Fair Women,' with all the illustrations of the first; 'A Short History of the Secession War,' by Rossiter Johnson; a new and enlarged edition of 'Recollections of a Drummer Boy,' by the Rev. Harry M. Kieffer; and the Rainbow Calendar for 1889, compiled by Kate Sanborn.

Mr. Nathan Haskell Dole is to undertake a translation of another novel by Valdés, his latest, 'El Cuarto Poder' ('The Fourth Estate'). T. Y. Crowell & Co. will publish it.

The second volume of the New York Shakespeare Society's "Bankside Shakespeare" (Brentano's), edited by Mr. Appleton Morgan, reproduces the 1594 quarto text of the "Taming of a Shrew" and the folio text of "The Taming of the Shrew" in parallel pages, with an introduction by Albert R. Frey. The authorship and date of the play are much disputed. Mr. Frey is bold enough to ascribe the older version to Shakspere, in which he occupies a very lonely position among Shakspere scholars, and he dates the new play with more positiveness than the occasion calls for as between 1607 and 1609. He examines the sources of the Induction and of the story at some length, giving its stage history and the conjectures of several commentators regarding its first production; but the essay lacks definiteness and compactness, and it is by no means the complete monograph on the text it should be. The relation of the text to Marlowe's plays, for example, is not mentioned.

To the forthcoming "Othello" volume of the "Bankside Shakespeare" Prof. Thos. R. Price will furnish an introduction claiming the "discovery of an exact prosodial system experimented upon by Shakspere in earlier plays until finally perfected in the 'Othello.'"

The third volume of Prof. Henry Morley's

"English Writers" (Cassell & Co.) covers the period from the Conquest to Chaucer, and takes into view the condition of literature on the Continent, the trouvères and troubadours, the 'Nibelungen Lied' and Minnesänger, and the Italian Revival with Frederick II. and Dante. The foreign field is entered, however, only to shed needed light on the sources and course of English literature, and the bulk of the volume deals in an encyclopædic way with the chronicles, romances, and Welsh tales, and more particularly with Layamon, Walter Map, and Roger Bacon. The extracts given are fewer than in the previous volumes. The three volumes now issued make a natural division of the subject of English literature, and are by themselves an admirable résumé of its least accessible portion.

'The Great Argument; or, Jesus Christ in the Old Testament,' by Dr. William H. Thomson, which was published in 1884 by Harper & Bros., now appears under the title of 'Christ in the Old Testament; or, the Great Argument.' In all such cases of changed titles the fact should be plainly stated on the title-page of the work, so that it might be seen that the book was not a new one, but an old one renamed.

The indefatigable Mr. Rolfe has prepared a collection, for reading in school, of 'Tales from English History' (Harper), marked by his customary skill in selection and annotation. A good example of a useful and suggestive note is that upon "The loving are the daring" (p. 163). Some of the notes appear to show marks of haste, or perhaps of undue compression. On page 132 we find the startling assertion that *and* "should never be used except to connect a *second* relative clause to the preceding." On page 124 we are told, as to chaunting, that "many words that now end in *-ant* and *-ance* were formerly spelled *-aunt* and *-aunce*, and pronounced accordingly." What is "accordingly"? On page 156 "a second Benaiah" is called a "Scriptural allusion," and we are informed that "the implied comparison cannot be understood unless we are acquainted with the Bible history"—a quite unnecessary remark, inasmuch as there is a footnote to the text which refers to the passage in the Bible. Such a note as this is mere padding.

Mr. Howells's 'A Sea Change, or Love's Stowaway' (Boston: Ticknor & Co.) reminds us that even Addison once wrote a "Fair Rosamond." "The great success this opera ["Arsinoe"] met with, produced," he writes, "some attempts of forming pieces upon Italian plans, which should give a more natural and reasonable entertainment than what can be met with in the elaborate trifles of that nation. This alarmed the poetasters and fiddlers of the town, who were used to deal in a more ordinary kind of ware, and therefore laid down an established rule, which is received as such to this day, 'that nothing is capable of being set to music that is not nonsense.'" Literature repeats itself, and now Mr. Howells forms his piece upon Gilbert and Sullivan instead of "Italian plans," but he has been too wise to indulge the laudable ambition that, according to the mortified poet, sent Addison's operetta to its damnation. The rule of nonsense "is received as such to this day." Even in nonsense, nevertheless, there are degrees, and this "lyricated farce," as the author terms it, which, being interpreted, means a comic opera, resembles its models only as much as "desiccated" codfish does the green mermaid in her native element.

In No. 46 of the Proceedings of the U. S. Naval Institute (Annapolis), together with many technical papers, we find what appears to be the concluding instalment of Lieut. Rowan's "Recollections of the Mexican War." The fact that these journal extracts have been copyrighted points to their ultimate republication, as would seem to be desirable.

The Filson Club of Louisville has issued as the third of its publications 'The Pioneer Press of Kentucky,' by William Henry Perrin (Louisville: John P. Morton & Co.). It was a hundred years on August 11, 1887, since the first number of the *Kentucke Gazette* appeared at Lexington. This was the first newspaper west of the Alleghanies, and it had its origin in the separatist movement which presently divided Kentucky from Virginia. Its publisher was John Bradford, a native of the latter State, and one of a long line of printers not connected by Mr. Perrin with the Pennsylvania printers bearing the same family name. The most prominent names of editors in early Kentucky journalism are those of Humphrey Marshall and of the two New Englanders, Amos Kendall (who afterwards, as Postmaster-General, sanctioned the rifling of the mails by Southerners in search of Northern abolition publications) and George D. Prentice. Marshall's *Western World* took the credit of exploding Aaron Burr's conspiracy, and of bringing about the court-martial of Gen. Wilkinson. Mr. Perrin has collected a great deal of curious information, but his style is careless and too much infused with slang. He evidently thinks poorly of an editor who cannot shoot, or who is not prepared for what he calls an "affaire de honour." For naïveté, the following sentences may be cited: "Human nature . . . has an innate fondness for the horrible, and it is safe to say that . . . forty-nine persons read the *Courier-Journal's* account of the trial and execution of Albert Turner, where the fiftieth reads one of Mr. Talmage's sermons."

The second number of the *Journal of American Folk-lore* (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) well sustains the promise of the first. The Indians occupy a large but not disproportionate space; the Pennsylvania Germans and the Louisiana Creoles also are worthily represented—the latter by customs and superstitions and nursery tales. We observe that Mr. James Mooney, when introducing his Cherokee tale, "How the Deer obtained his Horns," expresses the hope to prove some day that the negro animal fables of the "Uncle Remus" order are of Indian origin. This is not improbable, but we may be sure they have been bettered in the borrowing.

We found little to remark in *Le Livre* for July beyond the article on "Les Bourbons Bibliophiles," by M. Eugène Asse, with its accompanying group of etched portraits. In the August number M. Lemercier de Neuville gives some intimate personal details concerning the late Charles Monselet, whose gastronomic capacity is much insisted on. For example, after his fifth meal one day, he was observed heavily hopping about to settle it, as he explained. Interesting in all respects, and a candid paper, is M. Louis de Hessem's "Le Cinquantenaire de la Bibliothèque Charpentier." Here we have an account of the origin of the *format Charpentier*—that handy shape which gave a black eye to the *format in-8°*, and did so much to popularize good literature; and we are shown the iron-clad agreement which the publisher offered to the trade in favor of his new venture. Numerous letters addressed to him on business by Alfred de Vigny, George Sand, and Sainte-Beuve, throw light on the temperament of all parties to the correspondence, and are excellent reading. The rather hard face of the indomitable G. H. Charpentier—this man so active and pushing that "il ne devait pas avoir toujours le loisir d'être aimable"—is portrayed in an etching. Among the books reviewed we notice an 'Iconographie Bretonne,' which suggests a field of useful employment for those having leisure and means, viz., the illustration of the history of a limited territory by cataloguing the portraits of its famous men and women. Such a field is offered by Essex County, Mass., for instance.

Mr. C. N. Caspar of Milwaukee has applied for a patent for a "mail book-auction," conducted by sending out unpriced catalogues, and selling to the *first* bidder if his offer proves acceptable; or if not, to the highest bidder on file at the end of four weeks. The first catalogue has gone out.

A volume supplementary to the biography of Count Cavour before 1848 has been issued at Rome under the title 'Diario Inedito e Note Autobiografiche del Conte di Cavour (1833 al 1843).'

—The absence of any contribution to the campaign in the current literary monthlies may be taken as a sign of the abandonment of the political field to the new magazines that have sprung up specially devoted to public questions. A political leader used to be one of the conspicuous features of the *Atlantic*. This seems to have gone the way of all traditions. No magazine, however, is more interested in American topics. In this number the Revolution gives a title to two excellent historical papers, one by John Fiske in his comprehensive and lively style upon the first year of the Continental Congress, the other by Dr. Peabody upon Boston mobs. The latter is a remarkable presentation of the matter from the point of view of the law-and-order portion of Revolutionary society. Dr. Peabody asserts that there was a lawless element in Boston whose excesses and outrages were an injury to the cause of the patriots, and alienated many of the best citizens, who might otherwise have remained upon the side of the colonists. His narrative of the events gives no quarter to the mob element, and may well be compared with Mr. Fiske's recent article covering the same ground. It is said here that while Massachusetts was foremost in providing leaders for the Revolution, it also suffered more than any other colony except South Carolina by the defection of Tories. Cambridge lost almost the whole body of her most reputable citizens, "men of mark and high standing," with the exception of those who were "immediately connected with the college"; and on the list of the exiles were one hundred graduates of Harvard. This is a remarkable number, and undoubtedly represents a real loss, as the descendants of these men in the provinces became leading families and held great trust and power, especially in the judiciary of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. It is to be recollected, too, that Harvard was not, like Oxford and Cambridge, a bulwark of the old régime, but, on the contrary, "the hot-bed and seed-plot of sedition." It may be that this fact accounts for the anxiety of the Cambridge respectables to get away. The article is aimed at the Crispus Attucks memorial, and it makes out a serious case against it; but it seems now too late to argue the point, and, indeed, the monument will be less the memorial of a man than of the revolutionary spirit. Mrs. Wyman contributes a second paper upon Factory Life, which is philanthropic in intention, and illustrates by personal observation the beneficent workings of the Ten-Hour Law upon the lives of the women employed. Julia C. R. Dorr furnishes a pleasant sketch of a short tour in North Wales, and Mr. Downes brings his account of Boston artists down to the present day. There is the usual fiction, and the beginning of a new novel by Prof. A.

S. Hardy, "Passe-Rose." There is no poetry in the present number.

—The September *Harper's* contains a large element of travel. Mrs. Pennell begins a series of papers upon the well-worn but always fresh subject of the Hebrides, which, besides its romantic and picturesque features, well rendered in the illustrations, glances at the condition of the peasantry there and the practical workings of eviction. The American cities dealt with by Mr. Warner are Memphis and Little Rock. The former has an interesting history, of which it cannot be said that the most has been made in this article, and the latter of the two has the advantage of novelty, Arkansas being *terra incognita* to the public as much as any portion of the country. Another writer describes, in the same way, the origin and features of Helena and Butte, typical mining towns, and succeeds very well in giving sharp impressions of the economical conditions in Montana. Mr. Lafcadio Hearn continues his perfervid passages upon the West Indies. The article upon the caribou also takes us into unfamiliar ground. Thus, travel and fiction practically monopolize the number. The most important paper, however, is Prof. Morse's description of Old Satsuma ware, beautifully illustrated from his remarkable Japanese collection. This is a thorough discussion of the topic, and it need hardly be said that it is of the most reliable character, and alike interesting from the artistic point of view and as an illustration of the strange civilization to which these marvels of the potter belong. Similar in interest is the brief account of the tapestries in the new Florence gallery, of which also there are fine woodcuts. A number more exclusively devoted to information and amusement, and less exacting of any mental exercise, is not often met with; but the drift in this direction is unmistakable.

—A 'Digest of the Reported Decisions, Precedents, and General Principles enunciated by the Board of Railroad Commissioners of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, from 1870 to 1888 inclusive,' has just been prepared by Mr. John H. Wigmore of the Suffolk Bar. To the general public, the interest of such a book lies not so much in its contents as in the mere fact of its existence. It illustrates one of the ways in which law may grow up unconsciously rather than be consciously made. The Massachusetts Commission, as established nearly twenty years ago, had practically no power beyond the mere power to make reports. But their reports showed such a clear comprehension of the whole subject as to command wide public attention. What they blamed the public blamed, and the railroads ceased to defend; what they suggested the railroads tried to carry into execution, and generally with good results. Insensibly, public opinion reached such a state that the judgments of the Commission were universally accepted, and came to have the force of law, not from any power of enforcement which was behind them, but from their own inherent soundness. Recent legislation has given the Commission greater nominal power than it once had; but its actual authority has hardly been magnified. The same process of growth of law beyond the limits of technical authority is repeating itself on a larger scale in the history of the Inter-State Commerce Commission.

—It is safe to say that not more than one person in a hundred of those who read Donnelly's contributions to the Shakspere-Bacon controversy will take the pains to search the original folios and discover there for themselves the accuracy of the facts on which the marvellous cipher is constructed. Most readers will judge of the whole by the character of the argument that connects the asserted facts with the conclusions. Some external test as to the accuracy of Donnelly's asserted facts and the validity of his conclusions has therefore a current interest, and it may be found in his curious volume entitled 'Ragnarok,' which we are told was written between the earlier and later epochs of his Shaksperian investigation. 'Ragnarok' has had an extraordinary sale for such nonsense as it is. Many of its readers have been half convinced of the truth of its thesis by the wonderful array of facts, quoted from the writings of famous authors, that lead so clearly to the desired conclusion; but among these persons there can have been no geologists and no students of mythology and legendary history. The book is written to prove that a comet once struck the earth, covering half of it with gravel and furnishing a basis for many myths of fiery disasters to the early human race. From first to last, the pages contain little more than special pleading. Facts are not investigated to learn what they will lead to, nor are extracts quoted in the spirit in which they were written: quotations are made merely to support a conclusion already reached at the beginning. The quotations are something marvellous. Scientific articles and treatises, popular scientific compilations, text-books, and manuals are ransacked to furnish sentences which, thus taken apart from their context, seem to support the desired opinions; and the selections would read admirably if one could only be persuaded that they had been chosen with fairness, knowledge, and judgment.

—A brief example of the method followed may be given. It is boldly stated that the drift, as Donnelly's cometic gravel is commonly called, and which geologists regard as of glacial origin, consists of nothing but granite. Consisting only of granite, and not also of limestone, sandstone, and slate-rocks, which form so great a part of the earth's surface, how can it be the rubbish scraped from said surface by an ice-sheet? The granitic drift is plainly of igneous, not of glacial origin. The drift lies only on one side of the earth, its distribution being shown in a frontispiece map which Donnelly thinks is "substantially accurate." The drift is therefore the product of a sudden collision with a comet's tail! The only difficulty with this and other equally plain arguments is that they are all wrong. The mistakes are simply silly. There is plenty of limestone and of other aqueous rocks in the drift. The map showing the distribution of the drift is ludicrously incorrect. The argument is farcical. Yet throughout it there is an air of earnestness, conviction, and even of solemnity that is very impressive. The reader is asked to follow the argument closely, "that he may see whether any part of the theory is inconsistent with the well-established principles of natural philosophy." There is much of the short-paragraphed candor that is intended to be convincing, thus:

"Would a comet meet all these prerequisites?"

"I think it would."

"Let us proceed in regular order."

And the "regular order" is of that "put-up" kind that always rewards virtue and punishes vice in our moral melodramas.

—The Dearborn Observatory of Chicago is now removing to Evanston, Illinois, to become connected with the Northwestern University at that place. The new site is sixteen miles north and three west of the old, and within three hundred feet of the lake shore, and, according to Prof. Hough, the Director, undoubtedly is much better adapted for astronomical work than the old one. Mr. James B. Hobbs of Chicago gives $25,000 for the new observatory building, which includes abundant observing quarters for the fine instruments and some eight or nine rooms for other purposes. The Chicago Astronomical Society will continue its connection with the Observatory, having relations similar to those maintained with the late University of Chicago. The 18½-inch telescope, which has so interesting a history, will be remounted in the new dome early next year. Prof. W. R. Brooks, who has rendered most efficient service to cometary astronomy at Phelps, N. Y., where he built with his own hands the telescope which did the most of his work, has met with a well-deserved reward in the generosity of Mr. William Smith of Geneva, who has founded and built the Smith Observatory at that place. Prof. Brooks enters upon the directorship with several fine instruments; among them a 10-inch object-glass made by Clacey of Boston, and fitted with accessory apparatus for celestial photography.

— The two numbers of *Les Lettres et les Arts* for July and August (Paris: Boussod, Valadon & Cie.; New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons) contain a charming story, "Norine," by M. Ferdinand Fabre, in which the recollections of his early years spent among the remote hamlets of the Cévennes, and the longings for the *pays natal* of the middle-aged librarian of the Bibliothèque Mazarine, are mingled in the most happy manner. The unreal realism of the designs with which M. Boutet de Monvel has accompanied the story is not inharmonious with the abundant riches of M. Ferdinand Fabre's own pictures, always most vivid in what the other artist purposely effaces in his—the representations of nature which serve as a setting for the characters. The "Souvenirs d'un soldat," of Vsevolod Garshin, is also given in two parts in the numbers before us. This is a striking account of the early experiences, up to the first battle in which he took part, of a young volunteeer in the Russian Army in 1877. A certain superficial resemblance to the manner of Tolstoi, common to all Russians who write about war, takes something, at first, from the impression of originality these "Souvenirs d'un soldat" would otherwise make. They seize and hold the attention and interest to the end, however, by the vigor and individuality with which the various characters, soldiers and officers, are presented in their ordinary military life during an advance towards the enemy. A second of M. Henri Bouchot's interesting articles, "L'Histoire par les éventails populaires," is given in the July number. This extends from 1789 to 1804, and, like the preceding one, is very fully illustrated. The first part of M. Adolphe Jullien's "L'Opéra sous l'ancien régime" includes "le grand règne et la régence," and gives occasion for the really charming frontispiece of the August number—"Mademoiselle Prévost dansant au théâtre de l'Opéra," after the painting by Raoux in the Musée of Tours. In the same number M. Frédéric Masson's "Un mot sur les primitifs" is suggested by the work now in course of publication by the Vicomte Delaborde: 'Les Maîtres florentins du xve. siècle.'

THE FOUNDER OF OHIO.

Life, Journals, and Correspondence of Rev. Manasseh Cutler, LL.D. By his grandchildren, William Parker Cutler and Julia Perkins Cutler. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1888. 8vo, 2 vols., pp. 524 and 495.

EVERY one knows that this is centennial year in the Ohio Valley. The settlement planted a

century ago has so prospered that it stands as the eastern boundary of the new empire of the West, to which it seems to be almost the ultimate parent. But the natives of Ohio are fully aware that their State was no chance growth of accidental and discordant atoms. They know that their forefathers came from other American States, and that the enterprise was the deliberate and vigorous outgrowth of New England thought, manhood, and capital. Hence, in this memorial year, and carrying out the instincts of their race, they eagerly explore the records of the past, and give a grateful and deserved prominence to the men who planned and effected the successful settlement a century ago.

Foremost among the names entitled to such remembrance is that of Manasseh Cutler, whose papers now presented to the public give the fullest proof that he is entitled to rank with Bradford, Winthrop, Penn, Calvert, and Oglethorpe, as the founder of a State. A brief examination of the facts will make this evident, and, indeed, the orators of the present year have been prompt and fervent in their praises of the Massachusetts clergyman. In his eloquent address at Marietta, on April 7, Senator Hoar gave the credit of founding Ohio to Gen. Rufus Putnam and Manasseh Cutler. That Putnam was the great leader, the man of action, is indisputable; but that Cutler's portion of the work was the more important in its results may also be affirmed. Not only was the Ordinance of 1787 the charter of the colony, but one of its provisions was of transcendent importance to the future of the whole country; possibly it may prove to have affected the future of all civilized nations. We refer, of course, to the clause providing that "there shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in the said territory, otherwise than in punishment of crimes whereof the party shall have been duly convicted." The results of this dedication of the West to freedom have been too great to be even epitomized in the space of a review, but no one will dispute the right of the author of the measure to rank among the great leaders of mankind.

To understand Cutler's merit, it is necessary merely to consult the authorities. Senator Hoar has briefly and clearly stated all the essentials as follows. After the cession by the individual States to the United States of their claims to the Western lands, Congress undertook to dispose of the territory:

"Various plans were reported from time to time. Nine committees were appointed on the frame of government and three on the schemes for survey and sale. Thirteen different reports were made at different times; but from September 6, 1780, when the resolution passed asking the States to cede their lands, until July 6, 1787, when Manasseh Cutler, the envoy of the Ohio Company, came to the door, every plan adopted and every plan proposed, except a motion of Rufus King, which he himself abandoned, we now see would have been fraught with mischief if it had become and continued law. Manasseh Cutler came into the Chamber on the morning of July 6, 1787, bearing with him the fate of the Northwest. He had left Boston on the evening of June 25, where on that day he records in his diary: 'I conversed with Gen. Putnam, and settled the principles on which I am to contract with Congress for lands on account of the Ohio Company.'

"He was probably the fittest man on the continent, except Franklin, for a mission of delicate diplomacy. It was said just now that Putnam was a man after Washington's pattern and after Washington's own heart. Cutler was a man after Franklin's pattern and after Franklin's own heart. He was the most learned naturalist in America, as Franklin was the greatest master in physical science. He was a man of consummate prudence in speech and conduct; of courtly manners; a favorite in the drawing-room and in the camp, with a wide circle of friends and correspondents among the most famous men of his time. It now fell to his lot to conduct a negotiation second only in importance in the history of his country to that which Franklin conducted with France in 1778. Never was ambassador crowned with success more rapid or more complete. On the 9th of July the pending ordinance was committed to a new committee. They sent a copy of the ordinance which had come over from the last Congress to Dr. Cutler, that he might make remarks and prepare amendments. . . . But one day intervened between the day of the appointment of the committee and that of their report. Cutler returned the copy of the old ordinance with his proposed amendments on one day. The next the committee reported the finished plan. But two days more elapsed before its final passage. The measure providing for the terms of sale to the Ohio Company was passed on the 27th of the same July."

Manasseh Cutler was, indeed, "a man after Franklin's pattern." He was born in Killingly, Conn., in 1742, grandson of John Cutler of Lexington, who was grandson of James Cutler, the emigrant who settled first in Watertown and then at Lexington. It was a typical New England family, and naturally, as it prospered, one son, Manasseh, was assigned to the ministry. He was graduated at Yale in 1765, where he acquired a fondness for scientific pursuits which continued through life. He taught school at Dedham, where he married Mary, daughter of the Rev. Thomas Balch, and in 1771 was settled in the ministry at Ipswich Hamlet. He was evidently an ardent patriot, and during the siege of Boston he repeatedly visited the American troops and preached to them, receiving in September, 1776, a commission as Chaplain in Col. Eben. Francis's regiment. In 1778 he was Chaplain to Gen. Titcomb's brigade, and on his return he studied medicine and became a skilful practitioner. In 1782 he opened a boarding-school, and devoted much time to natural science, becoming especially proficient in botany.

Thus, up to the age of forty-five, Cutler had pursued a career differing, as in the case of Franklin, from that of many of his contemporaries only in the bent of his mind for scientific research. Circumstances then placed him in a position to distinguish himself in a new direction. Prior to 1787 Congress had made various ineffectual attempts to deal with the land questions. It was conceded that the safety of the nation demanded that this vast territory should be peopled by its citizens, to act as a bulwark against those foreign nations which still had a foothold on our borders. It was hoped that these millions of acres might furnish the means to retrieve the national credit, and especially to enable the nation to repay the arrears due to the army of independence.

The officers and soldiers had for several years endeavored to devise some plan by which they should receive land-grants in exchange for their warrants. In 1783 a petition signed by 288 officers was presented to Congress, asking for a settlement on that basis, but, despite the powerful support of Washington, they were unsuccessful. In January, 1786, the matter was revived by a circular issued by Rufus Putnam and Benjamin Tupper. In March a convention was held at Boston, and of the eleven delegates, Manasseh Cutler was one. He was one of the five members who drafted the articles of association of the Ohio Company, the plan being to raise a fund not exceeding one million dollars in Continental certificates, with which to purchase lands in the new country. Each share was to be based on the payment of one thousand dollars in certificates and ten dollars in coin, and actual settlement in person or by proxy was essential.

In March, 1787, it appeared that 250 shares had been subscribed, and, accordingly, Gen. Samuel H. Parsons, Gen. Rufus Putnam, and Rev. Manasseh Cutler were chosen directors, with full powers to treat with Congress as to the purchase of the lands. Cutler alone assumed the task, and, fortunately, he wrote out a very full account of his actions. In June, 1787, having conversed with Gen. Putnam and "settled the principles on which I am to contract with Congress for laws on account of the Ohio Company," Cutler started for New York.

We have already mentioned his rapid and entire success in treating with Congress for the purchase of a million and a half acres of the Ohio lands for the Ohio Company. On July 9, 1787, the ordinance was referred to a committee of five members, on the 11th it was reported back, on the 12th amended on motion of Mr. Dane of Massachusetts, by adding the proviso against slavery, and on the 13th it was passed by the vote of the eight States present, Mr. Yates of New York giving the only vote in the negative. Cutler was then on a visit to Philadelphia; but on his return he carried through his negotiation for the purchase, including a still larger purchase for other parties. It is unfortunate that his Journal was written out later from his notes, and, though giving interesting facts about his travels, is very brief in regard to his interviews with members of Congress. It is, however, shown (Journal 1, 343) that his family preserved a copy of the Ordinance of 1787, and that "on its margin was written that Mr. Dane requested Mr. Cutler to suggest such provisions as he deemed advisable, and that at Dr. Cutler's instance was inserted what relates to religion, education, and slavery." Cutler himself writes, under date of July 19: "The amendments I proposed have all been made except one, and that is better qualified." This one he explains to be in regard to representation. Congress agreed to admit delegates, with the right to debate, but not vote. Cutler's son also positively states that his father told him that he prepared the clause prohibiting slavery. Having so prepared it, the clause would naturally be presented in Congress by the member from Massachusetts, Mr. Dane, who was also on the committee.

That earlier attempts had been made by others in Congress—Pickering and Jefferson—to keep this territory for freedom, does not diminish the value of Cutler's work. At the decisive moment, availing of his controlling position as the great purchaser of the lands in question, he insisted that the Northwest should be for ever free from slavery. It adds nothing to the strength of our argument that by his birth, training, and associations, he ought to have done this. Other New England ministers have been found wanting in a like case. Cutler did his duty, and the results have justified him.

Dr. Cutler served in Congress for two terms, 1800–1804, and died July 28, 1823, in his eighty-second year, still minister at Hamilton. These journals and letters contain many interesting facts, but they are of small importance in comparison with the great event of the settlement of Ohio. A generation ago they would have found many readers, as a welcome contribution to our knowledge of the period. Even now they will be valued as authority and be quoted with respect. But the great events of the past twenty-five years have ruined the public taste for chronicles of small beer.

As to the Ohio Company, a writer in the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* for July, 1888, states, that the contract was for 1,500,000 acres at 66⅔ cents per acre. Land-warrants were receivable for one-seventh of the amount, at the rate of 150 acres for each 100-acre warrant. These warrants were then worth $10 to $15; Government securities were

worth 10 to 12 per cent. The first payment of $500,000 was made in October, 1787, but as securities advanced in price, the subscribers failed to pay in, and 148 shares were forfeited, 769 shares were paid in full, and 83 in part. In 1792 the company went into liquidation, and, after the division of lands, $152.48 per share was paid in money. The soldier, therefore, received for his payment of $17 in money and his 100-acre land-warrant, 1,273 acres of land and $130 in money, which sum at the time would buy him 3,250 acres more. It is characteristic of this enterprise, founded and carried out by a New England minister, that it was equally successful in its moral and material aspects.

EMPEROR WILLIAM AND HIS BOSWELL.

Aus dem Leben Kaiser Wilhelms. 1849-1873. Von L. Schneider. Berlin: Otto Janke; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1888. 3 vols., 8vo, pp. 341, 286, 291.

Louis Schneider began life as an actor. He was born in 1805 of a theatrical family, his father being a musical director and composer; his mother, brother, and sister opera singers. His first appearance on the stage was made at the age of nine, and at the age of fifteen he was a regular member of the profession and had his name printed on a play-bill. His connection with the stage ceased in 1848, when he became reader to King Frederick William IV. In the intervening years he had made his mark as a journalist and man of letters. Although a civilian, he edited two military periodicals, contributing at the same time to several of the leading Prussian newspapers, and publishing sketches, novels, poems, plays, and historical and biographical works. His versatility, his rampant loyalty to the royal family, and his total freedom from diffidence, procured him a position at the Prussian court which was anomalous if not unprecedented, and in which he maintained himself with great skill for twenty-five or thirty years. For a long time he was the only person not of noble birth who was permitted to sit at meals with the royalties, and he was on confidential if not on intimate terms with three successive Prussian kings and two Russian emperors. Besides his official position as reader, he performed, unpaid, the functions of librarian to King William I., who used him as a convenient medium for indirectly conveying his views on public affairs to the public through the semi-official press, which was always ready to print Schneider's articles, proceeding, as they were presumed to do, from the highest authority. He accompanied his sovereign in the campaigns of 1866 and 1870, during which he had daily interviews with the King, to whom he submitted proofs of the letters which he wired to the Berlin newspapers, and which were thus corrected and edited by the Commander-in-Chief. It was also his self-imposed duty to keep the King informed of the opinions and comments of the press in all parts of the world. All of these matters and other episodes in his varied career are most entertainingly set forth in the three volumes of Schneider's posthumous memoirs, published in 1879 and 1880.

The present work is more particularly devoted to a glorification of the late Emperor William, and was left in manuscript with the understanding that it was not to see the light during the lifetime of that monarch. The position which its author occupied naturally raises great expectations, which are, just as naturally, doomed to be in some measure disappointed, as it was next to impossible to say anything new on a subject which had recently been so much written about. But while the book adds, perhaps, not much to our stock of historical knowledge, it contributes not a little in the way of details and minor touches, and will be drawn on liberally by every future historian who undertakes to paint a lifelike portrait of William I. The Emperor has found his Boswell in Schneider, as Bismarck found his in Busch, with the difference, however, that Schneider is a writer whose natural gifts are supplemented by a high degree of culture. The mechanical execution of the work is praiseworthy in every respect, and the only sin to be laid at the door of the publisher is the unfortunately very common one of neglecting to provide an index, for which not even the poor substitute of headlines is offered.

The first and prevailing impression which the reader of these volumes receives is the predominant militarism of the Prussian court and rulers. Everything is done by and for the army; everything is subservient to the army; army officers are the chief persons in the realm, and civilians almost seem to exist only on sufferance. Liberals and Radicals are objects of aversion and suspicion, not so much because they oppose the Government as because they would curtail the importance of the army, cut down the period of compulsory service, and reduce the army estimates. The most serious and stubborn conflicts between the executive and the legislature have almost always hinged on these cardinal points. As Prince of Prussia, as Regent, as King, and as Emperor, William was the incarnation of this overshadowing military principle. Of this well-known bent of his character Schneider's book affords much minor corroboration, as in showing the immense importance attached by King and court to the matter of orders, crosses, medals, uniforms, and other branches of what, from an American point of view, seems little more than army millinery. We are informed that the King was very particular and conscientious in wearing the special uniform which each particular occasion demanded (vol. i, p. 191). On a visit to Olmütz in 1853, the Prince of Prussia started on his journey wearing a Prussian uniform; several stations before his destination he donned his Austrian uniform, because the Emperor of Austria was to meet him at the station; arrived at his lodgings he found a number of officers of the Sixth Prussian Army Corps waiting to pay their respects, and, in order to receive them becomingly, had to change the Austrian to the Prussian uniform. Scarcely had they departed when it was announced that the Emperor was coming to pay a visit, when the change had to be made back again; then a messenger came in breathless to say that the Emperor of Russia was coming at once, and a Russian uniform, with all the stars and ribbons thereunto belonging, had to be put on in place of the Austrian. After receiving Nicholas, the Prince returned the visit of Francis Joseph, which, of course, had to be done in the Austrian uniform, which latter had to be assumed again for dinner, as, during the interval spent at home, the Prince could not, with propriety, wear any but the Prussian uniform. All of this was done within two hours, and, as the author says, was unavoidable (vol. i, pp. 141-2). On one occasion the Prince administered a severe reproof in writing to Schneider because a newspaper report supposed to be written by the latter had stated that, at a military review, the Prince had appeared in civilian dress, when, as a matter of fact, he had been in full uniform (i, 34). If troops passed the King's window, he showed himself, but never without first buttoning up his uniform coat and putting on the order "pour le mérite" (i, 76).

Pages upon pages are consumed in giving accounts of orders and decorations conferred by the King and conferred upon him. Eight pages are required to ventilate the author's grievance at not receiving a certain order to which he considered himself entitled (i, 40-49). About the same space is filled with exuberant telegrams and letters exchanged between King William and the Emperor Alexander in December, 1869, when Prince Albert of Prussia visited St. Petersburg, and the Emperor conferred the order of St. George on the King of Prussia, the latter returning the compliment by sending the order *pour le mérite* to his imperial nephew. One brief specimen telegram is all we have space for; it is from William to his brother Albert, and is dated Berlin, December 8, 6½ P.M.: "Well, what an honor has been done me! I am overjoyed, but completely overcome. I take my revenge by offering the Emperor the *pour le mérite*. If you have two crosses, give him one" (ii, 87-96). As having some connection with this subject, and showing the footing on which Schneider stood with his patron, it may be related that in July, 1872, as the Emperor William was leaving Wiesbaden, he inquired for certain officials who were to bring him an order of the Red Eagle. As they had already taken their departure, Schneider offered to give up his, if the ribbon did not look too much worn. The Emperor said: "I want to do a favor to Col. von Witzleben by conferring this order on him before I go; you can take it to him with a letter, and can explain to him why the ribbon is not fresh." "Could I not tell the Colonel that your Majesty had taken the ribbon from your own breast? That would please the old gentleman still more." "I cannot forbid you to tell a lie, if you choose to do it; but I will have nothing to do with that" (iii, 246-7).

William's predilection for the army is also indicated by various anecdotes showing great knowledge and a remarkable memory concerning the personnel of the forces. Habitually he read the lists of the killed and wounded among the officers with great attention, sometimes attaching to each name some comment showing his intimate acquaintance with their personal history, and then laying down the paper silently, shaking his head (iii, 73). He grieved much over the losses his armies sustained. During the campaign of 1866 he declined an invitation to visit a theatre in Prague, saying: "One who has seen so many of his brave soldiers dead and wounded cannot go to the theatre" (i, 270). He was, indeed, of a kindly disposition, and it was a most difficult matter to obtain his signature to a death-warrant. When one was sent to him, he delayed returning it until the Minister of Justice, tired of waiting, would ask for it; then he began searching among his portfolios, and would say that he must have left it at Babelsberg; but if the request happened to be made in the palace of Babelsberg, it would unfortunately have been left in Berlin. When he assumed the government as King, he impressed it upon his assembled ministers as a sacred duty to call his attention to any, the most insignificant, attenuating circumstance in every case of capital punishment, in order that, whenever possible, the extreme penalty might be commuted. He went patiently through the details of every such case, and if he could find no ground for clemency, he put the papers on one side as if expecting that some festive event would afford a pretext for amnesty. When such an occasion did present itself, whole batches of death-sentences would come piling into the Ministry of Justice, all commuted to imprisonment for life. The author reports a case which shows how the King delayed in these

matters. A sentence of death was pronounced October 1, 1861; on January 13, 1862, the Minister moved before the King, "that justice be allowed to take its free course," that being the official formula in which the monarch assents to a sentence of death. Not until August 19 did the King give his assent; he did not affix his signature until at the meeting of the Ministers not a single voice was heard in behalf of the murderer. September 9 was set as the day of the execution; but as Prince Henry was to be baptized on that day, the Minister of Justice informed the King at Baden that the execution was postponed to September 16; the King returned this communication with the following marginal note, in his own handwriting: "Is there really no extenuating circumstance whatever which would justify a commutation? Anyhow, if at all possible, let another date be named, as I never wish to know the day of an execution." In consequence of all these delays the sentence finally *was* commuted (i, 161-4). Another similar story in the same place cannot be here reproduced for lack of room.

William's mildness of temper also manifested itself in his mildness of language and in his treatment of those in his service. Never, says our author (i, 71), did an abusive word or an oath pass his lips; he preserved his equanimity in the most trying circumstances; none of his servants ever heard from his mouth an unfriendly word or one that could wound him. Several anecdotes illustrate this trait, of which a single short one must here suffice. One night, at half-past eleven o'clock, when he was returning from the Rhine, the carriages which were to have met him at the station had, through a misunderstanding, been sent elsewhere. The situation was embarrassing to all the party. The King alone manifested no impatience, but simply said, "Well, let us walk; fortunately, the weather is good." He was so convinced that no one in his service would willingly cause him inconvenience that he attributed the occurrence to accident, and said nothing more about it. On one occasion, while the King was conferring with Schneider in the library at Babelsberg, he heard voices in the adjoining rooms, and said, "Come into the corridor; they are going to show strangers through here," and continued the conversation outside until the visitors had finished their inspection of the library. He was equally placid in keeping the even tenor of his ways amid the discouragements of his two great campaigns. To those who now look back on the wars of 1866 and 1870 they appear an uninterrupted series of brilliant successes, and they even appeared so to many who witnessed them or took part in them. The King, however, was always disposed to take a sober view, and in neither war had great faith in a speedy termination of the conflict. After the battle of Sedan, when all Germany was discounting the future, he alone foresaw that the campaign might last through the winter, and that the resources of the French were not nearly exhausted. It will never do, he said, to underestimate the foe (i, 269, ii, 231, 246, 274, iii, 71). But although he did not always share the general elation, he was not unduly depressed nor ever excited. On September 3, 1870, the day after Napoleon's surrender, he was transacting the civil home affairs of his kingdom as calmly as in the piping times of peace (ii, 223). His great industry and capacity for work are well known, but it will be news to many to learn from these volumes how fluent and even eloquent he was as an orator, how ready and precise as a writer. He never, we are told, corrected anything he wrote. His style was direct, without rhetorical phrasemaking, that being foreign to his nature. After the King had made a speech, he usually again dictated the substance of it to Schneider for his newspaper reports; Schneider would then bring him the proofs, and says that he never succeeded in making his report concise and positive enough, and that his finest passages, introduced to make a more effective impression, were unmercifully cut. It should here be added that Schneider's style is by no means exuberant, but rather easy and elegant, and almost always in correct taste, which throws William's simplicity of character still more into relief. One instance may be cited. In his speech delivered to his generals and staff on March 3, 1871, after the final conclusion of peace, the Emperor concluded: "But let us not forget that we all owe our thanks to Providence, which willed that we should become the instrument for bringing about such grand world-historical events." The next morning early he dictated this speech to Schneider, as usual, from memory. Schneider went into the next room to elaborate his notes. It occurred to him that not even the most powerful mortal was justified in assuming so much familiarity with the designs of Providence, and he allowed himself the alteration, "Providence has *permitted* us to become its instrument." Quite proud of the emendation, he returned to the Emperor's study, and submitted his draft for approval. When he came to this passage the Emperor interrupted him: "That is not what I said. I said, 'Providence has *willed*.'" "I had it so written in pencil," replied Schneider, "but in making my draft I doubted whether every reader would correctly apprehend your Majesty's course of thought. No mortal can know what Providence has willed." "Do you suppose," was the answer, "that I could have borne the heavy burden of this war, or that such successes would have been possible, if I had not been firmly convinced that Providence willed it, and chose us for its instrument? Write exactly as I dictated to you." Schneider, with his phenomenal obstinacy and impudence, insisted upon the Emperor's changing "permitted" into "willed" in his own handwriting and signing the entire manuscript, in order to satisfy his scruples (iii, 201-2).

Of the proverbial economy, not to say parsimony, of the Emperor, these volumes afford several illustrations. When Schneider asked for permission to go to St. Petersburg to the funeral of the Empress of Russia, the reply was, "Certainly, go ahead, but at your own expense!" A most characteristic incident occurred during the campaign of 1870. A poem had got into the newspapers in 1872 about a hacked and battered helmet which the King was said to have picked up from the battle-field and preserved as a memento. Schneider read it to William, who said there was no truth in it, and thereupon told him that he did remember a similar scene; he noticed a dead hussar on the battle-field, and what attracted his attention was that his uniform was perfectly new, showing that the man could not possibly have made the march from the boundary to the Moselle, but must have just joined his regiment. He told an officer to see whether the hussar was really dead, and, being assured of that, gave orders that the uniform should be taken off and sent to the regiment, where it might still do good service. On which Schneider took the liberty of remarking that Prussia no doubt owed its greatness to the unprecedented fact that it had had a series of fourteen economical rulers (iii, 229-30).

The Emperor's economical habits also manifested themselves in his well-known plainness of living, which, however, was partly the natural outcome of his plainness of character. When he took up his headquarters in Baron Rothschild's country house at Ferrières, and saw the lavish splendor with which it was furnished, he said, "I cannot allow myself anything of that kind, and have taken the plainest room." For his study he took the bath-room, but declined to use the magnificent bedroom to which it belonged, and had his cot put up in an adjoining chamber. He allowed himself no indulgence in luxuries or in idleness. None of those about him ever saw him unoccupied. He was habitually prompt in answering letters on the very day on which he received them, and had a habit of returning the answers in the same envelopes in which the letters came to him. It was in this way that he appointed Bismarck Chancellor of the *Empire*. On January 18, 1870, the day on which William was crowned Emperor, he returned the papers relating to the ceremony in the original envelope, but made a change in the address. It had read, "To the Emperor's Majesty, from the Chancellor of the Confederacy (*Bundeskanzler*)," and he crossed out the word "Bundes," writing over it "Reichs" (iii, 157).

Another instance of William's activity and endurance at an advanced age is found in the record of the day of Sedan, when he was at work bodily and mentally for sixteen hours, from nine in the morning till past midnight, notwithstanding which he was ready for his daily task at half-past seven the next morning.

Many other traits are here described and illustrated, such as his respect for property of the enemy, as shown in his refusal to take for himself any books from the libraries of St.-Cloud or St. Cyr, his consideration for Napoleon, and, generally, his generous disposition towards his enemies in war, his patience in adjusting the conflicting claims of the civil and the military authorities in the midst of war, his prevailing seriousness of character, and the like. For all this, and for many interesting details concerning the wars and the foreign relations of Prussia during the years 1866 to 1870, the reader must be referred to the book itself, which will no doubt be soon translated into English, as it has already been done into French.

Fifty Years Ago. By Walter Besant. Harpers. 1888.

Mr. Walter Besant's Jubilee volume is so richly illustrated as to make the cuts almost its main feature. These sketches of the look of the streets and houses, the crowds, the typical characters of the pavement, the demolished shops, taverns, and public buildings, the sports and the humors of the time, tell a story by themselves, and the revival of the *Fraser Gallery* of portraits is enough of itself to render the volume welcome. These caricatures often keep so close to the reality that they seem the most speaking likenesses, and make the men of the time live before our eyes in a most surprising way. Those of Coleridge and Rogers are "the lean and slippered pantaloon" itself, and have, besides, the individuality of their originals; Wordsworth's and Scott's are unique, and "Dizzy's" is the dandy *au naturel*, while those in which there is no caricature in fact (such as Carlyle's and Leigh Hunt's) are admirable portraits. The volume, however, is a written as well as a pictured one, and although one glances at the illustrations first, as nearly every reader will be sure to do, it would not be pardonable to neglect the text; for Mr. Besant has written with great vigor, and succeeds in representing the times very much more fully than do the illustrations, numerous and striking as these are.

He naturally begins with statistics of comparison between the old and the new, in order to gain perspective, but when he has satisfied the reader of the vast increase of the British Empire and all things pertaining to it, in the spirit which ought to be every one's at a jubilee, he gets quickly to his work. He really gives us his point of view in a word by saying that in 1837 England was still in the eighteenth century. The nineteenth began with machinery, the Reform Bill, and science, with steam communication, the expansion of the colonies, and the opening of the universities, with the diffusion of political power through the State, the philanthropic "interference" of law, the religious revival; but fifty years ago was before all this. Manners and morals then were perceptibly different to that degree which separates one epoch from another, and the controlling element in society was still the eighteenth century. For example, Mr. Besant says that, at the time of the accession of Victoria, "there was no loyalty at all either to the Queen or to the institution of a limited monarchy or to the constitution or to the Church." He is speaking, of course, of the people. "There had been no loyalty since the Stuarts; for exactly one hundred and fifty years not one sovereign who sat upon the throne of England could boast that he had the love of his people. Not one wished to have the love of the people. He represented a principle; he governed with the assistance of a few families and by the votes of a small class. As King he was a stranger. When he drove through the streets, the people hurrahed; but they did not know him and they cared nothing for him."

Mr. Besant pays much attention to the people; he thinks they were never worse off than in the middle of the eighteenth century, never more degraded, and in 1837 this brutal stage of their condition still continued. He wonders how England got on without a mob revolution, and seems to ascribe the apathy of the masses to their being cowed by "Father Stick"—in other words, to the habit of wholesome obedience inculcated by flogging, in a time when everybody was whipped—women at Brideswell, criminals at the cart-tail, 'prentices, soldiers, sailors, slaves, and boys. The number and the virulence of abuses were, to a man of the author's eyes, astounding. The condition of the prisons accuses the civilization of the time, and that of the factories and mines brings a still heavier indictment against its Christianity. Yet Mr. Besant acknowledges that those who were responsible for these things or reaped their profits, and who looked on unmoved, were very good, well-intentioned people, fond of their own interests, but with no worse hardness of heart. The progress made in bettering the condition of the laboring classes in the last fifty years constantly provokes a pæan of thanksgiving from him:

"It is not true, as stated in a very well known work, that the poor have become poorer, though the rich have certainly become richer. The skilled workingman is better paid now than then, his work is more steady, his hours are shorter. He is better clad, with always a suit of clothes apart from his working dress; he is better taught; he is better mannered; he has holidays; he has clubs; he is no longer forbidden to combine; he can coöperate; he holds meetings; he has much better newspapers to read; his food is better and cheaper; he has model lodging-houses."

With this reassuring passage one can turn from this portion of the volume with better spirits; for what with ignorance and atheism, gin and rum, the chimney-sweep and the child-trap keeper, the rowdy fair, the prison, and the criminal code with two hundred and twenty-three capital offences, these chapters are chilling reading.

The people were but a part of society, and Almack's was at the other extreme, with Crockford's for diversion, and the land of clubs and cards. This lives for us in Thackeray. Then there were Lady Blessington's and Holland House, in literature. The list is too long to be enumerated, for Mr. Besant covers a broad field. One or two of the more striking of his observations may be cited. The theatres entertained about twenty thousand nightly, and now he reckons that, notwithstanding their increase and the growth of London, they do not have more spectators. The reason is, that city men live in the suburbs now, too far away to come in for the play, and it is left for the visitors largely to support the drama. If the theatre had grown as the city has, there should be six times as large an audience. On the other hand, the clubs, which then had twenty thousand members, are now calculated to include one hundred and twenty thousand. This indicates the vast social change which has broken down old professional barriers of intercourse and caused a more free movement. It also indicates the decline of the tavern, which was the old club-room, and was still in vigor fifty years ago. Mr. Besant seems to lament this change. Another loss which he regrets is the decline of the Ring, and he hails the prospect of its revival with enthusiasm:

"The decay of boxing during the last twenty-five years has been certainly followed by a great decay of the national pluck and pugnacity, and therefore naturally by a decay of national enterprise. We may fairly congratulate ourselves, therefore, that the noble art of self-defence is reviving and promises to become as great and favorite a sport as before. Let all our boys be taught to fight. Only the other day I read that there are no fights at Eton any more because the boys 'funk each other.' Eton boys funk each other! but we need not believe it. Let there be no nonsense listened to about brutality. The world belongs to the man who can fight."

Few on this soil will share Mr. Besant's regrets or hopes on this subject. Another fact he remarks upon is that the "noise of mighty London" is no longer heard. There is still a rumble, but not the old roar. "Your London, Eighty-seven, will not know how to roar"; first, because the streets of fifty years ago were "not macadamized or asphalted or paved with wood; next, the traffic of wagons, carts, and wheelbarrows and hand-carts is vastly greater than you had ever previously imagined; then there is a great deal more of porter work done in the street, and the men are perpetually jostling, quarrelling, and fighting"; to which elements of discord the man of Thirty-seven goes on to add the coaches before the time of railway traffic, the great freight wagons, the wooden sledges, the donkey with coals, and the whole Babel of street cries, now silent. But the characteristic of the "roar of London" is not its loudness, but its continuousness.

The subjects which Mr. Besant has drawn into his volume are as various as the aspects of life in the greatest Christian city—though the adjective seems strangely out of place. The great topic of the position of women, which was correctly described by the title of Mr. Mill's treatise as "subjection," is lightly touched upon; that of practical jokes somewhat fully, and wonder (in which we share) is expressed that people did not fall upon the wits, and especially Jerrold, with immediate personal violence. That there is a brutality in superior wit as well as in superior muscle, the anecdotes of the time amply show. In this respect manners have improved, if we have lost something in dignity and graciousness of demeanor, the ways of "the old school." Mr. Besant protests, however, against the notion that we have lost in leisure. He declares he cannot find that vaunted "leisure" either in the fiction or the fact of the eighteenth century, which was one of downright hard labor commonly speaking—much harder than to-day's. It was just at this period, too, that the "great drop" in poetry occurred, following the popularity of Byron. The British public suddenly, and without warning, stopped buying verse, and it has never begun again, poetry continuing to be the most sluggish article in the literary market to this day. The one thing that has suffered no change is the Court. Now, as then, the Court is in the hands of a few families and entirely disconnected with the life of the nation, which goes on as if the Court "did not exist." Mr. Besant put it in italics, but plain print will be emphatic enough: "The whole of these men who in this generation maintain the greatness of our country in the ways where alone greatness is desirable or memorable, except in arms—the only men of this generation whose memories will live and adorn the Victorian era—are strangers to the Court."

It will be seen that his volume takes a wide range, that it is not the year 1837 he tells of, but rather the social conditions of an age, with much comparison of old and new. There is next to nothing of individuals in his pages; but the lack is made up for by the "profuse illustrations," which include the faces of the distinguished persons then alive. Among the rest we observe a curious one of Emerson at the period, and another of Tennyson, both small. But both in cuts and text the volume is equally happy.

Gouverneur Morris. By. Theodore Roosevelt. [American Statesmen Series.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888.

Of the three clearly marked classes composing the population of New York at the date of the Revolution—the great landholders, the rich traders, and the farming and artisan multitude—the first was unquestionably that one which risked the most in taking up arms. If the rebellion failed, the fate of its members was sure ruin, and probable hanging. If the Revolution triumphed, an untried government by the many boded danger to their station and estates. All honor to those whose convictions ranged them on the right side, against their doubts whether it was the safe one. How great the wavering and the conflict were can only be noted in an epitome like this biography. Curiosity as to details may be amply gratified by the venomously prejudiced but instructive monograph of Dawson on 'Westchester County in the Revolution.'

The family of Gouverneur Morris was of the manorial class in that county. As a younger son, of slender means, he chose this city for his field, and the law for his profession. His preceptor was William Smith, afterwards Chief Justice of the province, an enigmatical character, described by Tory historians as one of that young triumvirate of Yale graduates, resolved on pulling down Church and State, who, in the year of Morris's birth, formed a club with that object. The pupil's liberal bent was not likely to be warped under such culture. His profession, bringing him into association with Hamilton and Jay, he soon exchanged for political action, which thenceforward united them as the three leaders among the statesmen of New York.

That Morris did not run an equal race in statesmanship with the other two, and does not stand quite their peer in history, was not due

to want of power, or conviction, or honesty. He was fertile in thought, a terse and picturesque speaker, and almost prophetic in foresight. But "he inherited a certain whimsical streak, that ran through his character." While this eccentricity heightened the charm of his personality, it sometimes deflected his aims, and perverted his conduct into inconsistencies that bear no explanation except such as this congenital defect supplies. As an early instance, while yet under age, he effectively attacked a bill pending in the New York Assembly to provide an issue of paper money, pressing all those arguments unhappily too familiar to us by iteration. A few years later, dropping his theories, he reported, while a member of the Provincial Congress, in favor of such an issue, to be made a national measure. The best excuse for inconsistency is that his doctrine was right in the first case and his practice necessary in the last.

A few years later, at the age of twenty-eight, he proved his mastery of the subject by a series of essays on finance and taxation. Their merit led to his selection as assistant by Robert Morris, official "Financier" under the Confederation. In this office he did great service by aiding to establish the Bank of North America; and still greater by preparing a plan for the national coinage, which, as afterwards simplified by Jefferson and modified by Hamilton, became the basis of our present metallic system.

The next step in Morris's public career was his mission from Pennsylvania as a delegate to the Convention to form a National Constitution. No one brought to that assembly a more thorough-going national spirit. In that gathering of the sifted genius of the country he held place with the best as a broad and ingenious thinker, a keen reasoner, and a precise and vigorous speaker. In discussion he was constant and insistent, calling things by their right names, and speaking out on the question of slavery the truths that others whispered. On most of the other subjects of debate in the Convention, Morris took sound positions, and enforced them with power. The biographer finds fault with his incurable cynicism and disbelief in all generous motives. In such an assembly the *advocatus diaboli*, exceptional as he then was, may be a safer counsellor, though not for his own fame, than a sentimentalist.

Probably his "deep-rooted distrust of mankind" inspired two plans proposed by him, so singular that the most excessive whimsicality cannot account for them. One was, to constitute an aristocratic Senate for life, with a democratic House, each having a personal interest in watching and checking the other. The friction even under our present system may teach us how such machinery would have jarred and strained until it came to a full stop. The other proposition, less theoretical, but more narrow and short-sighted, was to secure to the seaboard States, by a constant majority of votes, the absolute control of the Union, and the right to impose such conditions on the Western States, when admitted, as to keep them always subordinate to the East. He feared combinations between the West and the South injurious to Northern interests. No one could then foresee the rise of a counterbalancing Northwest.

A singular instance is within the reviewer's experience of a like want of foresight in a great mind. Twenty years before the civil war, Judge Story, lecturing to his law classes, often intermingled with his vivid recital of the difficulties in framing the Union, and his fervid counsels of devotion to its maintenance, grave doubts and warnings as to the danger to be feared from a future combination between the West and the South to seize and divide the public domain. The seer had no vision of the slaveholders' war.

Business interests called Morris, when thirty-seven years of age, to Paris. He arrived there early in 1789, while Jefferson was our Minister, and while the French Revolution was in the first stage of its development. In the spring of 1792 he succeeded Jefferson and remained as Minister until recalled in 1794, at the request of the French Government, only because Genet had just been withdrawn at the request of ours. He remained some time longer in Europe, engaged in complicated business affairs, and returned to America, after an absence of more than nine years, in 1798. These years witnessed the most amazing events of modern history in the hideous progress of the French Revolution, of which his diaries and letters preserve a contemporary record of surpassing interest. His insight, his experience, his impartial truthfulness, and his relation as friend and counsellor to all who were best worth knowing in Paris, give these writings a value shared by no other record of that period. The ample extracts given by the biographer are among the most interesting pages of this volume, and justify the statement that his writings are more valuable to the historian of his time than those of any of his contemporaries. His official duties were discharged under difficulties and amid dangers from which the envoys of all other nations judged it prudent to withdraw, and with such courage, dignity, and wisdom as well merit the praise that "we have never had a foreign minister who deserved more honor than Morris."

Curiously contrasting, yet in many respects curiously resembling, the life of Morris in Europe, was that of another self-expatriated American. Joel Barlow, two years his junior, came to Paris a year before him, and left it a year after him. He, too, sold wild lands, for which purpose he first went out. He, too, speculated boldly, and made a fortune in large business enterprises. He was much in England, too, and no friend of that Government, and closely allied with the French leaders, but with those of the worst kind. He even supported the Revolution as a pamphleteer, became a French citizen, and was talked of as a member of the Convention from Savoy. Instead of charming letters and valuable diaries, he achieved the failure of a stupendous epic. Yet in the public employment, under a Federal Administration, he braved great dangers and rendered great services in Barbary. We do not recall any mention of him in Morris's published letters. They must have met, for both were friends of Jefferson, and it would be interesting to know how they regarded each other.

Morris reëntered the Senate in time to assist at the decadence of the Federal party. As time went on, the weakness of the new Administration exasperated Morris into "an opposition so violent that his follies surpassed the worst of the follies he condemned." The painful details of the closing days in his public career are minutely pictured by the biographer, culminating in the description that "throughout the war of 1812 he appeared as the open champion of treason to the nation, of dishonesty to the nation's creditors, and of cringing subserviency to a foreign Power."

The biographer's style is easy, graceful, and spirited, while his method leaves something to be desired. It is rather discursive, apt to effervesce into facile generalities on slight suggestion. In minor points, we could miss without regret the uncouth Gallicism, "goes without saying," that would have delighted Jefferson; and could wish that "voiced" had never crept into books from the reporter's column. And in another edition, besides some typographical amendments, "cet éloge," instead of "cette," and *Carnes* corrected to *Carmes* would be welcome.

Housekeeping Made Easy. By Christine Terhune Herrick. Harper & Bros.

THIS volume is made up of a series of papers that appeared first in *Harper's Bazar*. One cannot look through its pages without feeling that the writer is a sensible woman, with a practical knowledge of the subject on which she writes. If there is a novice in housekeeping who has not a theory of her own to carry out, she will find a safe adviser in Mrs. Herrick, and she will be sure of finding rules for the ordering of all departments of her new realm. Indeed, so minute are the directions that one is disposed to think there is to be a revival of the methods of our grandmothers as well as of their fashions in dress. Of late it has seemed as if the minute attention of the mistress of the house to the duties or economies of the household, was an old fashion that was passing away. Our author is evidently not of this school; her book is meant as a guide to the mistress of a small establishment who is just coming into her kingdom. The estimates and the lists given, however, are often meant for a family of five, rather than the family of two which is the usual number a novice has to keep house for, unless she marries a man with a "ready-made family."

In the furnishing of a house Mrs. Herrick wisely distinguishes between the "must haves" and "may haves," and she gives a scale by which to proportion expenses that seems a good one in the main, if she had only allowed a wider margin for the unforeseen drains on the purse. It is as true in regard to household contingencies as in other things, that it is the "unexpected that happens." Thus, "a man with an income of two thousand dollars a year has no right to devote more than one-fourth of that to payment for the roof to cover him. If he can get it for less, so much the better. . . . It may at least be said that not more than one-quarter should be given to food, not more than one-eighth to service, and about the same amount to fuel and lights." This leaves only one-quarter of the income for clothing, etceteras, and the "unexpected." We are afraid it is not enough. Unless there is a fairy godmother in the family, there will be heartaches in January and in July, and heartaches cause bodily aches and failing strength in the head of the family.

The house Mrs. Herrick recommends one to search for will be hard to find, we suspect, but one is so often called on to sacrifice one's ideal, that it may as well be done at the outset. She gives good advice about asking the landlord for all needed repairs and changes before taking the house, and about making the agreement in writing. She advises a clear understanding with a servant as to her work and her privileges before she is engaged. There are also wise directions as to giving a servant time for the care of her own room, and for saving her trouble by waiting on one's self. There are two sides to the question of supplies in large quantities: the housekeeper can tell better whether too much is used if they are obtained weekly or monthly. Mrs. Herrick dwells too much on drapery. In her regard for curtains and portières, she seems to lose sight of the general principle, that because they make a large room look cosey and inhabited, they also belittle a small one and make it seem "stuffy." She is fully alive to the horrors of a "parlor set," or of

an ornamented dust-pan or milking stool, or the family photographs on the walls; and she is aware of the power of growing plants and of books to give a room an air of being lived in. Yet she sensibly says, in speaking of the sitting-room, "If this is to be a place where every one may feel at his ease, rigid principles cannot be established. The home feeling is worth more than even spotless tidiness."

The fault of the book is, that it does not clearly distinguish between the desirable and the possible in regard to the style of living, and it often leaves one in doubt whether one maid or two or more are expected to do the work which is mapped out. In a family of five, where only one servant is kept, if there is a dinner of five courses, it will take at least three hours to clear the table, wash the dishes, and return them to their places. If the mistress attempts to have so much done each day, she will lose either her health or her maid, and perhaps both. It also seems as if the writer made the common mistake in America of recommending a too elaborate menu for the entertainment of company, which, of course, leads to the other mistake of entertaining but seldom. She recommends putting by part of one's income each year, but, alas! she cannot solve the problem how one is to avoid living up to one's income when the income is small. It would have been well if the book offered guidance as to the amount of tea, coffee, laundry soap, and such things required each week in a small family, that the housekeeper might be provided with a standard by which to order her own outgoings.

'Housekeeping Done Thoroughly' would have better defined the book. Rules given may reduce housekeeping to a science, but it does not follow that it is easy to acquire the science, nor that the rules are carried out without effort. To keep house is the best and the truest way of living, but it is not the easiest way, especially if the eye of the mistress is to be in every place, as this book recommends, and as is undoubtedly best when her income is small. The true woman will bear her housekeeping burdens cheerfully and uncomplainingly, as a true man bears the strain of providing for the needs of a family; and the happiness that comes from a duty fulfilled will help to lighten her task.

Cricket. By A. G. Steel and R. H. Lyttelton. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

THIS is another of the Badminton Library of books devoted to sports and pastimes, and it is as interesting to those who care for such subjects as its predecessors have been. Mr. Andrew Lang contributes chapters on the "Archæology of the Game" and on "Border Cricket," while Mr. F. Gale writes of "Country Cricket," Mr. W. G. Grace on "How to Score" and "Outfit," Mr. R. A. H. Mitchell on the "Art of Training Young Cricketers," and the two editors divide the remaining eight chapters between them.

In endeavoring to ascertain the age of this "great, glorious, and unsurpassable game," as one of its admirers calls it, Mr. Lang refers to a miniature in the Bodleian Library, dated 1344, in which a woman is seen bowling to a man; but he adds, with characteristic humor, that the evidence of art is never very trustworthy, as the painter may have been a woman, or a monk, or an uneducated person! There is, however, very little doubt that the name was derived from the A. S. *cric*, a staff, corresponding to the French *crosse* used in the game of lacrosse. Although references to the game are not frequent in early literature, there is no doubt that it was permanently established as a national pastime many years before Pope thought it worthy of his satire. Writing in 1740, Lord Chesterfield says: "If you have a right ambition, you will desire to excel all boys of your age at cricket as well as learning"; and to a foreigner visiting England to-day the intense love of cricket which has been gaining strength through many generations will probably appear one of the marked social peculiarities of the people. An American, ignorant of this peculiarity of English life, will find it difficult to believe that only the other day an important debate in the House of Commons had to be postponed because a majority of the members were watching the Eton and Harrow match at Lord's!

There is an anecdote, well known to English Public School players of thirty years ago, which illustrates this somewhat comical exaltation of the national game. An old cricketer had two sons at Eton, and the great ambition of his life was that they should get into the school eleven. This was happily accomplished, and when the day came for the great annual match with Harrow, the old gentleman arrived early at Lord's ground, his heart full of exceeding great joy. Unfortunately Tom, the elder boy, was run out before he had had a chance to distinguish himself, and Archie, the younger, was bowled without making a run. In the evening, the old gentleman was found by a friend gloomily pacing to and fro in a remote corner of the ground, and the only explanation of his unhappiness he vouchsafed was, "Tom was unlucky, but d——n Archie!"

Mr. Lyttelton holds that there are three delightful moments in life connected with games: (1) Making chase one on the floor at tennis; (2) a successful drive at golf; (3) a crack to square leg off a half-volley just outside the legs —and those who understand these particlar sensations will be disposed to agree with him. But there are also plenty of unpleasant sensations in cricket. Take, for instance, Mr. Lyttelton's description of the pleasures of wicket-keeping:

> "There are several seconds, therefore, when the wicket-keeper is only conjecturing what course the ball is taking, and is certain of but two things—one, that the ball is hard; the other, that it is advancing in the direction of himself with terrific rapidity. Then, even if you see the ball plainly, it may happen to be, and frequently is, straight, and a straight fast ball raises unutterable emotions in the wicket-keeper's breast; for who knows what devilish tricks the ball, to say nothing of the bails, will play after the wicket is struck, and the course of the missile diverted, not stopped? The writer was once struck by the ball on the eye and by the bail on the mouth at very nearly the same second."

Nowadays cricket grounds are so true that a good deal of the danger is eliminated, but Mr. Lyttelton very truthfully remarks that long-stopping on Lord's ground in 1861 and 1862 was no laughing matter. There is on record a Public School match in the latter year in which the wicket-keeper was incapacitated early in the game by a blow on the head, and the unfortunate longstop looked—and felt—like a defeated prize-fighter, at the end of the second day. But in spite of these disagreeables there is undoubtedly a wonderful fascination in the game, not only for the players, but also for the lookers-on. True, the game loses much by the endless delays that seem inseparable from it, by the pokey play that has come into vogue with the modern slow-twisting bowling, and by the unsatisfactory state of the law in relation to *leg before wicket*. But though the important matches in England always last three days, and are very often unfinished at the end of the third day, owing to lack of time, the fact remains that ten or fifteen thousand people will pay to see the play each day. An American audience, accustomed to the rapid changes of base-ball, would regard such a performance in the same light as a Chinese drama which takes several weeks for its complete evolution; and yet, in Philadelphia, cricket, with certain American improvements—all in the direction of saving time—is unmistakably popular. This may be due either to climate or to some subtle similarity of temperament between the average Philadelphian and the average Englishman—a point which may be left to scientific investigation; but in spite of this fact it is extremely improbable that cricket will ever take the place of base-ball in this country.

Nor, on the whole, is it desirable that it should do so. At the great English Public Schools a natural turn for cricket in a boy is absolutely certain to result in a more or less serious impairment of his education; and when he comes to man's estate and realizes that there are more important things in the world than cricket, he finds it exceedingly difficult to make up for lost time. The fact is, that the time devoted to the game at these institutions is not in proportion to its value as an exercise, but to the national overestimate of its importance. The ever-increasing class of idle young Americans may well take to cricket, for it is not only admirable as a game, but is likely to develop many valuable moral as well as physical qualities; but those who have to make their way in the world cannot afford the loss of time involved in a thorough cricket training, and they are fortunate in having so good a substitute as base-ball.

There is much in this volume, however, that will interest any reader who cares for games, even though he be neither a Philadelphian nor a gentleman of leisure. Mr. Lang's chapters are not unworthy of his literary reputation, and the purely technical chapters on batting, bowling, etc., are, as a rule, well written. It is curious to note how a technical term will occasionally make a sentence unintelligible to the uninitiated, as, for instance, when Mr. Steel says: "Straight long hops do more to *get in the eyes* of batsmen than any other sort of ball."

The History of Protective Tariff Laws. By R. W. Thompson, ex-Secretary of the United States Navy. Chicago: R. S. Peale & Co. Pp. xii., 525. 8vo.

THIS book is not a history; it is a campaign shriek. Perhaps we should rather call it a long-drawn roar, for the intensity of a shriek cannot be kept up for 525 pages. Of intelligent historical investigation there is no trace. The author gives us abundance of quotations from the utterances of various public men, chiefly such as can be conveniently culled from the 'Statesman's Manual,' with occasional resort to the Congressional debates; at times we have a row of figures, such as may be got from the reports of the Secretary of the Treasury; but of original investigation, or even of pertinent information, there is not a particle. One could learn from the book the rate of duty on hardly a single article under any tariff act; there is no pretence of endeavor to trace out the effects of any duty.

The book, in fact, adds but another to the list of empty diatribes against British Free Trade. We are sorry to speak of it with contempt, for a careful specific discussion of the effect of duties, from a protectionist point of view, would deserve a respectful hearing. But what are we to say to an author who tells us, without further ado, that the "derangement of

business" in 1837-39 was due to the "threatened withdrawal of protection" under the Compromise Act of 1833?—who sagely remarks that "if revenue tariff could protect, it would be accidental, not incidental"? Mr. Thompson ascribes, in an off-hand way, the revival of trade in 1842 to the Tariff Act of that year. But in discussing the period between 1846 and 1857, he takes pains to show that prosperity was then due to other causes than the moderate duties. The idea that, when a protective tariff exists, other causes may also have an effect on general welfare, seems never to occur to him.

We are given several chapters on the Tariff Act of 1789, and there are lengthy extracts from the writings of Washington, Hamilton, Jefferson, Madison, Gallatin, and Jackson, all intended to show that these were indiscriminately in favor of protection. It is amusing to see Gallatin, the ablest of American statesmen in the advocacy of free trade, put side by side with Hamilton, the ablest of the protectionists. In contrast with this copiousness, we have hardly a word on the Tariff Act of 1828, the most striking and interesting of the earlier acts; which is the more peculiar, as this measure is generally cited by protectionists as a crowning example of beneficent tariff legislation. We may note by the way the extraordinary misstatement that Jackson's election in 1828 was due to his being *more* of an advocate of protection than Adams, and that the result of the campaign was, therefore, a vindication of the protective policy! We have the vaguest description of the acts of 1842, 1846, and 1857; there is bare mention of the Morrill tariff of 1861; and then the narrative, such as it is, stops abruptly. There is not a word on the history of the present tariff, or of the process by which the existing system has been built up since the civil war. After reaching the year 1860, we get nothing but half-a-dozen concluding chapters on the advantages of protection, on home markets, on the selfishness of England, and, of course, on the Cobden Club. It is delicious to be told that the Cobden Club is "a political organization which has become formidable in this country by the character and intelligence of its members. It has the centre of its operations in New York city (!), where it is mainly—as is believed [note the diplomatic caution of this qualification]—supported by the large body of importing merchants who there represent foreign capital and manufactures."

Perhaps the most remarkable feature of the book is in the illustrations. These are diagrams scattered through the volume in the most inconsequential manner. Pink, yellow, and green circles and squares show "the world's manufactures"; "cereal products" (lovely rose-pink circles on a pale-green ground); the comparative wealth, income, and debt of various countries—in all of which the United States, of course, comes out first. These and other pictures are obviously supposed to convey their own meaning to the reader's mind, for there is not the slightest allusion to any of them in the text. Thus we have a diagram of the average yearly wages of artisans in the United States opposite a long and wearisome account of Jackson's attitude towards the nullification movement; another, of the value of farm lands, opposite a discussion of the advalorem duties of the act of 1846; while another, showing the receipts and expenditures for the year 1887, is sandwiched into the history of the tariff of 1824. This last is really a charming picture. The golden coins flow from green and yellow funnels, which are labelled "tariff," "internal revenue," "public lands," into a huge rosy coffer, well clamped and studded with nails, and marked "U. S. Treasury"; thence they go by rosy pipes into baskets, again green and yellow, labelled "War Dept.," "Navy," "Pensions," and so on. No one who sees this work of art can fail to be convinced of the beauties of the act of 1824 and of protective tariffs in general.

The Life of Dr. Anandibai Joshee. By Mrs. Caroline Healey Dall. Boston: Roberts Bros. 1888.

A PATHETIC interest must always attach to the story of the first Hindu woman to seek our shores for access to that learning which the institutions of her own country denied her, though they could not prevent her thirsting for it. Mental does not lag behind physical precocity in Hindu women, if we may judge by the two representatives they have sent to us—Ramabai and Dr. Joshee. It is not every sixteen-year-old girl, even if born to English speech, that could write such excellent English as we find in a letter of Anandibai's when at that age; and the sentiments she expresses in it are such as we get from too few older heads. For example (she was writing to her new-found American friend): "I love these Mission ladies for their enthusiasm and energy, but I dislike blindness to the feelings of others. . . . How arbitrary would it be if I were to say that all you believed was nonsense, and all I believed was just and proper! My dear friend, I have nothing to despise. The whole universe is a lesson to me. I am required by duty to respect every creed and sect, and value its religion." And when the daring purpose of sailing to America, to study medicine, was fully fixed in her mind, there is something to remind of Emerson in the language in which she announced it: "My design meets with the approbation of a few, say one or two to a thousand, and they are probably youths, reformers, and patriots. I am not discouraged. I must not fear, but try my best and show all what we Indian ladies are like. Our antient Indian ladies were very wise, brave, courageous, and benevolent, and endurance was their badge. Let it be my badge also."

This book tells of her coming to our country, of her study and graduation at the Woman's Medical College at Philadelphia, of her broken health (it would seem that her medical friends were unaccountably inattentive to her marked symptoms of consumption), of her return to India, and of her death, not yet twenty-two, before she had done a stroke of that work for Hindu women to which she had determined to devote her life. The narrative is a brief and fragmentary one, but it reveals a strong and singularly noble soul. Dr. Joshee's wonderful mental poise appears in many ways, in none more than in her steadfast refusal to gratify those American friends who were fondly counting upon her "conversion." She welcomed all that Christianity had for her, and maintained that her way of looking at religion embraced whatever was of value in either Christianity or Hinduism; he would be bold who should say she was wrong.

The editing is not without faults. The reader has too much gratuitous information thrust upon him, and finds all too frequent finger-boards pointing out the proper places for him to bestow his admiration. Most serious defect of all, the treatment accorded Dr. Joshee's husband is extremely unfair. He is pictured in a wholly unpleasant light, and yet no proof is supplied that the characterization is just. He may have been all that he is said or hinted to be, but the reader is not shown the evidence. Where are Anandibai's letters to him—his to her? How much was he consulted in the writing of this memoir? With such questions must one who would not condemn a man unheard turn from the reading of this book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Franklin, B. Complete Works, edited by John Bigelow. Vol. 9. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
Gillig, C. A. Guide to London. 8th ed. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 50 cents.
Goss, Prof. W. F. M. Bench Work in Wood. Boston: Ginn & Co. 75 cents.
Hale, Prof. W. G. Aims and Methods in Classical Study. Boston: Ginn & Co. 20 cents.
Hale, Rev. E. E. How They Lived in Hampton. Boston: J. Stilman Smith & Co.
Holder, C. F. A Strange Company: Wonder-wings, Mullingongs, Colossi, etc. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Hopkins, S. R. A Young Prince of Commerce. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Howard, Blanche Willis. Aulnay Tower. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 50 cents.
Howells, W. D. A Sea-Change, or Love's Stowaway. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.
La Motte Fouqué, F. de. Undine; and Sintram and His Companions. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Lavisse, Prof. E. Trois Empereurs de l'Allemagne. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern.
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Loti, P. An Icelandic Fisherman. Wm. S. Gottsberger.
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Maudslay, A. Highways and Horses. London: Chapman & Hall; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
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Merrill, S. Newspaper Libel: a Handbook for the Press. Boston: Ticknor & Co.
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Parker, Prof. H. W. The Spirit of Beauty. John B. Alden. 75 cents.
Payne, J. The Eavesdropper. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Pearson, F. W. An Idyl of Bar Harbor: a Poem. New York: The Welles Publishing Co. 10c.
Perrin, W. H. The Pioneer Press of Kentucky. Louisville: John P. Morton & Co. $1.50.
Philip Earnscliffe, or the Morals of May Fair. G. W. Dillingham.

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The English Illustrated Magazine.
NO. 60. SEPTEMBER.

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Alphabetized, first, by States; second, by Towns.

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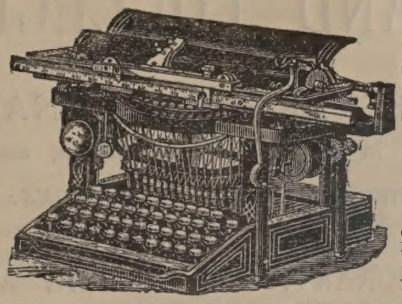

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Premiums on Marine Risks from 1st January, 1887, to 31st December, 1887.....		$3,642,969 09
Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1887.....		1,417,600 13
Total Marine Premiums.....		$5,060,569 22
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1887, to 31st December, 1887.....		$3,672,331 21
Losses paid during the same period	$1,599,468 25	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses.....	$788,846 38	
The Company has the following Assets, viz.:		
United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks....		$8,622,565 00
Loans, secured by Stocks and otherwise..		1,559,100 00
Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at.....		474,439 88
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable....		1,362,986 07
Cash in Bank.....		218,192 40
Amount.....		$12,237,283 35

Six per cent. interest on the outstanding certificates of profits will be paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the seventh day of February next.

The outstanding certificates of the issue of 1883 will be redeemed and paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the seventh of February next, from which date all interest thereon will cease. The certificates to be produced at the time of payment and cancelled.

A dividend of FORTY PER CENT. is declared on the net earned premiums of the Company for the year ending 31st December, 1887, for which certificates will be issued on and after Tuesday, the first of May next.

By order of the Board,
J. H. CHAPMAN, Secretary.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 6, 1888.

The Week.

THE Greatest Living Statesman's latest performance on the stump really staggers the reader. When he made his first defence of Trusts in his Portland speech, friendly organs, like the New York *Tribune*, sought to excuse it on the plea that the remarks were "casual and inconclusive," and the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette* announced, in a triumphant tone, that "presently Mr. Blaine will speak of Trusts at length." Well, he has "spoken at length," and to make sure that nobody should style his remarks "casual and inconclusive," he carefully wrote them out in advance and read them from the manuscript. And what does he say in this long-promised explanation? Why, that "Trusts are State issues," that they "have no place in a national campaign," and that the fuss about them is ridiculous anyway — "*if* there be evils connected with these Trusts," he said on Friday, with the emphasis on the "*if*." At the same time he abused the editors who dissented from his Portland speech, many of them Republicans, as "impudent men, who mistake assertion for argument," and declared that they "either are ignorant or else they wilfully concealed the truth."

Notwithstanding Mr. Blaine's declaration that the National Government has no power to deal with Trusts, Congress continues to investigate the Cotton-Bagging Trust, and has got at the bottom facts very nearly. The substance of the finding is that the manufacturers, stimulated by a protecting duty of 54.13 per cent., overdid the business "by a large majority," and found themselves last autumn making a great deal more jute bagging than the market would take. A number of mills were obliged to stop. Naturally these were the ones least favorably situated, or least skilled, or least something, no matter what. It was a case of survival of the fittest. They were actually selling bagging at lower prices than it could be imported for. The Ways and Means Committee naturally concluded that under such circumstances they did not need protection, and therefore put bagging on the free list. Then the manufacturers decided, in the language of one of the witnesses, that "if they could not do any better, they would at least make what money they could this year." Hence the Trust, or the Combine, or the corner, or whatever it may be called. Probably this explanation will apply to some of the other tariff-protected Trusts. They see the end of their system coming, and they are "going for all that is out" while it lasts.

Mr. Blaine ought to have stuck to his first savings-bank statement in the way in which he put it. Nobody can deny that the average deposit of the wage-workers of some parts of this country, where the savings bank has long been in existence, is much greater than it is among the poorly paid operatives of Great Britain and Ireland. Nobody denies that wages are a great deal higher here, because the efficiency of labor is so much higher. Nobody denies that the American workman has a larger margin for saving; but why did Mr. Blaine limit his comparison to a small section of the country? He gave the total savings in all the postal banks of the United Kingdom at five hundred and twenty million dollars, belonging to wage-workers and everybody else—a very small sum for a population of thirty-eight millions. But there is one thing to be said: under the old system of protection in Great Britain which culminated in such disaster in 1840-46, the working people had no deposits at all in the savings banks that amounted to anything. Now, if Mr. Blaine were honest, he would not limit the comparison of the deposits in Great Britain to those in Massachusetts, New York, and Connecticut; if the people of the United States as a whole had a deposit in the savings bank equal to the average belonging to the population of Massachusetts, the entire deposits of the people of the United States would be over *nine thousand million dollars*. If protection to domestic industry has enabled the people of New York, of Massachusetts, and the rest of New England to save so much, why has it not enabled the people of the rest of the country to make an equal saving?

It would be interesting to know by what warrant the Republican Senators propose to push a tariff bill which is directly at issue with the tariff plank of the Republican platform. The reduction of the duty on sugar one-half would be at variance with the fundamental principle upon which the Republican platform declares that a tariff bill should be framed. Here is that principle: "The Republican party would effect all needed reduction of the national revenue by repealing the taxes upon tobacco, which are an annoyance and burden to agriculture, and the tax upon spirits used in the arts and for mechanical purposes, *and by such revision of the tariff laws as will tend to check imports of such articles as are produced by our people, the production of which gives employment to our labor*, and release from import duties those articles of foreign production (except luxuries) the like of which cannot be produced at home." Sugar is an article "produced by our people, the production of which gives employment to our labor." A "revision of the tariff laws" cutting down the duty on sugar one-half would not "tend to check imports of such article." On the contrary, it would inevitably tend to increase imports of such article. The Republican Senators may possibly be able to reconcile it with their consciences to repudiate the Republican platform in this fashion, but they cannot expect the Republican candidate for President to go with them. Gen. Harrison has already declared that he has "examined the platform with some care, and its declarations are in harmony with my views."

The London *Standard* has lowered its own standard by publishing a threatening article on the fisheries question. "If we have to deal with a nation of filibusters," it says, "let us know it." The word filibuster has a definite meaning, as the *Standard* knows. It signifies one who seeks to possess himself of his neighbor's territory by violence. It is this character which the chief Tory organ impliedly ascribes to the United States. It is amazing that such an ascription can be made to a country that has refused repeatedly, in recent years, to accept foreign territory offered to it in the way of peaceful negotiation. Our latest acquisition was Alaska, and this was almost forced upon a reluctant Congress and country. Mr. Goldwin Smith, in a magazine article a few years ago, said truly that "the United States was almost the only country in the world that looks at a mouthful before swallowing it." So far as Canada is concerned, we venture to say that outside of the contributions that Great Britain has made to our citizenship from the Emerald Isle, nobody ever thinks of annexing by force the smallest scrap of her territory. Nor would that thought be entertained if the power that stands behind Canada were as weak as that which stands behind Cuba.

Supposing that Senator Cullom is right in assuming that the President's recent message was a political move, what else than a political move was the Senate's Retaliation Act—the act of 1887? We have pointed out that this measure was a cowardly evasion of the duty of Congress, and a reversal of all the precedents of the past, since Congress, although possessed of full knowledge, refused to declare non-intercourse, but merely authorized the President to declare it in his discretion. How differently did the Congress of 1809 behave towards the two greatest Powers in Christendom when they had committed acts in contravention of our maritime rights. Here is the act passed on the 1st of March in that year, bold, explicit, and unequivocal:

"Be it enacted, etc., That from and after the passage of this act the entrance of the harbors and waters of the United States and of the Territories thereof be, and the same *is hereby, interdicted to all public ships belonging to Great Britain or France*, excepting vessels only which may be forced in by distress, or which are charged with despatches or business from the Government to which they belong, and also packets having no cargoes or merchandise on board. And if any public ship or vessel as aforesaid, not being included in the section above mentioned, shall enter any harbors or waters within the jurisdiction of the United States or of the Territories, it shall be lawful for the President of the United States, or such other person as he shall have empowered for that purpose, to employ such part of the land and naval forces or of the militia of the United

States or the Territories thereof, to compel such ship or vessel to depart."

We have examined the debates in the Congress of 1809 on the Non-Intercourse Act to see if any suggestion was made looking to the shirking of their responsibility in the premises and putting it on the President. No such thought was ever entertained or expressed. This bill was passed as above because, though the nation was in its infancy, Congress was in earnest and had no partisan end to subserve. The discretion was lodged with the President to declare non-intercourse at an end when the offensive acts should cease, but as to the inception of it, he had no more discretion than one of the pages of the Senate.

House Bill No. 155, which the President has just vetoed, bestows a pension on a man who never did a single day's service at the front, never left the State in which he enlisted—Maine—and deserted while there. He was finally discharged on a surgeon's certificate for disability incurred by a fall from a wagon at his own home, but the certificate bore the endorsement: "Never done a day's duty—is utterly worthless and unfit for the veteran reserve corps." Here is another proof of Grover Cleveland's heartless indifference to the sufferings of veterans caused by falls from wagons. It shows, moreover, how little he understands or appreciates the delicate feelings of a man who deserts before his regiment leaves his State, instead of deserting in the presence of the enemy, as Pat Ford did.

President Hyde of Bowdoin College is suffering the fate which befalls the New England man who ventures to dissent from the dominant sentiment of the community. He is the President of a college in Maine, where it is a tenet of good Republicans that a man has no right to be a Democrat, and that if he is so misguided as to support a Democratic candidate, he must be made to suffer for it. Having given the reasons which constrain him in the present campaign to favor tariff reform and the election of Mr. Cleveland, he is promptly notified, through "a letter from a prominent Bowdoin graduate living in a Western State," published in the Boston *Advertiser*, that he displays such independence at the peril of his future. "As you may imagine," says this letter, "the Republican alumni of the College feel outraged, and I may say to you that a sentiment is being crystallized into form, asking him to resign. We do not want that kind of a President at the head of Bowdoin." In other words, we do not want the kind of a President whose convictions are so strong, and whose sense of duty is so clear, that he follows the course which seems to him best for the interests of the nation, knowing perfectly well that this course would not only make him unpopular, but might cost him his position. The Republicans of Maine are greatly distressed in mind because Southern Democrats bulldoze negroes by physical force, but this offence is less grave than the moral intimidation which they themselves stand always ready to apply to white men.

Campaign lies multiply as fast as usual. One of the most nimble of the species is a pretended quotation from the London *Times*, extensively circulated in a leaflet signed "H. K. Thurber." In this leaflet Mr. Thurber says:

> "When the London *Times* thinks the best use they [the English manufacturers] can make of Irishmen is to help them to emigrate to this country and join the Democratic party, and thus help break down our protective tariff, that makes me think that our tariff is a great benefit to *this* country, and of course I range myself on the side of a protective tariff."

This particular lie having reached London in due course, it was ascertained that the London *Times* had never said anything of the kind. But it was too good to be lost. So a variation was tried, and the paragraph was credited to the London *Sunday Times*. Then the Chicago *Herald* put the question to its London correspondent whether the paragraph or sentiment quoted had ever appeared in the London *Sunday Times*. The correspondent replied by cable: "The London *Times* prints no Sunday issue, and the man who publishes the fact is either a liar or an ignoramus, and in neither case worthy of belief." Deprived of this resource, the Chicago *Inter-Ocean* replied that there is a London *Sunday Times* printed at No. 2 Salisbury Court, Fleet Street. It added that "every Republican paper that had published the extract, had honestly credited it to the London *Sunday Times*, and not to the London *Times*"—another lie, which its neighbor the *Herald* nailed instanter by identifying it in the columns of the *Inter-Ocean* itself of August 18, credited to the London *Times*, not the London *Sunday Times*. We have seen the pretended extract in several Republican papers kept standing at the editorial head. One of these, the Niles (Mich.) *Republican*, is now before us. We trust that Mr. H. K. Thurber will now recall his misleading circular to workingmen, and apologize to them for issuing it.

Another able-bodied lie we find going the rounds of the press credited to the St. Louis *Globe-Democrat*. Whether the *Globe-Democrat* ever published it we do not know. It recites that $58,300 was subscribed in England and sent to this country to carry the election of 1844, "to aid the free-traders during the canvass," and that the names of the men who furnished the money were ascertained. Of course, it is always well to go into particulars to some extent, but not to too great an extent. So the manager of this lie tells us that "over $51,000 of this sum was contributed in Manchester, Halifax, and Leeds, England, and in Glasgow, Scotland." No names of contributors are given, however. It is generally hard to prove a negative, but in this case it is possible to do so. England herself was wallowing in protective tariffs in 1844. She did not believe in free trade then any more than the St. Louis *Globe-Democrat* does now. Cobden and Bright were toiling to get the corn laws repealed, and did not succeed until 1846. Moreover, every student of history knows that the issue of our own election in 1844 was the annexation of Texas, and not the tariff at all. Indeed, it was one of the charges brought against Robert J. Walker, Polk's Secretary of the Treasury, that he brought forward his tariff bill in 1846 without any previous discussion of it before the people. It was said that the Democratic party had carried Pennsylvania with the cry, "Polk, Dallas, and the tariff of 1842."

A letter from the editor of the *Independent*, recently published in the *Voice*, is remarkable in more ways than one. It gives the Democratic party the regulation scolding, glories in the past of the Republican party, after the familiar fashion, and complains a good deal of the action of the Prohibitionists, although the conclusion it arrives at is, that Dr. Ward is mightily inclined to vote the Prohibition ticket. If he actually does, it will be because he thinks the Republican party has fallen under the domination of the saloon, and because its platform is, in Dr. Ward's opinion, a compound of "slush and mush that Harrison cannot stand upon without falling through." The funny part of all this is, that one turns in vain to the columns of the editor's own paper to find examples of such plain speaking. The reason is, of course, that the interesting gentleman who owns the *Independent* runs the politics of that publication. Having turned the theology of the editors upside down already, he now seems resolved to leave them nothing but the puzzle department and book reviews. The subscribers may not like it, but they had a good taste of Mr. Bowen's political quality four years ago, and have learned, we presume, that the madness into which every Presidential election stings him is soon gone. By the way, he must still have on hand copies of that circular he sent to irate readers, in 1884, begging them to bear with him until after the election, when he promised he would give over those political contortions which, even for him, he admitted, were painful.

It is a favorite argument of the defenders of Governor Hill that he had the same Mugwump opposition in 1885 that he has now, but that he was elected in spite of it. It is true that the Mugwumps opposed him in 1885, and they did so on the ground that his general course in office had not been such as to entitle him to reëlection. There were suspicions at that time that, in addition to using his office to promote personal and partisan ends, he had also been connected with transactions which reflected even more severely upon his character. What was suspicion then is proved fact now. The testimony in the aqueduct inquiry leaves no doubt upon that point. He was an ally with Squire and Flynn and a lot of Republican jobbers for the plunder of this city, and he profited by that plunder to the extent of having from $10,000 to $30,000 of his personal campaign indebtedness paid with it.

What the use or object of "Labor Day" is will doubtless appear eventually, but Monday's observance threw no light on it.

It was plain to be seen that Labor Day is a legal holiday, but all other legal holidays celebrate or commemorate something. What Labor Day celebrates or commemorates does not appear. It doubtless calls our attention to the existence of labor and laborers; but this is very like calling our attention to the sun at noonday. There is no phenomenon of the solar system more familiar to the human race than labor, and the class of laborers may be said, in a general way, to include the entire human family. It can hardly have been intended to show the strength of the laboring element of the population by means of the parade, because if the procession contained all our laborers, we should be in a bad way. It is said to have contained only about 8,000. On the whole, Labor Day seems to be simply an additional holiday or day of recreation, and if this be so, the name is a misnomer. It ought to be called "Non-Labor Day," as the only legal holiday the sole object of which is to enable men to stop working without being accused of idleness or laziness. On Washington's Birthday, Decoration Day, the Fourth of July, Christmas Day, and Sunday, we stop working in order to keep some great event in better remembrance, or fulfil some sacred obligation. But on Labor Day we stop work simply because we want a "day off."

The Sugar Bounties Conference in London has really accomplished what it set out to do. It has put machinery in force for abolishing the bounties in all the countries of Europe, except France, and France herself is expected to accede later. It has applied a species of coercion to other countries by prescribing that the countries acceding to the Conference shall not admit to their ports the sugar of non-acceding countries. This is clearly right and necessary if the principle is established that governments must not grant export bounties to the detriment of corresponding industries among their neighbors. But it remains to be seen whether Lord Salisbury can sustain himself before the English people on this ground. The principle is firmly fixed in British history and policy that you have no right to prevent the buyer of an article from getting it as cheaply as he can. If makes no difference to those who hold this doctrine whether the cheapness of sugar in the British market is due to one cause or another, whether it comes from the increased productivity of the beet root, or from the folly of a foreign government that chooses to tax its own people in order to supply the world with sugar below cost. We think that Lord Salisbury has done a good thing in bringing common sense to bear upon the governments of Europe in this matter, but we apprehend that he will find it difficult to sustain himself in Parliament on such an issue.

The judgment of Lord Chief-Justice Coleridge in the case of the Mogul Steamship Company furnishes an interesting illustration of the working of the Trust system. A combination of English shipowners, called a "conference," was made in China, to monopolize the transportation of tea, which they did by offering heavy discounts to shippers shipping in the vessels of the Conference. A rival shipowner who could not get into the Conference, and was ruined, accordingly sued them for malicious damage, but the court ruled that he had no case—that the law of trade is the survival of the fittest, and that the fittest is the man who can produce the desired result at least cost. The Conference, it will be observed, did not combine to raise prices, but to lower prices so as to drive rivals out of the field, the process by which nearly all the great retail stores have been built up, and against which it is difficult to contend, either by law or competition.

One of the humors of the home-rule agitation in England is to be found in a book on the Irish question entitled 'Ireland Under Coercion: the Diary of an American,' by William Henry Hurlbert, the late editor of the New York *World*. Of the merits of the work we know nothing, except from reviews in the English papers, who receive it as an anti-Irish contribution to the controversy with really amusing gratitude. The "first notice" of it in the *Spectator* occupies nearly two pages. What diverts us most is the *Spectator's* solemn announcement that "Mr. Hurlbert is not only a citizen of the United States, but evidently also a good Roman Catholic," and its reason for putting a high value on the book is, "that Mr. Hurlbert's study of Ireland has been the study from the point of view of a liberal Roman Catholic who cares a great deal more for the moral welfare of Irishmen than for any particular political system, but who is quite favorable to local liberties as long as these local liberties do not really imply moral anarchy." We fancy many an old acquaintance of Mr. Hurlbert's here will have aching ribs on reading this picture of him as a pious Catholic examining Irish sin with an anxious, pitying eye.

The Secretary of the British Legation at Buenos Ayres, Mr. Jenner, in a letter quoted in the London *Economist*, accounts for the great gains shown in the Argentine returns of revenue and trade by alleging that they are estimated in depreciated paper currency, at the rate of seven and one-half dollars to the pound sterling. In this way, he says, the reported foreign trade of $218,000,000, in 1887, really means only $145,000,000 on a gold basis. This is a great mistake, and we cannot account for the *Economist's* printing it without contradiction or correction. The returns made by the Argentine Treasury are estimated in "moneda nacional." That means, not the depreciated bank notes, which are called "circulacion forzada," but the established monetary unit of the Argentine Republic, the dollar, which is worth, according to the last report of the United States Mint, 96½ cents in gold. There is thus a slight inflation, but nothing like that charged by Mr. Jenner. It is undoubted, also, as we have before noted, that some discount is to be made from the face of the Argentine returns on account of the unnaturally high prices now ruling, due to the fever of speculation present in all branches of business. The paper money of the republic, or rather its suspension of specie payments, is the gravest feature of the financial situation. It is made more grave by a recent legal decision that contracts which actually mention gold dollars can yet be satisfied in paper money, unless the specific words "stamped gold," or "dollars from the mint," are used. Still, the great expansion of trade may enable the country to resume gold payments at the promised date, the 9th of next January.

The history of the successive reductions of the duty laid by Belgium on pig-iron illustrates the trustworthiness of protectionist predictions of ruin from tariff reduction. In 1856, the duty of $10 a ton was lowered to $4.80. Five years later the rate was fixed at $3, and in 1863, at $1. At each reduction the manufacturers of pig-iron took up the doleful strain of prophecy with which we are so familiar, and declared in the usual positive way that ruin was directly ahead of them all. But each time that the deadly blow at the Belgian industry was struck, it turned out to be not so much of a blow, after all, since the manufacturers, so far from closing their works, went right ahead and produced more than ever before. And so evidently wise has the policy of low tariff been proved, that now a majority of the chambers of commerce of the country have demanded that pig-iron be put on the free list. This will undoubtedly soon be done, as M. Beernaert, Minister of Finance, promises to recommend a law to that effect at as early a date as possible.

The decree of President (or Dictator) Barillas of Guatemala, revoking the law which made Livingston a free port and established a free zone in the adjacent territory, illustrates afresh the greatest of all difficulties in the way of a regular trade with Central America — arbitrary, inconsistent, and changing tariff laws. Guatemalan importers had a taste of the President's quality last December, when a decree was issued raising all duties 15 per cent., and that with only ten days' notice. The recent action in regard to the port of Livingston is the more indefensible in that it is in violation of the tacit pledge made in 1882. The law of that year, which made Livingston a free port, declared that it should continue to be such for ten years. Of course the right of repeal always remains with the law-making power, but the merchants whose goods in the Livingston warehouses are now held for customs, have good ground for complaint, certainly, at so peremptory a withdrawal of privileges which they had supposed were assured them. The whole move appears to be only a desperate reaching out for revenue to meet pressing needs, leaving the future reckoning, which will surely be all the heavier for this short-sighted policy, to take care of itself, after the true Spanish-American manner.

THE CHINESE TREATY.

THE treaty negotiated by Secretary Bayard with the Chinese Government, limiting the use of "permits" granted to Chinese laborers once domiciled here, but returning to their own country, and imposing further restrictions on immigration, was amended in the Senate by the insertion of a proviso cancelling all such permits absolutely. This proviso rendered it necessary to send the treaty to China once more for ratification. It is reported by way of London that the Chinese Government has rejected the treaty in its new shape, as it was almost certain that it would, but no official information on the subject has been received.

Here was a rare chance for somebody to "get ahead" in the scramble to gratify the hoodlum element on the Pacific Coast, and Mr. Scott, for and in behalf of the Democratic party, improved it. He promptly introduced a bill providing for the complete and absolute exclusion of the Chinese, treaty or no treaty, and this measure was passed by the House immediately and without a division. The bill makes it unlawful for any Chinese laborer, whether he was, is, or may be a resident in the United States, who has left or may leave before the act passes, and has not returned, to come back to the United States. It prohibits the issue of certificates of identity, and declares all certificates previously issued void and of no effect. Chinese laborers presenting them shall not be allowed to enter the country.

Mr. Scott's *coup* was so sudden that the Republicans in the House were dazed. A great game had been played for the hoodlum vote, and they had had no chance for innings. But in the Senate they were not caught napping. Senator Stewart of Nevada there got the start. When the Scott bill came over from the House, Mr. Stewart moved that it be immediately put upon its passage. Senator George of Mississippi moved that it be referred to the Committee on Foreign Relations. So many Senators objected to any reference to a committee that Mr. George was fain to withdraw his motion. Senator Butler of South Carolina suggested that such a bill might be a violation of an existing treaty, and that it would be well to look into that question before taking the vote. Senator Sherman, who usually "takes in" a situation very promptly, asserted the right of Congress to abrogate any treaty at any time with or without notice, and he so browbeat the halting Senator from South Carolina that the latter reluctantly consented to "fall in" behind the supporters of the bill, although he took leave to say that he considered the measure an open and flagrant violation of decency, which would not be thought of if there were not an important election pending. In fact, Mr. Butler came very near signalizing himself as a man of straightforward character and purpose among a lot of demagogues, but the pressure was too great. The debate continued till the hour of adjournment, so we have been spared the disgrace of the passage of such a bill through both houses in one day.

The gist of the measure is, that the Government of the United States violates its own faith by cancelling agreements deliberately made with a foreign government without extending to that government the usual courtesy of notice. Senator Sherman is probably right in his contention that treaties may be abrogated by either party. The Ohio statesman is usually right in technicalities and often wrong in the substance of things. The intention to abrogate the existing treaty with China is probably too strong to be resisted successfully either by Mr. Sherman or by any other Senator. In such case the only question remaining is whether we shall proceed in a way to conserve our own respectable position among nations and our own self-respect, or whether we shall sacrifice both in an unseemly scramble for the votes of the hoodlums. The Chinese laborers who have gone abroad on the faith of our laws, taking certificates entitling them to return, have just as many and as valid rights as anybody in the world. Among the rights belonging to them is the right to reasonable notice of any intended change in our laws. This right in every moral sense belongs to them independently of the treaty with China. Still more is the Chinese Government—our equal in the eye of public law—entitled to such notice. And what great evil is this tumultuous haste and breakneck speed intended to avert? To prevent 12,000 Chinese—12,000 at the outside, for doubtless some of these holders of outstanding certificates have died or made other plans for themselves—from returning to this country according to a fair agreement made with them and their Government. And if they are kept out in this way, their places will be taken in all probability by Italian laborers, who are as little liked but more feared in California than the Chinese. The Chinese are a meek and unresisting race; hence the contumely and cruelty heaped upon them in California. But every Italian carries a dagger, and nobody harms him with impunity.

WHERE ARE THE REPUBLICAN ECONOMISTS?

THE Republican party labors in the present crisis under a good many disadvantages, foremost among which is undoubtedly its having charged itself with the defence of a privileged class. In our day it is very hard for any political party to keep or obtain power, or even live at all, after it has become the advocate of exceptional legal privileges for a small minority of the community, such as our American manufacturers enjoy. Such privileges may, as our protectionist friends maintain, be very beneficial to the community at large, but keeping people convinced of it is dreadfully up-hill work. It may be good for Jones, for instance, on some sort of "general principle," that he should be made to pay Brown a pension or to purchase his goods above the market rate, but if he has to keep Brown satisfied with the arrangement for an indefinite period, he finds the wear and tear of the task increasingly serious. People always, sooner or later, grow suspicious of a man who is for ever trying to persuade them that they will grow rich by dealing exclusively with him at more than the market rate. They may for a while be persuaded that there is something in his theory, but they by-and-by begin to think that the argument is very queer, and that there must be a fallacy in it somewhere, although they may not be able to point it out. A party, in short, in our day which has to justify inequality of rights, has to fight against the whole spirit of the age, as it is called.

But next to this, undoubtedly the greatest disadvantage the Republican party labors under is the incapacity of its leading men for economical discussions. This is really the most remarkable political phenomenon of the day, and illustrates in a very striking way the false security about the tariff into which the war feeling and the size of the public debt lulled the party during the last twenty years. If the tariff had been a genuine economical creation—that is, had been imposed on the country after thorough discussion of the protective system—the party which triumphed in the struggle, and which was charged with the duty of watching over the system and bringing it to perfection, would by this time have had many leaders who could have made a good fight for it in the purely economical arena. During the period between Hamilton and Greeley, when the tariff men had to contend with their adversaries in the open field, and occupied no territory they had not fairly won, it always had such champions on hand, and they showed in one way or another that they understood the free-trade argument, and had some acquaintance with the theory and practice of foreign trade, and could give respectable reasons for the faith that was in them.

But the growth of the tariff in the guise of a measure of national defence, and the rapid identification of the enemies of high taxation with the enemies of the Union, long removed all incentive to the study of economical questions. The result is, that the party has not now a single man in public life or in journalism, with the possible exception of Senator Sherman, who is able to make even a tolerable resistance to the attacks of the tariff-reformers on economical grounds. Their articles and speeches are mostly stuffed full of puerile personalities, appeals to national or race prejudice, or fraudulent quotations from foreign newspapers. There has probably never been in political history anything more discreditable to a great party than the Republican reliance in the discussion of a question of domestic economy on English likes and dislikes. To watch what Englishmen desire and then do the opposite, is of course the policy of a child or an untutored savage, who is incapable of forming an independent judgment about his own interests.

As matters stand, the starting of the tariff

discussion by President Cleveland has caught the party without leaders or champions of any description. We are not indulging in any ordinary campaign sneer at Mr. Blaine when we say that, as far as we can see, his ignorance of economical subjects is, in a man of his age and experience, something remarkable. Of course it is possible that he knows more than he pretends to know, but we have in common decency to assume that his blunders and explanations and retractions are honestly made, or, in other words, that when he is on the stump he is doing his best. But from the day when he threatened Europe with the vengeance of the disbanded armies of the United States if it did not behave handsomely towards American silver, down to the day when he made the blacks of the South reduce white wages at the North to thirty cents a day, and when he filled the savings banks of Massachusetts with fabulous amounts of workingmen's economies, and "plastered" England all over with Trusts, he has been incessantly either making mistakes about matters of fact, or showing in some way that he does not understand the free-trade theory, and therefore cannot answer it.

There is, for instance, in not one of his speeches the smallest sign that he knows what is the now generally accepted theory of the source of wages and of the conditions of their rise and fall. If he had any knowledge on the subject, he would long ago have attempted to explain how it is that free-trade England pays higher wages than protectionist France or Germany or Russia—an oversight almost like that of a general who encamps in hostile territory without outposts.

Of Gen. Harrison's economical equipment there is even less to be said than of Mr. Blaine's. He frankly admits that the whole subject is Greek to him. He knows about education and the domestic affections, but about the tariff he is lost in innocent wonder. And yet these two gentlemen are the Republican leaders in the tariff debate, and they have no followers or supporters. There is hardly another speaker or editor in the party who has thus far shown himself capable of a tariff argument without abuse of England and the free-traders. The situation is a very odd one, and, so far as we know, has no parallel or precedent.

REGULATION AND CONFISCATION.

Two points with regard to railroad policy are now pretty clearly recognized by all sensible men, whether they represent railroads or shippers. The first is, that uncontrolled discrimination is an intolerable evil. The second is, that most of the attempts to stop this evil by statute have been extremely ill-advised.

It is easy to see the reason for these apparently conflicting statements. The right and wrong uses of railroad power are so closely intermixed that it requires great technical knowledge to stop the wrong without stopping the right also. The more complicated the organization, the greater is the difficulty from this source. The power of the railroad officials to do either good or evil is increased; the power of the Legislature to distinguish good from evil is diminished. This complexity of business organization is the central fact in the whole situation. It is this which gives the modern corporation its power as a monopoly. Railroad monopoly is only to a slight extent due to advantages of location. Still less is it due to special legislation in favor of corporations. The exercise of the right of eminent domain may sometimes make it possible to build railroads more cheaply than could otherwise be done, but it has little effect on their relations to the public after they are built. A railroad has a monopoly because one company can do the business much more cheaply than it can be done by several companies, so that only the most short-sighted policy will lead a railroad to place its rates at the level which will tempt the construction of a parallel line. For somewhat the same reason, adjoining railroad lines tend to consolidate, and the consolidated company, if properly managed, can serve the public better than the independent ones. And what is true of railroads is true, with various modifications, of nearly every other modern industry employing a large plant. The railroad monopoly differs from other monopolies chiefly in the extent to which it has been developed. The most important advantage of the single company is, that it can afford to extend its business without corresponding increase in expenditures. Business done by two companies must pay two sets of fixed charges; if one company by a slight change in methods can do the whole business, one set of fixed charges is saved. For any such extension of its business the company can make rates which little more than cover the wages and materials used in handling the new traffic. It is this possibility of doing a large business at slight addition in cost, which has been a chief factor in the reduction of rates on railroads, prices of manufactured goods, and other commodities or services in which large corporations deal.

But this implies that the new traffic is, in many cases, differently treated from the old. Some business bears the burden of fixed charges more fully than other business. Can the authorities of the corporation be trusted with an uncontrolled right to decide where this burden shall be placed? The history of railroad discrimination shows that they cannot. They have abused their power in such fashion as to furnish an excuse, though not a justification, for many of the most severe measures of restriction which have been tried.

The Granger legislation of 1871–75, however disastrous to all parties concerned, was at least undertaken in good faith by many of its promoters. Their sins were sins of ignorance. They believed that if the railroads could afford to handle any traffic for rates which did not pay fixed charges, they could afford to do the same thing for all their traffic. They passed laws reducing all rates to the standard of the lowest ones then existing, and they were bitterly undeceived when they found what was the real effect of such a course.

Their successors to-day know more about some of the complications of railroad business, but they really care less for the rights of property. The railroad legislation of to-day is actuated by a somewhat communistic spirit—which is not confined to Knights of Labor or to State politicians, but which sometimes appears where it would be least expected. The writer of a recent work on Industrial Liberty, Mr. John M. Bonham, who is as far as possible from being a Communist in other respects, falls into precisely this error when he comes to speak of railroad corporations. He speaks of the railroad officials as exercising a lesser trust for the benefit of the stockholders, a larger one for the public. He says that the former is subordinate to the latter—that the question of compensation to the investors is a secondary thing; and he demands that public trusts of this kind should be controlled with an exclusive view to the public interest, in the same way that private trusts are, or are supposed to be, regulated with a sole view to the interests of him in whose behalf the trust is created.

The merits of other parts of Mr. Bonham's work are such as to make an error of this kind all the more significant. The attempt to treat the question of compensation as something wholly secondary is a serious mistake. The analogy of a private trust does not hold good. In the case of a private trust the risks of a trustee are little, and his compensation may therefore be treated as a secondary matter. But in the case of a railroad the risks of an investor are very great. He must have a reasonable prospect of compensation to make him willing to undertake the public trust.

But this is not all. The practical effect of Mr. Bonham's proposal is to give the parties in whose behalf the trust is exercised control over the funds of the trustee. If you say to the community, "The duties of the railroad towards you are paramount to any rights of its owners for compensation on their invested capital," you pave the way for the most unwise reductions in rates. Experience shows that such will be the result—the character of railroad investments makes it certain. A railroad has not the same temporary means of defence which are available for certain other forms of business. It cannot withdraw from the field. Once built, it is there to stay, and is, for the time being, at the mercy of local legislative authorities.

But the reaction comes sooner or later. While such legislation may not drive existing railroads away, it prevents the development of new roads which are essential to the growth of the community. The State which adopts a policy of virtual confiscation falls behind its neighbors. Mr. Bonham does not shrink from facing this contingency; he says that "individual and public political rights are far more important than any convenience which a corporation can offer." But he will find few who are candid enough to follow him to this extreme. The great majority of his readers will prefer the conveniences of modern civilization to a somewhat vague ideal of industrial liberty. The logical outcome of Mr. Bonham's view would be a return to a less civilized state. Undoubtedly we can have more political liberty by foregoing some of the material advantages of

civilization. But the really practical question is, how to combine the two with as little sacrifice as possible of either. This result can only be obtained by a policy of regulation as distinct from confiscation—by restriction without destruction.

The system of regulation by commission, which Mr. Bonham condemns as so inadequate, has at any rate the merit of being a practical compromise between the needs of the shippers and those of the investors. A set of men specially trained in problems of railroad policy can distinguish between the right and wrong uses of railroad power far better than a legislature can possibly do. They can stop those things which do the public much harm and the railroads little good; they can allow the continuance of those methods which are a necessity of good railroad economy, where the harm to shippers is much less than is commonly supposed. They do not need to make either interest subordinate to the other, but, as proved by experience, can act as a protection to investors and shippers both. And if any new line of policy is to be adopted, they can make the change slow instead of sudden, and give legitimate interests time to adapt themselves to it. This is a more efficient safeguard to the investors than any other.

This is the kind of work which a commission can do under favorable circumstances. But there is no virtue in the form itself. The members of a commission are under a constant temptation to magnify their office, and to pass from the work of regulation to that of confiscation. If they are incompetent, they will do it unwittingly; if they are actuated by political motives, they will do it designedly. The railroad controls few votes in proportion to the shippers; the reaction due to an unwise policy is so far distant in the future that the politician can leave it out of his calculations. It taxes all the energies of men like the Inter-State Commerce Commissioners to keep their authority within its proper sphere.

FORSTER AND GLADSTONE.

The most interesting recent contribution to political literature has been Wemyss Reid's memoirs of the late William E. Forster, the English statesman, not so much because Forster's career was a very memorable one as because the book throws a good deal of valuable light on the origin of Gladstone's conversion to home rule. Forster came of excellent Quaker stock. His mother was one of the Buxtons, a good county family, but sacrificed her social position and opportunities, which were very brilliant, to marry a Quaker preacher whose religious fervor and purity and simplicity of character were his chief distinctions. He does not appear to have been either learned or eloquent, but he was absolutely detached in spirit from the things of this life, and passed years at a time away from his home and wife in truly apostolic journeyings. Their only child, William Edward, was brought up in thoroughly Quaker fashion in a home in which he saw nothing from his earliest years but plain living and high thinking. His parents were very poor, and his father was one of the most unworldly of men. He received little but a home education, never went to college, and, though he had influential friends and connections, got from none of them the kind of help on which young Englishmen rely so much. So he made his way finally, in American fashion, by starting in business as "a wool-stapler" in Bradford, on borrowed capital, with a partner as young and poor as himself. He had, however, from the first a passion for politics, got into Parliament as soon as he could afford it, made his mark very soon in debate by the display of what we call "level-headedness," was offered office by Gladstone, and came into full contact with the literary and intellectual world by marrying a daughter of Dr. Arnold of Rugby. He soon obtained a seat in the Cabinet, and became famous as the author and promoter of the great Act which first gave the people of England a system of popular education. He did not accomplish this, however, without giving mortal offence to the advanced Radicals by the concessions he made to the clergy of the Established Church. They never forgave him, and he had to struggle against their hostility in his own constituency, Bradford, to the close of his career.

When Gladstone came back to office in triumph in 1880, and found that the condition of Ireland was the most serious problem with which he had to deal, he selected Forster for the place of Irish Secretary, not only because he had shown himself a first-rate administrator, but because both he and his father before him had always manifested the strongest sympathy with Irish grievances and sufferings. He recognized at once the strength of the case of the Irish tenants against the landlords, by introducing and passing in the House of Commons a bill, known as the Disturbance Bill, suspending temporarily the right of eviction for non-payment of rent, in consideration of the terrible agricultural depression, and pending the preparation of the Land Act subsequently passed. This Disturbance Bill was peremptorily rejected by the House of Lords, and Forster then found himself face to face with the Land League and a desperate tenant population on the edge of winter. The outrages began, and he met them by suspending the habeas corpus, and locking up, without trial, about 1,000 Irishmen of more or less prominence. The Cabinet left Irish affairs wholly in his hands. He assured them that he understood the situation—that all he had to do was to silence the agitators and imprison the "village ruffians," and order would be restored. He tried his experiments for two years, and Irish affairs during the whole period got worse instead of better. Finally, the discontent of the Liberals in England became so great that the Cabinet came to the conclusion that they must throw him overboard, and he resigned, broken both in health and spirits.

The Tories of that day were among his bitterest opponents, and loudly maintained that his coercion was unnecessary, that Ireland could be governed without difficulty by the ordinary law. But after they got into power and became coercionists themselves, they buzzed it about in every direction that Forster's failure was due to want of support from Gladstone, both in and out of the Cabinet, and Reid's book was looked for eagerly as likely to contain revelations on this point which would prove crushing for Gladstone and the English Home-Rulers. Never was disappointment more complete.

The testimony of Forster's letters to Gladstone's loyalty and coöperation down to the end, even after he had begun to doubt the wisdom of Forster's policy in Ireland, is as strong as it could well be. In July, 1881, when he was half-way through his troubles, Forster wrote to a friend: "In fact, one great compensation for the troubles and vexations of the last year has been the fact that I have got to know Gladstone, and really to love and honor him. No one could have been more faithful, or considerate, or generous to a colleague than he has been to me." Mr. Reid adds that when Foster resigned, he parted from "most of his colleagues" in the Cabinet "with open grief," "and from Mr. Gladstone especially he parted with profound sorrow"; and that he had received "a constant, and loyal, and generous support from his chief."

Curiously enough, too, it would appear that the exception made by the phrase "most of his colleagues" includes Mr. Chamberlain, who, though Mr. Reid veils his name occasionally under dashes, was Forster's chief opponent in the Cabinet, and chief promoter of the hostility to his Irish policy which finally led to his overthrow; and this was so well known that it was generally expected that when the "new departure" was resolved on, Chamberlain would take Forster's place in Ireland. All this gives color to the exposures of Chamberlain's double-dealing at that period which Parnell threatens to make before the Judicial Commission, and gives to his present rôle of a "conscientious" politician resisting the unscrupulous Gladstone a peculiarly diverting air. Gladstone's letter taking leave of Forster when the latter sent in his resignation, and it was understood that Gladstone was satisfied that the Irish problem could only be solved by home rule, contains in its first sentence the explanation of his subsequent course: "I have received your letter with much grief, but on this it would be selfish to expatiate. I have no choice; *followed or not followed, I must go on.*"

"*PRIVACY.*"

Mr. Henry James, who has cultivated perhaps more than any novel-writer of the day the art of pointing contrasts between the minor morals of Europe and of the United States, has, in his last book, 'The Reverberator,' undertaken to compare European and American ideas on the subject of privacy—using that term to designate the exemption of private individuals and families from newspaper criticism, comment, or

description. In fact, the book may be called a study of the American "newspaper man," as he is known to American society—that is, the man to whom the most important thing in the world is news, and to whom news is something which, whether true or false, people must have, and to whom the great function of the intellect is to be "newsy," "breezy," chatty, and to whom its highest achievement is the production of a very salable "gossipy letter," or a column of "Stroller's paragraphs."

He depicts this type in the person of a certain Flack, who occupies in Paris the place of correspondent of an American "society journal," known as the *Reverberator*, and is charged with the duty of letting in light on the inner recesses of European society. This creature makes the acquaintance there of two American girls, somewhat of the Daisy Miller kind, who are travelling with their father, a wealthy and retired speculator, and are attacking the social problems of Europe with the usual naïveté of their class. Flack seems so very knowing and cultivated both to the father and daughters that they unhesitatingly accept his advice in trying to see something of French life. He introduces them to an American portrait painter, who paints the portrait of the prettiest of the girls, and at the studio they make the acquaintance of Gaston Probert, a charming young man, whose father is a Gallicized American who has married into an old French family, very proud, very refined, and exceedingly private in its tastes and traditions. Probert becomes engaged to one of the girls, who is received into the family with more or less cordiality, and speedily, of course, finds out all about them. Like nearly all families, they have skeletons in their closet—incidents in their history which they would like to forget and which have been well-nigh forgotten, and personal traits and peculiarities on which they do not care to dwell. Seeing Flack frequently, the girl tells him all this little by little, and to Flack it is all news of the most ravishing description about the French "exclusives" and old fogies, and well calculated to make the circulation of the *Reverberator* take a great jump.

Accordingly, he manages to work it all into a letter apropos of the portrait, with numerous additions and embellishments of his own, intended to increase its "spiciness." It comes back to the Proberts, who read it with indescribable horror, shame, and disgust, and the scene in which poor Miss Francie, the American fiancée, has to face them and confess that it was due to her indiscretion and her acquaintance with Flack—to them an awful blackguard—is very dramatic, and is sketched with great power.

The story brings out in a very striking way the remarkable success the French have had in defending their private life from a press, part of which is really just as ruffianly and unscrupulous as the very worst of our newspapers. In one way or another, partly by legislation, partly by strong social traditions, particularly an extreme sensitiveness about family honor and respectability, they have managed to keep interviewers out of their houses, and to prevent family affairs from being converted into "copy." In fact, journalistic personalities and exposures are confined almost exclusively to journalists, who are even more merciless to each other than American journalists when "war" breaks out, and fight probably three-fourths of the duels which occur in France. Of these things French society takes little notice. It takes the view, which is not uncommon even in this country, that it is the nature of the journalist to be silly, unscrupulous, impertinent, or buffoonish; and that as long as he practises his art only on his fellows, who can repay him in kind, nobody need be troubled. Any attempt to subject private affairs to journalistic exploration is sternly repressed both by courts and juries. The publication of almost anything about a man's private life which he objects to and considers disagreeable, as long as he is not under accusation before a criminal court, is a penal offence. It is very rare indeed that a French newspaper in publishing an "item" of a disagreeable nature about anybody will venture to give more than the initials of the victim. The pursuit of afflicted families for news about their sorrow or disgrace is something still unknown in France; and so is the persistent ridicule and abuse of persons not in public life for the gratification of the editor's private malice, or in furtherance of a private quarrel of some kind, with which we are, unhappily, very familiar here. It may be that there too, eventually, as Flack observes, "the idea of sticking up a sign of private, and thinking you can keep the place to yourself," will be "played out," and that "privacy has got to go"; but thus far the French have held on to it very successfully.

Privacy in the best sense of the term is the virtue or the luxury of an old society. In all very new communities, the desire to live to one's self and keep one's affairs to one's self, and see only a restricted or in some manner selected circle, is considered more or less an affectation of superiority, and resented accordingly. There is a very good story of a traveller from one of the Eastern States hanging his shirt across the window of his room in the hotel of a mining town somewhere in the Rocky Mountains, in order to protect himself during his toilet from the gaze of some loafers on the piazza. It was soon thrust aside from without, and when the traveller asked the head which appeared at the opening what the intrusion meant, he was informed that they wished to know "what there was so darned private going on in there." In the first stage of civilization there is no privacy; it grows as the community becomes larger and more complicated. But it is kept down, even in our great cities, by the newspapers working in combination with the large class which loves notoriety. The journalist who starts out with a sense of the sacredness of a man's personality and private affairs, is very apt to have his reverence for them greatly blunted, if not destroyed, by finding that the lovers of publicity appear to the journalistic eye to be in a majority, so numerous are those who dread nothing so much as obscurity, and would sooner be known for anything than not known at all. It is among these people that many of our young journalists obtain their experience of public tastes and needs, and it is not surprising that they soon become hardened explorers of private life, and cynical disbelievers in professions of dislike of the popular gaze. But it is none the less true that since communities were delivered from the daily terror of being sacked, massacred, or led into captivity by victorious invaders, nothing causes as much keen suffering to innocent people as the newspaper exposures of their misfortunes or weaknesses, or, in some cases, of their peculiarities. The most sensitive or well-behaved journalist gets so soon indifferent to the sillinesses, buffooneries, or insults of his esteemed contemporaries, that he loses the power of entering into the agony of mind of private individuals whose home has been laid waste by inquisitive reporters; but there is no faculty the young journalist should so carefully preserve and cultivate.

EATING AT SEA.

THE London *Standard* has been descanting with much force on the excessive consumption of food which goes on on all the great ocean steamers, and particularly those patronized by Englishmen. It says that people on shore are getting over the meat-eating habits of an earlier generation. They eat less of everything, and particularly less beef, but at sea they seem to try how much beef, mutton, and fowl they can consume in the course of the day, even in the tropics, and they wash it all down with plenty of strong wine, and go to bed on spirits and water. Americans are not so bad, but they do not lag far behind. Shipboard is a very dull place. The amusements are few; everybody has not the habit of reading, and very often the most practised readers find it difficult to stick to a book in a steamer. Either the jar of the machinery fatigues the eye, or there is enough stomachic disturbance, even among "good sailors," to make the attention fickle and fugacious. Accordingly the meals become the principal events of the day, and steamboat-owners, as a matter of business, make them as frequent as possible. Luncheon follows rapidly on a late breakfast, and then comes dinner and supper, both as heavy as any one likes to make them, and they all sorely task a digestion which receives little or no fortification from exercise. The consequence is that it is only the really delicate, who eat little on shore and are sick at sea, who get much good from a sea voyage. The robust, hearty feeders are almost always worse off when they land than when they embark.

And then there are in every ship a good many boastful eaters—that is, men who eat heartily out of pure braggartry, to show that they are good sailors, and to enable them to look contemptuously on the squeamish people. There is probably, especially among Englishmen, no form of pride so pronounced as the pride of exemption from

seasickness. Of course, in nine cases out of ten, it is, among landsmen, a mere peculiarity of physical constitution, like the ability to take certain kinds of food which disagree with other people; but it nevertheless puffs a man up in an extraordinary degree. It gives him a secret consciousness of some sort of connection with the Vikings and the great modern admirals and discoverers, and a delightful scorn for those who "go below" when the ship begins to pitch. In addition to this, they look upon it as a peculiarly masculine trait — a sentiment which *Punch* some years ago embodied admirably in the lines :

> "A man's an ass that's sick at sea,
> At him I do deride.
> But woman is a tender flower,
> And delicate inside."

Many a man lands at Liverpool or Southampton in our day, with his digestion terribly disordered, simply through vainglorious cramming on shipboard—a very high price to pay for fame which is in its very nature both shadowy and fleeting.

Much the same observations may be made with regard to yachting. To any one who can bear the sea even tolerably there is, particularly in American waters, no more delightful form of recreation than a cruise in a reasonably well-appointed sailing yacht which carries a competent cook. The silence, the change of scene, the purity of the air, the freedom from dust and smoke, the absolute escape from business cares and worries, make it probably the best vacation a tired brain-worker or business man can take. But it is an expensive luxury, within the reach of but few, and the few who have it do not profit by it nearly as much as they might, owing to this same snare of eating and drinking too much. Owners of yachts are apt to be hospitable souls with plenty of money to spend, and they enjoy filling themselves and their guests up with good food and good liquor, and generally find the guests most receptive. There is, too, even less opportunity for exercise on a yacht than on a steamer, and there is as great consumption of victuals, and probably in a large number of cases a greater consumption of punch, and brandy, and soda, and champagne, and choice cigars. The consequence is, as hundreds can bear witness, the yachting man is only too apt to come home with his liver in a bad state, and with gloomy views of life and of business prospects, and with a good many additional pounds of flesh for which he has no use, and which burden his heart and lungs seriously. In fact, it is curious, considering the amount of money spent on the sea as a place of recreation, how little health and vigor is got out of it.

THE DALMATIAN COAST AND MONTENEGRO.

CORFU, July 15, 1888.

THE long, broad wedge of Austro-Hungarian territory, extending southwards from the main body of the Empire nearly to Albania, encroaching upon and enveloping the smaller States of Bosnia, Herzegovina, and Montenegro, and forming the eastern boundary of the Adriatic, presents much that is interesting and complex, politically and socially, as well as many curious vestiges and reminiscences of the past. The outlying and irregular chain of islands off the coast are not fertile or to any extent inhabited, but they form extensive waters for sea-fisheries that have always been and are still of value, principally for tunny and mackerel. The region differs essentially from the sections above and below, in being more mountainous, desolate, and treeless in appearance, and in sparseness of population. The hard limestone rock is ever grayish blue, but little soil forms, while many of the islands rise out of the sea in round, flat masses, without a sign of life; a few only rise in irregular peaks, with slight soil and signs of vegetation in the crevices and valleys. On the mainland the mountain ranges abruptly shut out the sea, the rivers debouch by considerable falls, and where harbors exist they are remarkable for size and security. It is a land of rugged features, containing much grand scenery and many small basins of fertile land deep down in the valleys and hill slopes, with races of liberty-loving, physically strong people. Old Venice procured its fleets and seamen in great part from this coast—the training-station for Austrian seamen now—the storms and dangers of which are well known; and, to this day, they tell of the forests that once existed and that vanished in the building of the ships, and finally were wantonly destroyed in the later years of the Venetian power.

In all the ports, from Fiume in the north to the Ionian Islands in the south, the Italian language is spoken by most of the people, next being the native Slav tongue, and lastly the German. The military and the larger business firms use German, the smaller shop-keepers and fishermen Italian, these languages persisting some way into the interior. The Greek faith prevails, excepting in small parts of Herzegovina and Montenegro, where the receding tide of Islam has left its scant traces. One meets everywhere an abundance of churches and chapels, many quite new, and a suggestion of power and influence from the direction of the orthodox Russian or Greek Church.

What is, however, most apparent, is the fact of Hungary's activity and vast money expenditure in forcing recognition for her natural productions, building a fine large port of export at Fiume, and the making of rail and other methods of communication. Railways now exist from Fiume to the north and east, connecting with systems in those directions in Croatia and Hungary, and with roads to remote points in Bosnia and Servia. Short lines connect Sebenico on the coast with Spalato, Dernis, and Knin ; further south, Metcovich with Mostar and Serayevo. By sea the steamers of the Austrian Lloyds ply regularly and frequently between all the ports. The impression is gained that a change is taking place among these races, not perhaps voluntarily, but still for the greater security of life and property. Schools are opened, hospitals are found in the larger towns, the methods of summary vengeance and punishments by the old tribal systems and customs are being put aside, and many of the young men are sent abroad for higher and professional training. Schools now exist for both sexes in Zara, Sebenico, Podgoritza, and in most of the towns ; and in Cettigne, the Montenegrin capital, they are constructing a lyceum, to contain also a theatre. Moscow and Vienna are usually selected for university or special training for the civil occupations, while many of the young men, particularly in Montenegro, seek military instruction in the Russian Army, some having made in recent years active campaigns in the operations of that army along northern Persia in Turkomania.

Fiume, since 1867, has had expended upon its artificial harbor and appurtenances the sum of 35,000,000 florins, the present annual outlay being given at 2,000,000 florins, and the port is not yet finished. The population is 25,000, the exports of flour and lumber now exceed those of Trieste, and from an insignificant Croatian village it has become a large port and the outlet for Hungary. The flour mainly goes to South America, prunes and wines to the United States, and lumber to Europe generally. The new modern city is well kept and clean, with good hotels and wide streets, and is in striking contrast to the older hillside town, with its rookeries and narrow streets. The surrounding country is in great part deforested, but is receiving governmental attention in this respect. The Austrian Naval Academy for the training of officers is situated here. It contains four hundred pupils, and in the curriculum the acquisition of at least four languages is required. There are numerous chemical works, and the manufactory for the famous Whitehead torpedoes. The town has a southern exposure, the climate being mild ; elsewhere in Dalmatia extremes occur, with much snow in winter, and in the autumn an enormous rainfall.

Sebenico, formerly the finest and strongest city of Dalmatia—having once withstood successfully a siege from 40,000 Turks—is an important port a short distance south from Zara. The approach from sea is by a series of inland waters, and, finally, through a narrow lane a few hundred feet wide in the solid rock, with sheer sides several hundred feet high. On one side of this channel is still standing a fine type of one of the old Venetian circular forts, with a large sculptured lion of St. Mark over the main portal. These old fortifications remain in good preservation throughout all the towns of the coast to the number of hundreds, including town walls and citadels, hill forts commanding roads and villages, and strategic islets. They are built of brick, principally, of the thin hard-burnt, durable kind, originally from Italy. The familiar winged lion is found in panels of towers, over portals, and in the façades of churches; while the bell-towers, the quaint town squares—notably at Ragusa—and the type of architecture in the narrow streets and silent dark churches, all remind one of the old domination. Sebenico has a large circular harbor with the Kerka River from the interior. The seamen's training station is situated here, with its schoolships and paraphernalia, and an average of five hundred boys is constantly in attendance. There is a little wine and oil for export, and some liqueurs—notably the maraschino, made from a species of wild cherry. Upon going up the river some six miles, past the old Roman town of Scardona, through bare rock clefts and one large bay, the striking falls of the Kerka are seen. They are composed of numerous broad cascades and irregular falls, one above the other, for several hundred feet, the total fall being not less than one hundred and fifty feet. The banks are beautifully green and tree-covered, as well as the points and basins in the midst of the falls, and large trout are taken in these pools and further above. Rude mills are hewn in the rock and exist all about here, painfully grinding flour and Dalmatian powder for insects, and in washing and bleaching white the coarse woollens of the natives. The people are a dull lot, though strong and hardy, and every man possesses—even if poor—large silver globular buttons, and enormous weapons in his waist-scarf.

Bosnia has its outlet port at Spalato, a considerable town of 11,000 inhabitants, picturesquely situated on a hill, connected by rail with Sebenico above, and with not a good har-

bor. The ruins of the palace of Diocletian are found here, his native place, and are the only attraction for the visitor. Herzegovina has for its outlet by sea Ragusa, the famous old republic. The country hereabouts is more wooded and fertile, and more prosperity and activity prevails. The city possesses great walls, a citadel, and a large fort on the adjoining mountain. The harbor is not secure, and larger vessels use the neighboring one of Gravosa. Without the walls has sprung up a new town, with public institutions and hill drives, and much beautiful and flowering vegetation is seen. The garrison numbers seven hundred, who are here, as elsewhere in Dalmatia, mostly Hungarians. The quaint old city contains some ten thousand inhabitants, and is built on a projecting rocky spur, the sea washing its high walls in great part.

The Austrian dominions narrow from here downwards rapidly, and at Cattaro the wedge of territory thins to a few miles and less, the Montenegrin boundary being just above the town on the mountains. The great bay of Cattaro is remarkable for its size and irregularity, extending for fifteen miles into the interior between lofty mountains, with fertile stretches of plain and valley, and containing many small villages on its shores. Over the whole scene—with the gray monasteries on solitary islets, and ruined churches—there hangs an air of partial desolation, of the past. There seems to be a lack of life about the many-storied houses on the banks and in this rich, fertile environment, and the seal and mark of old Venice is upon everything still—the architecture and the winged lion. Cattaro at the head of the bay much resembles Ragusa, and is within walls of great strength and ingenuity, zigzagging up a steep rocky slope several hundred feet. Immediately behind the town the mountain rises to 5,700 feet, over which passes the new road (as well as the old trail) to Cettigne, the Montenegrin capital. This carriage-road was built by the Austrian Government, and ascends the mountain by a system of zigzag developments, one over the other, to the number of some twenty-six in full view of Cattaro; the final long plane of ascent leading over the frontier, marked by a line of square white stones. The road continues over the range and gently descends into the upper valley and village of Negus—the native place of the present Prince—then crosses a second high mountain range, and, in six hours from the time of leaving Cattaro, leads down into the second valley and the capital of Montenegro. Austrian engineers superintended the construction of the road on Montenegrin territory, the work being done by their own labor and money. From Cettigne the road leads to the river Moratcha, a short distance above its entrance into the Lake of Scutari. There are no other roads like this in the country, and communication is still by primitive paths and trails.

A carriage with two small active native horses is easily procured to make the journey from Cattaro to Cettigne, though it could be walked readily enough in a day. In all directions one sees the utter desolation of the bulk of the country—it all seems to be rocks as far as the eye can reach; but few birds, insects, or life of any description can be seen, and only at rare intervals hidden in some deep hollow is there a bit of soil with its standing corn, potatoes, beans, or grain. On the slopes of the few valleys there are streaks of stunted pine, scrub-oaks, and sage brush. The Austrians have here in the past eighteen months constructed some new mountain forts—one with a centre steel turret—commanding the valleys and approaches about Cattaro. Travelling over the mountain trails is extremely arduous and difficult for the stranger, the path being only marked by the smoothly worn shining rock points. The natives cling to the rock by their hide sandals, constantly using the hands, and they can cover long distances in an incredibly short time. In going on the old paths, however, one meets quaint piping goatherds, and sees more of the natives in their rude stone huts and occupations.

Cettigne, the capital and residence of Prince Nikolai I., consists of some two hundred houses in an irregular upland valley, with several other villages scattered about on higher slopes in the rocks, and is not more than two miles long by from half a mile to a mile wide. The few rectangular streets contain some native shops and, at the end of the main street—*en face*—the hotel kept by a family of natives in the European manner. The Prince's residence, a large plain house, is close by on a side street, contiguous to a small garrison and arsenal, the post-office, and other unpretending public buildings. There is always a guard on duty here composed of a few men and officers. The town also contains the state prison, a hospital, four schools for boys, a girls' seminary, one gymnasium or higher school, a lyceum in course of construction, some Greek churches, and a large monastery. One small weekly newspaper is published in the native (Slav) language. Cettigne appears like a quiet New England mountain town, except for the parti-colored costumes and arms of the natives. Ministers and general officers of state stand about in groups under the trees, there are no beggars, and one feels that here exists a commonly united people with simple aims and ambitions. In a small grove near by, some men and boys were practising at games of skill and athletics, some drinking-shops were a bit noisy—it was the day after the feast of St. Peter; but there was little fussing about, stir of life, or business activity. The wants of the inhabitants are simple and easily supplied, and beyond the little dingy shops, few in number, there is no trade or commerce. The men, in their baggy blue trousers, white leggings, and hide sandals, embroidered jackets, long white cloth half-coats, and small square caps with the Prince's initials embroidered in gilt on the top, are handsome and picturesque-looking—each with an immense revolver in the waist scarf. The women do not look so well, their skirt being now longer than formerly, the jacket short, with the embroidered sleeve thrust through the sleeveless coat, and the waist not constricted. The men appear to have all the leisure, adornment, and looks, while the allotted portion of the women is constant labor and burdensome tasks; at least, most of those seen appeared bent, shapeless, and prematurely old. Both sexes wear the small cap, the women with often a long veil falling behind, starting from a button on the front. Priests and women wear the hair long, the men being notably close-cropped, with long moustachios and smooth chins. As a rule, they are a tall race and bear pain well, though, as I am informed, of nervous temperament, the result of centuries of murderous warfare with the Turks. All males capable of bearing arms are liable for military service, the number of fighting men being estimated at 75,000, of whom 20,000 are in the first class, and the remainder in the second and third classes, subject to call. They have six batteries, three being of Krupp guns. Since the last war with Turkey, the outcome of which they are extremely proud of, there has been nothing more serious than small affrays at the Albanian frontier. Many of the older men wear medals gained by conspicuous courage and skill in that and other Turkish wars; and if one could believe some of the stories related of these gray-haired veterans, there are not many heads left in Albania, and head-collecting must have been for years their sole occupation. For the most part the army is formed of groups composed of individuals coming together from the tribal communities, the whole being an irregular body of mountain fighters; how well and how tenaciously they carry on war in their rugged mountains the world already knows. The telegraph connects the towns and strategic points, and there is a system of signals and alarms for use in times of disorder and war.

The Montenegrins have no coinage, and use the Austrian gold, silver, and paper money in Cettigne. Their modern arms are also Austrian, yet, from what is heard and seen, Russian influence is paramount. There are a Russian minister, and agents of English, Turkish, and a few other Powers, living here; and it is hinted that much aid financially and pay to some of the general officers comes from the great northern Power. Taxes are levied on cattle, land, and imports, and there is no debt beyond one of $400,000 contracted privately by the Prince in Vienna some years ago and bearing interest at 5½ per cent. The Prince has a council of ministers of war, finance, education, church, and external affairs, but he is in reality an autocrat, and not accountable to any one. He is much beloved, and worthily so, by all his dutiful subjects. The family consists of nine children and the Princess—a noble-appearing, handsome woman, with lustrous dark eyes and hair. The Prince and his heir, now seventeen, are gone on a short tour to Europe. Considerable fertile land accrued to Montenegro by the terms of the Berlin Treaty, including Podgoritza, a town of 10,000 people, and the eastern part of the principality is comparatively more valuable and less mountainous. The whole population is now 220,000. The chief men in their districts throughout the country preserve order, and the old tribal customs of rule and management prevail; the Prince deciding upon the severer punishments. In the prison were not over a hundred criminals, many being banditti. From the Prince down, every member of the community is supposed to be an example of courage, fortitude, and moral conduct. Quite recently, gold-embroidered garments have been prohibited and will be no longer worn, the Prince saying that his people had a better use for the little money they possessed.

By walking out from Cettigne several miles southeastwardly I was shown from an elevation the lake and in the distance the town of Scutari in Albania. More vegetation and a greater variety is seen in this direction. Much land is valueless from constant overflow, which a little engineering might remedy. Albanians are rarely seen in Montenegro, and are not always treated civilly; they wear the white fez and longer embroidered trowsers of the Turks, and they are by contrast ill-looking. Antivari and Dulcigno are the two small unimportant seaports of Montenegro, the latter only having a small harbor; they possess but little trade and commerce.

C. A. Siegfried.

THE TEMPLE OF PAPHIAN APHRODITE.—I.

Paris, August 7.

Before a combined meeting of the friends of the British School at Athens and the Cyprus Exploration Fund, held in London on the 18th of last month, Mr. Ernest Gardner, Director of the school, gave an account of the important work of the year in Cyprus. Mr. James has

uncovered, upon the summit of the so-called "Lion's (Leondari) Hill," the wonderfully solid foundations of a huge and very ancient building of stone—it was probably a stronghold. Around it are many tombs in which pottery of various kinds and epochs have been found. Mr. Hogarth has been unearthing at Amargetti, distant a half-day's journey inland from the site of Old Paphos, the tokens of an ancient Apollo worship. Many tombs have been opened with interesting results, some near Nicosia, which has been the capital since the days of the Lusignan Kings, in the hills close to the temple of Aphrodite at Old Paphos. Work of interest has thus been in progress and is still progressing in various parts of Cyprus; but the chief contribution to knowledge obtained thus far by the Cyprus Exploration Fund results from the admirably conducted excavations which have unearthed at last all that remains of the temple of Aphrodite at Old Paphos. A minute account of these walls, patched many times, and as often overturned by earthquakes, was given at the same meeting by Mr. Elsey Smith, a student of architecture attached to the British School by the Royal Institute of British Architects.

The means by which these investigations have been made possible, the Cyprus Exploration Fund, is due to the generosity of the Hellenic Society, of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge respectively, of the British Archæological School, of the Institute of Architects, and of private subscribers, among whom it is interesting to notice our adopted countryman, Gen. Louis Palma di Cesnola. Exploration alone, without adequate means of publication, would leave the world little wiser than before. Fortunately, there is every reason to expect that the *Journal of Hellenic Studies* will make known the valuable results obtained.

While this information is preparing, it behooves those who would profit by it to turn away from the darkness which hitherto has been all the light vouchsafed upon Cypriote matters. The chief lesson which I have learned from a recent tour of three weeks in Cyprus, has been that trustworthy information is hard to disentangle from the mass of misinformation now available. So many travellers who took pains elsewhere were careless when they spoke of Cyprus—so many learned men have talked of Cypriote topography without visiting Cyprus—so many unlearned men have visited Cyprus and rushed into print, that the world is full of falsehood, and Cyprus is a by-word, not, like Crete, for the lies that come from it, but for those that are brought to it and inflicted upon it. What Ferdinand Dümmler says of Cypriote "Keramik," may be applied universally to Cypriote archæology: "It is a shapeless, monstrous mass, so shocking that most archæologists let it alone."

The most every-day question, if it concerns Cyprus, will not get itself answered without much searching and many surprises. If, for instance, you wish to know where Old Paphos is, look in the seventh edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' and read: "PAPHOS: in *Ancient Geography*, two adjoining islands on the western side of Cyprus, the one called *Palaea Paphos*, and the other *Nea Paphos;* and when Paphos is mentioned without an adjunct, this latter is always understood." After the first shock is over, there is a natural desire to know whence this precious information came. It was not derived from any map, for no map then available named any of the insignificant reefs between Cape Gatto and Cape Arnaut. Strabo, like Ptolemy, makes no mistakes about Cyprus; he is particularly clear about the two towns of Old Paphos and of Paphos. The poets had a habit of calling the whole island of Cyprus Paphos, but the only place in the universe where Paphos is called an island, as the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' would have it, is in a note on the sixty-fourth line of Virgil's second Georgic. Servius, by a slip of the pen, there talks of Paphos as an island. In two other notes he makes amends by clear accounts of both the places called Paphos.

But to return to the modern search for Paphos. Suppose it be granted that "bygones shall be bygones." Let the dead bury their seventh edition of the 'Britannica.' The last, the ninth edition, appeared years after the occupation of Cyprus by the English. Turn, then, for the truth, to the article Paphos, in the ninth edition. Here Old Paphos is described correctly, except as regards the river Bocarus, of which more anon; but the case with New Paphos is different. Here New Paphos is, but how changed from the island of the seventh edition! So far from being an island, it appears that New Paphos was situated "on a fertile plain, about ten miles inland from Old Paphos." Apparently, the writer has left it there to dry after its submersion, which lasted through two whole editions. Less flagrantly inaccurate, but still hopelessly confused, is the account of Old and New Paphos given by Élisée Reclus, in his 'Nouvelle Géographie Universelle.' Reclus has apparently dreamed only that there was more than one Paphos. In his account he confuses them, and on his map only one Paphos is marked. Decidedly, a person who has not the happy idea of turning to Strabo, Pausanias, or the notes of Servius on the tenth and first Æneid, will have to wait long for trustworthy facts about Paphos.

There were in ancient times two distinct towns, both of them named Paphos, and both upon the sea. One of them, the smaller and the older, was called Old Paphos, and is represented by the modern village of Koukliá. The other was called New Paphos, and is represented by the modern town of Ktíma. Ktíma, be it said, is not exactly upon the site of the ancient New Paphos, but lies very near it; a village called Baffa occupies a part of the actual site. If either Paphos be described as lying inland, it should certainly be Old Paphos. For this place, as Strabo correctly says, is on a hill ten stadia (over a mile) from the sea. At the same time Servius is not necessarily wrong in saying that in flourishing days of peace the buildings of Old Paphos spread down from the hill to the shore. Have the ten stadia that originally separated Old Paphos from the sea been transformed into miles and bestowed by the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' upon New Paphos as its distance at once from Old Paphos and the sea? In reality, New Paphos possessed a notoriously good harbor, which remained a great resort for shipping until the tenth century A. D. A glimpse of it given by the monk Cameniata, who was captured by the Arabs when they sacked Thessalonica, shows that in 904 A. D. it was still a natural stopping-place between Crete and the Syrian port of Tripolis. Before the tenth century was over, the Arabs and Greeks had pillaged and devastated the whole district of Old and New Paphos so many times that both towns had practically disappeared. Stephen of Lusignan, writing in 1572, speaks of the port of New Paphos as pestiferous and choked up by the invasion of the sea. Under Lusignan rule the town was governed by a functionary called "le Capitaine de Paphie." Ross, travelling in 1845, declared that the port of New Paphos might be cleared. In its ancient perfection this port brought worshippers of Paphian Aphrodite in great numbers to New Paphos. They moved in procession every year along the coast from this their place of landing to the goal of their pilgrimage, the most sacred and ancient shrine of Aphrodite upon the hill of Old Paphos. Old Paphos was the Paphos of poetry, and New Paphos was the Paphos of prose. New Paphos, having a good port, together with the command of a fertile plain, naturally gained commercial importance, and became, in ordinary speech, Paphos *par excellence*. Strabo and Pausanias both use Paphos for New Paphos and Palæpaphos for Old Paphos. The poets, on the other hand, have occasion to speak chiefly of Old Paphos. Commerce does not concern them, and, therefore, in Homer as in Virgil, Paphos means Old Paphos.

Old Paphos never had any importance apart from the temple which made it one of the great religious centres of pilgrimage in antiquity. With the disappearance of the worship of Aphrodite, Old Paphos ended. Like Delos, once a religious centre and now deserted, Old Paphos has seen a neighboring shrine enlist enthusiasm, purer, no doubt, but hardly more fervent, than that which moved votaries of old to throng about its "hundred smoking altars." Just as the island of Tenos, over against Delos, has become the Delos of latter-day pilgrims, so not far from Old Paphos is a monastery and a holy picture called the Panaghia Cheque, which in Richard Pococke's day (1738) was "as much resorted to by the Greeks as Loretto is by the Latins," for Pococke adds, "and they come to it even from Muscovy." The triumph of Christianity at Old Paphos has been dramatized in a legend of St. Barnaby, a native of Cyprus. The good saint was sorely distressed at seeing the most wicked and detestable idolatries that were practised in the temple, with all manner of lewdness. He uplifted his face and stretched his hands towards heaven praying to the Almighty. His prayer was no sooner ended than the temple was straightway stricken by lightnings and thunders until it was overturned, and all who were in it were brought to a miserable and sudden death. "On en veoit encor les vestiges," the narrator adds. That is to say, this story must be true, for are not the ruins of the temple there to prove it?

The modern village of Koukliá (Pococke's Coukleh, called Couvoucles in Lusignan times) is so insignificant that it can hardly be said to represent the Old Paphos of antiquity. Nor can it be said that the mixed population of to-day, Turkish, Greek, and Nubian, maintains the memories of old. Indeed, an acquaintance of three days' duration with the ladies of Koukliá at the time divided between the too enthusiastic celebration of Easter and pagan neglect of it, leads me to qualify the praises of their loveliness sounded by the good brother, Stephen Lusignan. For the sixteenth century, perhaps, but not for the present day, his words are appropriate: "But the dames of Paphos surpass—according to the more usual opinion—all the others; inasmuch as it was there that the gods, their ancestors, had their abodes." In justice to these ladies I ought to add that no longer ago than the year 1806 Ali-Bey—a Portuguese travelling as a Turk—visited Koukliá and gave a far more flattering report. In fact, he was so engrossed by the charmers of his host's household at Koukliá, that he did not see the temple on his first visit. He had to come back a second time for that. Dr. Richard Pococke in 1738 assumed a very different tone, saying of Cyprus at large: "The women are little superior to their ancestors with regard to their virtue." Freiherr Joseph von Hammer-Purgstall, on the other hand, was charmed by the maidens of Amathus, "of figure so comely,

with eyes so bright, and ways so gentle that they might still to-day be the priestesses of Aphrodite."

But there are questions less beguiling than these computations of comparative loveliness, which must be answered before it can be easy to profit by the publications forthcoming in England. The nature of these questions would be shown if a copy of General di Cesnola's 'Cyprus' were opened at its eighth chapter, and if then points of interrogation were sprinkled rather freely along the margins of every page. These eloquent question-marks would be absent only from pages 207, 208, 209, and from the last page of the chapter, which contains a somewhat overcharged peroration and a picture. Here, as upon pages 208 and 209, a question of taste might be raised, but still the trick which General di Cesnola played upon his Turk illustrates the wonderful hold, not even yet relaxed, which the notion of buried treasure has upon the Cypriote mind. Ludwig Ross, whose wide knowledge of the Mediterranean islands gives weight to his opinion, declares that nowhere does this "idée fixe" take such stubborn shape as in Cyprus. He tells, indeed, two or three stories of Cypriote credulity and superstition about this matter which might have come from the 'Arabian Nights' Entertainments.' And yet Ross visited Cyprus as lately as the year 1845.

But to return to the question-marks. There should be no question-mark on page 207, because it chronicles an observation worth its weight in gold. Our author there says that only a government with ample funds could undertake to remove the many feet of rubbish accumulated upon the site of the temple at Old Paphos. The pity is that this very just observation did not prevent him from giving a ground-plan of the temple and from going into all manner of details.

On the first page of the chapter it is hinted that Cinyras may not have been a mythical character. This is misleading, since there is no room for doubt as to Cinyras; he certainly was and is a mythical character if mythical characters there are. Then our author says that the priesthood at Paphos, held by the Cinyradae—a family or caste claiming descent from Cinyras—continued even to Roman times to be an office of high dignity. This is undeniable, but Cato's offer of this priesthood to King Ptolemy in compensation for the throne of Cyprus does not prove it. If General di Cesnola could truly add that Ptolemy accepted the priesthood as an equivalent, or as something he was glad to get, then the point would be well taken. But the fact, not mentioned by our author, is that Ptolemy answered Cato by taking poison, and chose death rather than this position of dignity.

On the next page (205) our author, in speaking of Koukliá, talks of "fine architectural fragments in marble and granite, . . . the cost of one of which must have been far greater than the value of all the modern dwellings at Koukliá." These expressions about the cost and artistic merit of the temple remains at Old Paphos, whether in the village houses or elsewhere, should be attributed to an amiable enthusiasm. Some are astonishing, many are puzzling, all are interesting, but none of them are fine. Of those who have visited the site, only General di Cesnola admires its architecture. Even the dithyrambic Von Hammer confines his admiration to the bushes and the birds. Again, had our author been called upon, as have Messrs. Gardner and Hogarth, to purchase several modern dwellings at Koukliá, he certainly would not have rated their value so low. Of the granite here mentioned I shall speak anon.

Below, upon this same page of 'Cyprus,' the opinion is expressed that Vespasian did not rebuild the town of Old Paphos when he rebuilt the temple. Seven pages further on it is argued, from the quality of stone used for certain inscriptions and from that used in the temple walls, that Vespasian "may after all have only repaired the temple of Paphos, or, if he rebuilt it entirely, it had been partly with the former stones." As for Vespasian's rebuilding of the temple it is certain that it marked an epoch in the history of Old Paphos, for the local coins issued under Vespasian, Titus, and Domitian are dated from the year of the new temple. The evident importance thus attached to Vespasian's reconstruction discredits our author's suggestion that it may have been only patchwork. Moreover, General di Cesnola is in error about the stone used in the temple building and inscriptions at Old Paphos, and consequently his whole argument concerning this rebuilding by Vespasian disappears. Again, it is more reasonable to think with Engel ('Kypros' i., p. 125) that the town of Old Paphos was rebuilt by Vespasian, than with our author that it was not so rebuilt. The reverence for the temple and oracle of Aphrodite at Old Paphos felt by the Flavian emperors is notorious; witness Tacitus in his account of the pilgrimage thither made by Titus Vespasianus. But if Vespasian did not rebuild the town, it certainly must have rebuilt itself, for it is as impossible to dream of the temple at Old Paphos, constantly resorted to, both as an asylum and as the seat of an oracle, without some cluster of houses about it, as it is to think of the more secular resorts in modern Switzerland without pensions or hotels. Therefore the next statement or suggestion of General di Cesnola is unfortunate. He says, "A great deal of the decorative and architectural material of Paphos was transported to the other city called Neo-Paphos." I cannot help the perhaps unjust suspicion that the writer of these words momentarily thought of New or Neo-Paphos as of a town which hardly existed until the earthquake toppled down its elder namesake. How, otherwise, could it have escaped his penetration that a rich agricultural and shipping centre like New Paphos would hardly regard as a windfall the broken bits of a neighboring hamlet?—for such, comparatively speaking, was Old Paphos, apart from its temple. Perhaps, though, the error which leads General di Cesnola to see at every turn imported granite in place of the coarse Cypriote stone which covers the site of Old Paphos, has again misled him. The people at New Paphos were rich enough to import granite columns from Egypt, and they did so. At Old Paphos there is no vestige of granite to be seen. There is no material there, and probably there never were any decorations, outside of the temple, which the "millionaires" of New Paphos would not have scorned.

On the next page (206) is mentioned the "purchase" by our author in 1870 of the "area of the temple and that portion of the peribolos, or outside wall, which was not occupied by houses." The word *purchase* here means, no doubt, the acquiring of the right to make excavations. If it be taken literally, the absolute failure of any landholder now living at Koukliá to remember any such transaction is hard to explain — the more so because the presence and proceedings of General di Cesnola's man Besbes are well remembered in the village. But this question of purchase is insignificant compared to that of the "peribolos" and of the "temple." These terms, "peribolos" and "temple," used as our author puts them, contain beforehand the whole of his ground-plan of the temple. There is an enormous *petitio principii* in taking it for granted that a temple of Phœnician origin will have, as Greek temples do, a peribolos wall. General di Cesnola, no doubt, thought he used his own eyes, but he was really looking with the eyes of Von Hammer, the first to talk of and map out an "Umfangsmauer" (see his 'Topographische Ansichten'). Engel based his whole account of Old Paphos upon Von Hammer, and often reproduces him verbatim without using inverted commas. For the most absurd part of Engel's description, however, Von Hammer is not responsible. Von Hammer thought he saw a peribolos wall, and made a shrewd guess as to where the temple stood. It was reserved for a young architect who had never visited Cyprus to describe minutely the temple itself. The name of this clairvoyant archæologist is Hetsch, and his preposterous ground-plan, made in Copenhagen, at a respectful and respectable distance from Paphos, is quoted by Müller in his 'Hand-book of Archæology,' while Engel devotes pages to its elaboration. Absolutely the only basis for all that Engel and Hetsch say of the temple is a word or two of Von Hammer about its position, and various effigies of the shrine upon local coins! Still, it will become evident anon that, in their idea of the size of this shrine, Engel and Hetsch, following Von Hammer, were far nearer the truth than General di Cesnola, after all his excavating and purchasing of ground.

Passing over three pages (207–209), we reach page 210. There it is written that "The great temple of Venus was situated on an eminence." With this there is little reason to quarrel, but look three pages ahead and read that this "famous temple must have been visible many miles out at sea." After this, contemplate on page 214 the picture of the "eminence" with enormous mountain peaks looming behind. The picture serves to explain what the text was intended to convey, and the whole is a gross exaggeration of the facts. I have seen the negative of a photograph taken so as to test General di Cesnola's illustration. After every allowance for the false perspective of photography, the fact remains that our author's illustration does not represent what any eye has seen at Old Paphos. The site is a charming one, but wholly lacks the Alpine grandeur of General di Cesnola's most misleading picture.

And now, turning back to page 210, we find our author committing himself beyond recall about the material of the temple at Old Paphos. First he speaks of the so-called peribolos: "The stone," he says, "is not from Cyprus, but, being a kind of blue granite, must have been imported either from Cilicia or from Egypt." Then he writes that "the walls of the temple itself" are made "of the kind of stone previously mentioned," *i. e.*, blue granite. We have already heard of fragments in granite built into the village houses, and are soon to hear of "inscribed pedestals" (p. 212) which are "mostly of the same kind of stone as the walls of the temple, but of a finer grain." Then, on p. 214, the two "monoliths" by the sea "are of a brownish granite, which is not to be found anywhere in the island." Here indeed we have granite, and to spare. Three different kinds, (1) blue granite, (2) blue granite of a finer grain, (3) brownish granite. The site of Old Paphos would at this rate be little short of a granite quarry. But what does Ludwig Ross say about the nature of the stone upon this site? Ross is the only man of scientific attainments who has published an account of the site as it was when General di Cesnola went to Cyprus. Where our author sees blue granite, Ross speaks of a wall "aus einem weichen durch

die Zeit an der Aussenseite geschwärzten Sandsteine." The "peribolos," then, and the temple are of sandstone, says Ross. They certainly are not of blue granite. The fragments scattered about in the village, says Ross, are "aus gelblichem Kalkstein." Of this same calcareous stone are the monoliths, which General di Cesnola says are of "brownish granite"; these Ross did not see. The authority of Ross emboldens me to say that, during the three days of my stay at Koukliá, I wandered in every direction over the site of Old Paphos, and did not see a particle of granite there or down by the sea shore in the neighborhood of the two monoliths, which are not of granite. All the stones used for the inscriptions, and for the building of the temple, at Old Paphos are of the kinds which cover Cyprus, and there is none which has been imported. The only place where I saw granite pillars in Cyprus was at New Paphos. Ali-Bey as well as Ross saw them there, and both have especially mentioned them. There are magnificent granite columns also on the site of Salamis, but my visit to the ruins there was so hasty that I failed to see them. These Ross saw, and he calls attention to the probability that, like similar ones found on the island of Delos, they were used for interior decoration. Von Hammer, who was far from being in an accurate mood when he visited Old Paphos, does speak of granite, and also of white and of red marble. But he lays no such stress as our author does upon these materials, and would have been the first to yield to the superior accuracy of Ross. Ali-Bey, who, in spite of all his gallantries, had a practised eye, does not speak of any material at Old Paphos. He is content to make the ignorant observation, which Engel ponderously and pointlessly reproduces, that the ruined walls on the site were "cyclopean." General di Cesnola, therefore, is the only man who has ever seriously maintained that there was granite in large quantities on the site of Old Paphos.

As you glance further down page 210, it is worth asking how our author satisfied himself that "the temple, as rebuilt by Vespasian, seems to have occupied the same area as the former temple"; and again, protesting against the reappearance of Von Hammer's "peribolos, or outer wall." "Of this," General di Cesnola himself here says, "a few huge blocks only are now extant." If this be true, and from personal investigation I know that it is true, how can any human being pretend to know that these few huge blocks formed part of an extensive outer wall? But more of this anon. The author of 'Cyprus' now proceeds to tell of "a doorway, still plainly visible," on the west side. The doorway has evidently been there, but when our author proceeds to give its width as "seventeen feet nine inches," there must be a pause. Perrot and Chipiez, in their third volume, depend upon this, the width of General di Cesnola's doorway, for the admittance of a solemn and numerous procession. These authors describe with much animation an occasion when this door would be flung open to admit a gorgeous throng of worshippers. Alas! this procession must be excluded if there is no other door of admittance—excluded, or forced to enter one or, at most, two abreast. The doorway here was certainly not more than five feet wide. The two sockets for the "bolts" upon which the doors swung, the meaningless dimensions of which are correctly given in 'Cyprus,' stand plainly at the opposite sides of the doorway, and they are not five feet apart. The breach in the wall, at the beginning of which are the unmistakable traces of this postern gate, was correctly measured by our author. His mistake apparently resides in thinking that the two sockets were both on the same side of an enormous doorway. Grant him this, which is an absurdity; and if you ask him how a single door, enclosing a space of seventeen feet eight inches, could be hung at all, not to speak of hanging it upon two bolts five feet apart, I fear the answer would not be satisfactory. This is not the only case where General di Cesnola has misled Perrot and Chipiez in the third volume of their truly monumental 'History of Ancient Art.' This has happened, too, in spite of their conscientious efforts to correct and control his data. That both of these authors used every caution in accepting the data of 'Cyprus' is abundantly shown in their just criticisms of the various and self-contradictory plans given by General di Cesnola of the temple near Athieno, usually called the temple of Golgoi, and also by what they say (iii, p. 263) of the site of Old Paphos (the italics are mine): "Aujourd'hui même, malgré tout ce qu' ont bouleversé ou détruit des explorateurs *qui se sont proposé surtout pour but la recherche et l'invention des objets de musée*, peut-être des fouilles méthodiques, dirigées par un architecte, donneraient-ils encore de beaux résultats." It is to be regretted that their third volume had to appear before the publications soon to be made in England. In one matter their great knowledge of antiquity has enabled them to anticipate the results of actual excavation. In spite of the absolute silence of 'Cyprus' on the subject, Perrot and Chipiez say in so many words that there must have been extensive porticoes or sheltered ways near the temple. These porticoes have now been uncovered, and they occupy a large part of the area which General di Cesnola's plan marks as the temple. But I must not attempt to forestall the promised publications, for fear of adding to the mass of spurious facts which have buried the temple from sight almost as effectually as the vast accumulations of earth which much labor has at last removed. L. D.

Correspondence.

THE BLISS OF INDIRECT TAXATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The following is an extract from a speech of Gen. Harrison, made at Put-in-Bay yesterday afternoon:

"And I may note also the fact that, notwithstanding this complaint of excessive revenue, there are some who suggest that they are not able adequately to arouse the popular indignation against excessive taxation because they *cannot disclose to the people when or how they are paying the taxes.* [Applause.] It is taken, they say, *so indirectly and so subtly that these—our plain people—don't know that they are paying them at all.* [Applause.]"

This seems to be all that Gen. Harrison said upon the subject. He does not claim, with the Senator from Vermont, that the burden of the protective tariff falls upon the foreign producer; on the contrary, he admits that it falls upon the consumer. But the merit of the system, to his mind, lies in the fact that the consumer is in blissful ignorance of the fact that he is himself the victim.

Very truly yours, Edwin Brainard.

Chicago, September 1, 1888.

TRUSTS AND PROTECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Suppose that the great wheat-growing kings of Minnesota, Dakota, and Nebraska should combine, and, through the influence of their greater wealth and other advantages, attempt to control the production and price of wheat, and consequently of flour, in this country. Suppose that this combination first secured legislation in Congress virtually prohibiting the import of wheat from any foreign country, and then, by the manipulation usually prevailing in such transactions, induced the smaller wheat-producers, the country over, for a bonus, to discontinue growing wheat. Suppose that, in consequence of the success of this scheme, the price of wheat were gradually increased to $5 per bushel, and that of flour in a corresponding ratio, to the consumer. Would this be a "Trust," with its legitimate results, or would it be "a private matter," with which neither the President nor any one else has any right to interfere?

Suppose that immediately after the successful accomplishment of this design, or at any other time, for some unknown reason, or for other reasons, the price of wheat should fall instead of rising; would this be justification for the claim that the wheat barons were patriotic citizens engaged in a laudable endeavor to furnish their fellow-citizens the necessaries of life at a minimum cost? Or supposing the price of farm labor on the barons' farms should continue somewhat higher than the same class of labor in England; could it be justly said that this was in consequence of the "combine" referred to, or that the wages of the laborer were protected by the reduction of the field for his labor consequent upon limiting the area planted in wheat to the lands of the Trust?

Is it a fair answer to the above suggestions to say: "It would be impossible to effect a wheat Trust such as you describe; therefore your proposition is not relevant"?

Is it a self-evident truth that whatever may be of benefit to England must necessarily be injurious to the United States, and, if not, upon what basis does the seeming disposition rest to regulate our commercial conduct by the amount of damage that may inure to England, rather than by the benefits we should derive from seeking foreign markets, naturally tributary to us, absolutely regardless of the effect, for or against England?

Respectfully, Thos. T. Turner.

St. Louis, Mo., August 29, 1888.

THE MARKETS OF THE WORLD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Speaker John G. Carlisle, in the closing paragraph of his very able speech on "Tariff Reform," in the House of Representatives, says, "We want not only the home market, but all the markets of the world for the varied products of this great country. We want to send our agricultural products, our cotton, and our breadstuffs and provisions to the agricultural peoples of South America, Mexico, and Asia."

Strong as it is, this is only a partial statement of the pressing need of this country. A nation, like an individual, cannot live in selfish isolation without injuring itself, not only in its material interests, but in its moral character and influence as well. Commerce is the great teacher of civilization, and by virtue of a beneficent law every teacher becomes a learner also. By our own folly, under the pretence of protection, we have swept from the ocean our merchant vessels and have driven away those of other nations. All this would, under a reformed tariff, be speedily amended. There is no industry more congenial to the enterprising spirit of this nation than that of foreign commerce, and we should soon find that we have much to learn as well as to teach through its peaceful and friendly methods. The persist-

ent stifling of that commerce by arbitrary law for the benefit of a class, and to the injury of the rest, is unworthy a free and intelligent people. B.

BALTIMORE, August 31, 1888.

STRANGE ERROR OF A FORTNIGHTLY REVIEWER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The following remarkable statement is to be found in the June number of the *Fortnightly Review* on "Social Problems in America," by W. H. S. Aubrey, LL.D., pages 856–857:

"Seeing that silver has been for some time at a discount, the practical effect is that the country at large has to suffer from the depreciation, for any one can obtain at the mint, in exchange for gold or United States bonds, silver coinage at the full discount, which he can use at the par value. Many large employers and storekeepers have been in the habit of purchasing silver in this way, so as to make a profit upon their payments for wages or commodities. The system is convenient for debtors and for all who have to pay money, but it is the reverse for creditors and for all who have money to receive."

Does it not seem as if the absurdity of this statement would be apparent even to those who might be ignorant of the facts in the case?

Yours respectfully, JAS. A. HUNT.

WINNETKA, ILL., August 31, 1888.

FATNESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just read your article on "Fatness" in your issue of the 16th inst., and am tempted by its perusal to submit to you a regimen which, if followed by your fat friends, will reduce superfluous flesh without injury to the constitution. I write from experience, having reduced my own weight fifty pounds.

Schweninger's plan of decreasing the quantity of food is good, but difficult to follow. Very few people have the moral courage to stop short in the midst of a feast of good things when they bring to the table appetites sharpened by fasting; who ever heard of a hard drinker setting down his glass of bourbon half consumed and resignedly walking away from it? No, sir, that particular glass he always empties; as old Rip Van Winkle says, "He won't count that one." The case of the hard eater is much the same; most fat people have vigorous appetites and indulge them. My plan for their reformation is precisely the same as for the drinker: as in his case total abstinence from the rosy is the only sure cure, so in the case of our fat friends absence from food that stimulates and excites the appetite, and at the same time weakens or destroys the resolution to be moderate, must be practised.

What shall we do, then, starve? By no means. I propose that you shall eat and drink all that you want, and that you shall take no more exercise than you are disposed to; this, surely, is easy enough of accomplishment. Now for the rule:

Morning.—Sponge bath, tepid water, rough towel; walk half a mile if convenient. Breakfast: one cup tea, coffee, or milk, no sugar, all the bread you can eat, no butter.

Noon.—Mush, milk, bread, vegetables, fruit, tea, coffee, or milk, no sugar or butter.

Evening.—Bread, fruit, tea, coffee, or milk.

Every other day three eggs with the noon meal, or, if the person following this treatment has been largely a consumer of animal food, then, three times a week, broiled meat, fowl, or fish of any kind, not to exceed one pound. Eschew all grease, pastries, and sweetmeats.

In a day or two the appetite for bread alone will enable the experimenter to make a hearty meal, and in a few days the disposition to move about will manifest itself, and the party will take exercise the most convenient or for which he has the most disposition.

If any of our fat and amiable brethren are induced to try this treatment, I shall feel amply repaid for the trouble of writing this letter, and I feel assured that you also will consider it a fair recompense for publishing the same if any one is benefited thereby.

Yours very truly, J. T. SUTTON.

SAN FRANCISCO, No. 4 CALIFORNIA ST., August 24, 1888.

Notes.

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS' fall announcements include the work of which a foretaste is given in the current *Scribner's*, viz., ex-Secretary McCulloch's 'Men and Measures of Half a Century'; 'Dogmatic Theology,' by Prof. W. G. T. Shedd; the sixth volume of Dr. Philip Schaff's 'History of the Christian Church,' forming vol. i. (1517–1530) of the "History of the Reformation"; 'The Text of Jeremiah,' by Prof. J. C. Workman of Victoria University, Coburg, Ontario; 'Amos Kilbright: His Adscititious Experiences, with Other Stories,' by Frank R. Stockton; a new and uniform edition in eight volumes of Donald G. Mitchell's works; a select edition of J. T. Headley's historical works; 'The Five Talents of Woman;' and the following juvenile publications—'Children's Stories of the Great Scientists,' by Miss Henrietta C. Wright; 'Little People and their Homes in Meadows, Woods, and Waters,' by Stella Louise Hook; 'A Tale of the Indian Mutiny,' by Louis Rousselet; and 'Wild Men and Wild Beasts,' by Lieut. Gordon-Cumming.

J. B. Lippincott Co. issue next week the second volume of 'Chambers's Encyclopædia.' They will be the American publishers also of the new "International Statesmen Series," edited by Lloyd C. Sanders, of which the initial volume will be 'Lord Beaconsfield,' by T. E. Kebbel, writer of the sketch of Beaconsfield in Leslie Stephen's 'Dictionary of National Biography.'

The Messrs. Putnam are about issuing a second edition of Mr. C. B. Todd's 'Story of the City of New York.'

Thomas Whittaker will publish 'Studies in the Acts of the Apostles,' by Bishop Williams of Connecticut.

'Songs of Toil,' by the Queen of Rumania, translated by John Eliot Bowen, is in the press of Frederick A. Stokes & Bro.

Mr. Andrew Lang has written an introduction for a volume of Mr. J. Whitcomb Riley's verses which has been prepared for publication in England.

Mr. Froude has written a preface for a volume of travels in the United States which Longmans, Green & Co. will shortly publish. This is 'Our Kin across the Sea,' by Mr. J. C. Frith, a New Zealand colonist who visited us last year. The same firm will bring out, early in the autumn, 'The Inns of Old Southwark, and their Associations,' the title of a forthcoming work by Mr. William Rendle, author of 'Old Southwark and its People,' assisted by Mr. Philip Norman, who has been instrumental chiefly in collecting the numerous illustrations.

A revised edition of the catalogue of the loan collection of books, autographs, pictures, and relics shown at the recent Pope Commemoration at Twickenham, England, has been prepared by Mr. Austin Dobson and Mr. H. R. Tedder. Orders may be sent to the librarian of the Twickenham Free Library.

The latest issue of the Camelot Series is a handy but copious volume of selections from above fifty of the leading writers of our prose literature, under the title, 'English Prose from Mandeville to Thackeray, Chosen and Edited by Arthur Galton' (London: Walter Scott; New York: Thomas Whittaker). The selections vary in length and in interest, but they have been chosen with judgment, and edited as little as possible. There are no biographical notes, with the exception of a few lines upon Southwell, who, the young editor seems to think, stands in need of an introduction; but in other cases he has "not ventured to doubt the knowledge or to outrage the intelligence" of his readers, and therefore confines his notes to the mere dates of the authors quoted. The plan has its advantages, especially for the literary reader. Many of the extracts are among the familiar noble passages of English literature; others are less known, particularly those from the divines; but all taken together are a fine illustration of the various music, the dignity, and the plainness of our tongue. The editor's reflection is perhaps the most obvious one, but it is certainly the most important: "One of the great uses of a book of selections," he says, "is to remind us that in all ages the really great writers have differed very little from one another; all good prose has the same qualities of directness, plainness, and simplicity." This use the volume serves admirably.

'Evan Harrington' is the latest of the series of George Meredith's novels to appear in the popular edition issued (with the author's sanction) by Roberts Bros., Boston.

Dr. Samuel Lockwood is well known as an entertaining writer on natural history, and his 'Animal Memoirs: Part I, Mammals' (Ivison, Blakeman & Co.) sustains his reputation in this particular. We cannot, however, agree with his publishers when they say that the pretty, illustrated volume is "just the thing for reading classes in our schools." The truth is, that Dr. Lockwood's style is open to grave objections as a model, being anything but simple and idiomatic. "This is trending on a profoundly interesting fact"; "his downfall was the outcome of an unwarranted confidence in his own abilities"; "the species or trivial distinction is based upon the external features"; "let us not damage Joey's record"—are characteristic sentences which children will least suffer from by not understanding.

A large part of the 'Selections from Ruskin' which Mr. Edward Ginn has made for the "Classics for Children," published by his firm, should likewise prove unintelligible to young readers and listeners. A further selection by the teacher is necessary from these abridgments of 'Sesame and Lilies' and the 'Crown of Wild Olive.' Neither have we here a style which, for all the reputation of Ruskin as a master of English prose, is one to set before children.

We recommend to teachers for their examination the 'School Grammar' prepared by David Salmon (Longmans), of which the unconventional scheme and the excellent typography are very attractive.

Whether more or less than a book, 'The Family Caterer' is likely to find many readers (American News Co.). It is a calendar of bills of fare for a whole year, and attached to it for easy reference is 'The Good Cook,' whose recipes are numbered to correspond with the respective entries in the calendar. The idea is ingenious. The unit of *quantity* has regard to the needs of a small family.

A comely and dignified-looking campaign text-book is Mr. C. B. Norton's 'The President and his Cabinet' (Boston: Cupples & Hurd). The biographies (Thurman being included) are accompanied with portraits and views, and among the documents are the President's late tariff and civil-service messages, and the platform of 1888.

'Sur l'Eau,' by M. Guy de Maupassant, which appeared in some of the earlier numbers of *Les Lettres et les Arts* for the present year, has been published in a volume by Marpon & Flammarion (Boston: Schoenhof). The illustrations in the text, which fill its pages, are entirely new ones, by Édouard Riou, and not reductions of those which originally accompanied it in the large pages of the review, by Meissonier and others.

Madame de Witt, the daughter of Guizot, and one of the most inexhaustible of bookmakers, has published 'Du Visible à l'Invisible: Rêveries consolantes, d'après Mrs. Oliphant et Miss Elizabeth Phelps' (Paris: Perrin; Boston: Schoenhof).

M. Ernest Renan's new volume, 'Drames Philosophiques' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof), is a collection of his well-known writings, with the same descriptive title, issued singly during the last ten years. It contains 'Caliban,' 'L'Eau de Jouvence,' 'Le Prêtre de Nemi,' 'L'Abbesse de Jouarre,' '1802,' and 'Le Jour de l'an 1886.'

The announcement was made in the *Revue Bleue* for August 4 that its "Causerie littéraire" would hereafter be written by M. Jules Lemaitre. M. Maxime Gaucher, whose death was announced in the preceding number, had written the short and lively reviews of new books that have appeared in its pages under this heading almost every week during the past sixteen years.

L'Art for August 1 and 15 continues the account, partly autobiographical, of the career of the late François Bonvin, giving a number of his pen-and-ink caricatures evoked by his journey to Holland and Belgium in 1873, and a strong, unfinished full-page etching of a *fileuse Bretonne*. An eccentric (and finally insane) brother etcher, Charles Méryon, is commemorated by Henry de Chennevière in an article on the archives of chalcography at the Louvre. Méryon's literary style was refreshingly unlike the standard French staccato, and some quotations from him embrace sentences twenty lines long, with hardly another point than the comma. When we recall Mr. Cole's Italian work on wood, graver in hand, before the very canvases of the old masters, it is interesting to read Méryon's report of his own etching in the same way, holding the plate in his hand and the mirror, too, that reverses for him, and not even sitting down ("gravant même debout").

The most noteworthy article in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for August is on the Artificial Changes in the Flora of California, by the late H. Semler. After a brief review of the agricultural history of the country he treats particularly of the small fruits, calling attention to the fact that, while the introduction of foreign species has been prosecuted with an energy amounting "almost to a mania," little or no attention has been paid to cultivating the wild native berries. Dr. Junker sends the substance of the news received at Cairo on July 5 by a messenger who left Khartum May 25, bringing letters from Slatin-Bey and Urwalder, one of the captive missionaries. In it is the startling statement that during the past two months the Mahdi had been preparing an expedition, consisting of 4,000 men, with four steamers and numerous transports, designed to attack a white Pasha in the south and to conquer his dominions. This is held in Cairo to indicate an impending attack on Emin Pasha, and the supposition is made that, in anticipation of this design of the Mahdi's, Emin may have marched his forces to the northward into the Province Bahr el-Ghazal, hence giving rise to the report of the advance of a white Pasha in that direction. This weakening of the Mahdi's army in Khartum, it is suggested, should be availed of to send an expedition against that place, which would doubtless encounter very little opposition, so oppressive is the tyranny of the Mahdi.

No. 34 of the *American Journal of Philology* opens with a paper "On the Stylistic Effect of the Greek Participle," by Prof. Gildersleeve, whose *obiter dicta* at the beginning concerning the participle in English and in German will arrest attention. One might infer that this scholar was "unfriendly" to the participle, as our bimetallist brethren say of silver. The editor also takes a hand, in footnotes, in the discussion of the "Sequence of Tenses in Latin," continued by Prof. W. G. Hale. The other leading articles are "Charleston Provincialisms," by Sylvester Primer; "The Pennsylvania German Dialect," by M. D. Learned; and "Gerunds and Gerundives in Pliny's Letters," by James W. Bright.

By a slip of the pen on page 159 of our last issue, we referred to the *Evening Post* of August 22 for a comparative table of the Mills bill and the present tariff. The true date of the paper is August 23.

—Some of the many persons in America who feel themselves under obligation to the late Matthew Arnold, may like to unite with his friends and admirers in England in the public testimonial which is proposed in his honor. Mr. Arnold died a poor man, and it is, we believe, the design of the Committee that has the matter in charge, to devote a portion of such sum as may be subscribed for the memorial to placing a medallion of the poet in Westminster Abbey, and to put the remainder of the sum at the disposal of Mrs. Arnold. Something over £2,000 has been raised in England. Should any of our readers wish to add to this sum, we shall be glad to receive their subscriptions, and to transmit them to the treasurer of the memorial fund.

—Hugh McCulloch's reminiscences of public men, in the current *Scribner's*, are interesting, but they show rather a temperate judgment than keen observation. They are almost entirely lacking in detail, anecdote, and that distinct personal impression, as of a character in a novel, which one expects to find in memoirs. He saw and was familiar with many of the great historical characters of the time, and he reviews the career and genius of several of them, giving a rather more favorable sentence than history has yet pronounced upon those who are or have been under a cloud—such as McClellan, Hancock, and Johnson; and a less favorable one upon the favorites of fortune, like Grant. What he says of Johnson is of most consequence. He testifies that in a daily intercourse of four years he never saw him under the influence of liquor, and quotes Lincoln as saying at the time of the inauguration, "I have known Andy Johnson for many years; he made a bad slip the other day, but you need not be scared: Andy ain't a drunkard." He also testifies that Johnson did not use his appointing power for personal ends, was free from any improper influences in his patronage, and administered his office with entire integrity in a clean and honest way. He admits that under bad advice Johnson did undertake to bolster up "a third party," but adds that there were fewer changes than is usual under the circumstances of the accession of a Vice-President to office. This is altogether the most favorable opinion upon Johnson that has been set down. For Arthur, the third President with whom he had official connection, he exhibits the warmest regard, especially for his resistance to the demands of his former political associates for offices, and says he "did not know which most to admire, his firmness in resisting their importunities, or his tact in retaining their good will, notwithstanding his refusal to comply with their urgent requests." He distinctly sides with McClellan, and disparages Grant even on the military side of his career, while for Sheridan, Sherman, and Thomas he has the highest respect. In all these judgments the lines of old differences are still so plain as to mark them as contemporary opinions by one whose sympathies are not entirely disinterested.

—The principal articles in the number besides this are, the Railway paper upon Passenger Travel, which is finely illustrated; one upon the modern Greeks, which incidentally pleads for the American School at Athens; and one upon the recondite subject of Campaign Medals, which possesses a curious interest. The writer of the last-named article, Mr. Gustav Kobbé, has been misled by the collector's desire to have a complete series. He figures the obverse of a medal bearing a kneeling female slave, the legend, "Am I not a woman and a sister?" and the date, 1838. The reverse, he tells us, is inscribed, "United States of America" and "Liberty." From all this he concludes that "it evidently commemorates the organizing of the Liberty party." But this party was not founded till 1839; and what we are dealing with is obviously a token coined by or in behalf of the female anti-slavery societies before the division in the ranks of the abolitionists, and while the future founders of the Liberty party were deprecating such a political organization. The division, by the way, Mr. Kobbé ascribes to the promulgation of the disunion doctrine by Mr. Garrison; but the separation in 1840 had a purely sectarian origin, and was prior to any talk or thought of disunion as an abolition policy.

—The September *Century* makes a new and useful departure in devoting nearly all the number not occupied by serials to subjects of education, in which one naturally finds reflected the most interesting current reforms, art and industrial education, the progress of women as students, and the question of methods in boys' schools. The last, which is perhaps the most important topic, is treated "under a parable" by the detailed account of Dr. Thring's school at Uppingham. He believed in so organizing a school that the commonplace boys should get their full share of attention, in opposition to the system that develops the prize-scholars at the expense of the others; and besides this leading idea, he had also many other original notions, which resulted in his introducing studies and pursuits unthought of in the old régime, such as French, tools, and gardening, and also in his providing a little room for each boy, not as a sleeping apartment, but for study and privacy. The stamp of the individuality of Dr. Thring is all over this school, yet although the tradition of his methods may long continue, the vitality of his experiments was undoubtedly in the man himself. His model, however, is full of instruction to those teachers who have boys in charge. In the latter part of the magazine the opposite theory of education—that it is the bright boys destined to fame who

make the reputation of the school, and that it is necessary that the one genius should be developed—is guardedly and almost indirectly argued for, and the point is made that our improved colleges, with all their system, do not produce great men. But this is the old fallacy of ascribing too much to education, too little to other social conditions. Mr. Stillman, in a like vein, argues that the inferiority of modern art is due to the indifferent education which artists receive even in their technical work, to say nothing of the liberal studies. The Greek-letter societies receive the honor of an article and of a card of recommendation from Prof. Seelye; naturally, only one side of the shield has light thrown upon it. Prof. Sill is remembered in a eulogistic paper which tells us more of his private life than has yet been published, and it fitly finds a place in this number, for in his nature the teacher monopolized all other functions. We observe, among other matters of interest besides education, Minister Romero's account of his loan of money to Gen. Grant, which sets the transaction modestly but definitely in its true light—which is highly honorable to Signor Romero.

—The continued illness of Professor Newcomb, Superintendent of the Nautical Almanac, directs no little attention to the colossal researches in theoretical astronomy which have mainly occupied him for a period of ten or twelve years. The general object of this work is the determination of the form, size, and position of the orbits of all the large planets of the solar system, from the best and most recent observations, and the preparation of entirely new and uniform tables for predicting the future positions of these objects. The first of the four sections of the work relates to the general perturbations of the planets by each other, and the part already in hand comprises the four inner planets, Mercury, Venus, the Earth, and Mars, in which fourteen pairs of planets come into play. Twelve of these were completed some months since, and only the action of Jupiter on Venus and Mars remained undetermined. In the next place, the older observations of the planets must be recalculated, and thus problems constantly arise which cannot be met by general rules. All the observations at Greenwich from 1765 to 1811 have been completely reduced with modern data. Earlier Greenwich observations were similarly treated by Dr. Auwers of Berlin, who liberally presented the complete calculations as his contribution to the work of the Nautical Almanac Office. In a recent report of this work, Professor Newcomb gives further details of his progress in the treatment of other classes of planetary observations.

—Following this collation of all the available observations of each planet, comes the theoretical preparation of their corresponding positions at the time of observation. This forms the most laborious and difficult part of the work; and had Leverrier's tables, the best hitherto, been used without modification, Prof. Newcomb would have found it impracticable to complete it with the number of computers at his command; but he has skilfully avoided the difficulty by a reconstruction of Leverrier's work in such form that it should be much less laborious to use, while sufficiently accurate for the purpose required. These theoretical positions must next be compared directly with the observations, one by one, and the differences between the two are then, by suitable mathematical processes, construed as implying the nature and amount of certain corrections to the planet's motion in its orbit. More than a full year must still elapse, says Prof. Newcomb, before the work on the four inner planets will have advanced to the stage where this direct comparison is ready to be made. There remain the four outer planets, on the two more important of which, Jupiter and Saturn, Mr. Hill of the same office has been engaged for many years, and his new theory of their complicated motion is already in the printer's hands. The two outer planets, Uranus and Neptune, have not yet been begun.

—The August Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society opens with a striking account by Lieut. Younghusband of his adventurous journey across central Asia, from Pekin over the Gobi Desert and eastern Turkistan to Kashmir. The author, who accompanied Mr. James in his travels through Mantchuria, went in the simplest manner, having part of the time but a single servant, and apparently never more than ten. As he approached the desert, the soil became so friable as to crumble to dust "when the slightest pressure is put on it. In consequence of this, the roads are often sunk thirty or forty feet below the level of the surrounding country." Every cart in passing pulverizes the soil, the dust being immediately blown away by the wind. In the Gobi itself, rain fell sometimes, but would generally "pass off into steam before reaching the ground. Ahead of us we would see rain falling heavily, but before it reached the ground it would gradually disappear—vanish away—and when we reached the spot over which the rain had been falling, there would not be a sign of moisture on the ground." The inhabitants of Turkistan he found living peaceably under the Chinese rule, which is now much milder than it was before the insurrection of Yakub Beg. The most perilous part of his journey of some 5,000 miles was the crossing of the stupendous Mustagh Pass into Kashmir. This was so choked with glacial ice that the difficulties to be overcome, especially in the descent (six hours, for instance, spent in hewing steps in an ice-slope on the edge of a precipice at an altitude of 19,000 feet), make the most daring feats of Alpine travellers seem almost like child's play. He passed within a short distance of the second highest mountain in the world, K2, 28,250 feet in height. "The upper part, for perhaps 5,000 feet, was a perfect cone, and seems to be composed almost entirely of ice and snow." This peak it was proposed, in the discussion following the reading of the paper before the Society, should be henceforth known as Peak Godwin-Austen, after the officer who first surveyed the Mustagh range. Lieut. Wissman contributes a graphic sketch of a central African town which he visited in 1882. For ten miles the village street was lined with homesteads, each consisting of "four or five carefully built grass-huts, rising to a height of twenty feet," and surrounding a scrupulously clean courtyard. These homesteads were separated by gardens, in which fruits, vegetables, and medicinal plants were cultivated, as well as tobacco, hemp, and sugar-cane, while behind were thickets of bananas and plantains, the street itself being bordered with palms. The inhabitants, a tall and muscular race, had some knowledge of the arts, making "open-work battle-axes inlaid with copper," among other things. Only four years later, in 1886, he again visited this peaceful spot, but as he approached it he was struck by the dead silence which reigned. "Tall grass covers everything, and a charred pole here and there, and a few banana trees, are the only evidences that man once dwelt here. Bleached skulls by the roadside, and the skeletons of human hands attached to poles, tell the story of what has happened here since our last visit." The Arab slave-hunter had been there, and not this town only, but "the whole tribe of the Bene Ki, had ceased to exist."

SOME SEVENTEENTH-CENTURY LOVE-LETTERS.

Letters from Dorothy Osborne to Sir William Temple. 1652–54. Edited by Edward Abbott Parry. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1888.

THESE letters have been partly known to the world before by some extracts from them given in Courtenay's Life of Temple, upon which Macaulay based a charming passage, describing Dorothy's character and courtship, in his well-known essay. When Temple was a youth of twenty and on his way to France, he fell in, by traveller's luck, with this young lady, a year his senior, and with her brother, in the Isle of Wight. The impression made upon him by her conduct in a little adventure they met with, and by her manners and mind, was a lively one, and destined to be lasting, but how and when he became her "servant," in the phrase of the time, there is no way to find out. These letters begin some five or six years later, and were a secret correspondence, attended with all the anxieties and pleasures that belong to that method of courting. Time had brought bad fortune to Dorothy's party; and her father, who had been the Governor of Guernsey, and long sustained the siege of Castle Cornet for the royal cause, charged with betrayal and relieved from command by Prince Charles, had made his peace with the Commonwealth and retired, a broken and dying man, to his estate at Chicksands. Here Dorothy was attending to him during his long illness and living the quietest of lives, except for the one great concern of her maiden age—the disposal of herself, as she terms it. The letters, which unfortunately show only her side of the correspondence, are genuine love-letters, but they are such as exhibit a sound and sensible mind, a vivacious interest in the news, and especially the matrimonial gossip of the day, and a very complete account of how she spent her time. A familiar correspondence of this sort is a rare historical find, and it affords a picture of life in the Commonwealth period not without entertainment to lovers of that informal history which memoirs and diaries often handsomely provide. The zest of such matter, it should be said by way of caution, lies almost entirely in the words of the speakers; but perhaps we may give some notion of Dorothy and her ways and circumstances in the limits assigned us.

The mistress of Chicksands was, in the eyes of her time, a woman to be wooed. She had little fortune, but innumerable suitors. The smallness of her dowry was, indeed, what stood between her and Temple as the main obstacle to their union, for he, too, was scantily provided with lands and goods; his father wished a wealthy marriage for him, and the friends of Dorothy had the same natural ambition for her. The worldliness of the wedding contracts of the time in good society is the one trait that stands out before all others in this volume. It was as much a matter of course as birth and death. "I am told," writes Dorothy, "that R. Spencer is a servant to a lady of my acquaintance, a daughter of my Lady Lexington's. Is it true? And if it be, what is become of the £2,500 lady?" This is the spirit of the period. Dorothy herself acknowledges the rightfulness of the family view of marriage, and protests that she should not think of disregarding it, or finally doing other than she was bid, and more than once she is discouraged at the prospects of

Temple's suit, and urges that they both give up their hopes and yield to the necessities of their fortunes. Meanwhile, the number of her own suitors made her position a very embarrassing one, and put her constancy to the trial. First among these as a good match was Henry Cromwell, the son of the Protector, whom Mrs. Hutchinson calls an "insolent foole" and "a debauched, ungodly cavalier." He was perhaps more agreeable to Dorothy for those traits which drew these bad words upon his memory, and he was useful in getting her some Irish greyhounds she desired, but he did not prosper further in her favor. Another one of her lovers, if they can be called so, was her cousin, Sir Thomas Osborne, afterwards the notorious Earl of Danby. A third was "a squire that is as good as a knight," apparently, Richard Bennett, son of a London alderman of note, with a magnificent seat. There were country gentry in plenty who besieged her. The most amusing of these is one whom she nicknames the "Emperor," a Sir Justinian Isham, with four daughters and much learning, who returned to the attack three times, and at each assault provoked some bantering mention in these letters, for Dorothy faithfully told her lover of all his enemies. This is the way in which she pays her respects to him:

"'Twas the vainest impertinent, self-conceited, learned coxcomb that ever yet I saw. . . . Lord! what would I give that I had a Latin letter of his for you, that he writ to a great friend at Oxford, where he gives him a long and learned character of me; 'twould serve you to laugh at these seven years. If I remember what was told me on't, the worst of my faults was a height (he would not call it pride) that was, as he had heard, the humour of my family; and the best of my commendations was that I was capable of being company and conversation for him. . . . Oh, my conscience! we should all have joined against him as the common enemy, for those poor young wenches [his daughters] are as weary of his government as I would have been. He gives them such precepts as they say my Lord of Dorchester gives his wife, and keeps them so much prisoners to a vile house he has in Northamptonshire, that if but once I had let them loose, they and his learning would have been sufficient to have made him mad without my help. . . . I never had, I think, but one letter from Sir Justinian, but 'twas worth twenty of anybody's else to make me sport. It was the most sublime nonsense that in my life I ever read; and yet, I believe, he descended as low as he could to come near my weak understanding."

Dorothy, however, is usually more gentle with her admirers' characters. Most of them, it may be surmised, did not get further than treating with her relatives for her hand, but occasionally one was rash enough to plead directly. This is the fortune one such worthy met with: she, being on her guard, kept "Mrs. Goldsmith and Jane" to sit with her when he called; but he came "better provided than I could have imagined. He brought a letter with him and gave it to me as one he had met with directed to me; he thought it came out of Northamptonshire." Dorothy was equal to the emergency, and dashed his hopes by not opening it, on which he whispered to her that it "was of great concern to him, and begged I would read it and give him my answer. I took it up presently, as if I had meant it, but threw it, sealed as it was, into the fire, and told him (as softly as he had spoke to me) I thought that the quickest and best way of answering it." It does not appear, however, that even by such sharp means Dorothy broke any hearts. One by one her suitors, even to Sir Justinian, consoled themselves with other wives within a short period, and their fates are duly recorded.

All this did not go on unobserved. There was an elder brother in the case, who seems to have been attached to his sister, but desperately jealous of Temple, whose favor he more than suspected, and very anxious to marry Dorothy well. The two would converse of the advantages of wealth, the deceitfulness of good nature, the ill fortune of marriages founded on love, the good effects of compliance in breeding affection in marriages of convenience, and similar burning subjects when the talk was upon general topics; but the bearing of it was well understood by both. They quarrelled outright more than once, and the brother did not scruple to say ill things, much to his discredit, of Temple, whose family, it is to be remembered, were "Parliament" men. Here is the account of one such "skirmish":

"The Emperor and his proposals began it; I talked merrily on't till I saw my brother put on his sober face, and could hardly then believe he was in earnest. It seems he was, for when I had freely spoke my meaning, it wrought so with him as to fetch up all that lay on his stomach. All the people that I had ever in my life refused were brought again upon the stage, like Richard the III.'s ghosts, to reproach me withal; and all the kindness his discoveries could make I had for you was laid to my charge. My best qualities (if I have any that are good) served but for aggravations of my fault, and I was allowed to have wit and understanding and discretion in other things, that it might appear I had none in this. Well, it was a pretty lecture, and I grew warm with it after a while; in short, we came so near an absolute falling-out that 'twas time to give over, and we said so much then that we have hardly spoken a word together since. But 'tis wonderful to see what curtseys and legs pass between us; and as before we were thought the kindest brother and sister, we are certainly the most complimental couple in England."

At a later date matters went further, her brother charging that "Religion and honor were things you did not consider at all, and that he was confident you would take any engagement, serve in employment, or do anything to advance yourself." On this Dorothy lost patience and forgot her disguise, and they "talked themselves weary," until "he renounced me and I defied him, but both in as civil language as it would permit; and parted in great anger, with the usual ceremony of a leg and a courtesy, that you would have died in the laughing to have seen us." After these bouts they were outwardly reconciled, and although the ties were strained by the long contest, they seem not to have been broken.

Life at Chicksands, besides this endless coil of love, had its daily routine, and the glimpses one obtains of this are perhaps not an unfair example of how the days then went on in a country-seat. The house was an old priory in quiet scenery, with pleasant outlooks—"a sleepy country-house," says the editor, "the warm earth and her shrubs creeping close up to the very sills of the lower windows, sending in morning fragrance, I doubt not, when Dorothy thrust back the lattice after breakfast." The noise of the world was far away, and the breaking of the Parliament by Oliver only calls forth a query whether Algernon Sidney did really resist, and a reflection on what her fortunes might have been had she accepted Henry Cromwell's suit. Dorothy describes how she passes her time, and says that it is "what I am likely to do these seven years if I stay here so long." She rises "reasonably early," goes round the house till she is "weary of that," and then into the garden till it grows too hot. At ten she "makes herself ready," and then to her father's chamber, and then to dinner, "where my cousin Molle and I sit in great state in a room and at a table that would hold a great many more," and after dinner there is talk, and in the heat of the day reading or working. About six or seven she goes out for a walk

"into a common that lies hard by the house where a great many young wenches keep sheep and cows and sit in the shade singing of ballads. I go to them and compare their voices and beauties to some ancient shepherdesses I have read of, and find a vast difference there; but, trust me, I think these are as innocent as those could be. I talk to them and find they want nothing to make them the happiest people in the world but the knowledge that they are so. Most commonly when we are in the midst of our discourse, one looks about her, and spies her cows going into the corn, and then away they all run as if they had wings at their heels. I, that am not so nimble, stay behind; and when I see them driving home their cattle, I think 'tis time for me to return too. When I have supped I go into the garden and so to the side of a small river that runs by it, where I sit down and wish you were with me (you had best say this is not kind neither). In earnest 'tis a pleasant place, and would be much more so to me if I had your company. I sit there sometimes till I am lost with thinking; and were it not for some cruel thoughts of the crossness of our fortunes that will not let me sleep there I should forget that there were such a thing to be done as going to bed."

It is not often that Dorothy is so prettily sentimental as this, but it must be granted that this is charming writing. Her books were the romances of the time, 'Cyrus' and the rest of them in as many volumes as a standard history nowadays, and she discusses the characters with her own lover in a demure way that provokes a smile. The books of the day, too, she read, among them Lady Newcastle's poems. "For God's sake, if you meet with it"—this "book of poems newly come out, made by my Lady Newcastle"—"send it to me; they say 'tis ten times more extravagant than her dress." She had a pure taste in diction, too, and is very contemptuous of Lord Broghill for using *concern* instead of concernment, and she objects to *extreme* instead of *extremity*, and as for *wellness* and *unwellness* she professes not to know what they mean. She was clearly a well-educated lady of the period.

There were neighbors, too (among them Sir Samuel Luke, the original of Hudibras), and visitors at Chicksands, and she has a feminine interest in describing them; or she goes to make calls about the country and comes home with similar materials for a letter. These passages are very characteristic, marked by keen observation, and the portraits drawn, though touched with caricature, are among the most entertaining matters in the volume. Here is a young husband whose lady Dorothy went to call upon when he brought her down to the country; she had known him "so handsome, so capable of being made a pretty gentleman," and now he "was transformed into the direct shape of a great boy newly come from school. To see him wholly taken up with running on errands for his wife and teaching her little dog tricks! And this was the best of him; for when he was at leisure to talk he would suffer no one else to do it, and what he said and the noise he made, if you had heard it, you would have concluded him drunk with joy that he had a wife and a pack of hounds. I was so weary on't that I made haste home." There is a lively sketch of a widow "broke loose from an old miserable husband that lived so long she thinks if she does not make haste she shall not have time to spend what he left. She is old and was never handsome, and yet is courted a thousand times more than the greatest beauty in the world would be that had not a fortune. We could not eat in quiet for the letters and presents that came in from people that would not have looked upon her when they had met her if she had been left poor. I could not but laugh to myself at the meanness of their humour, and was merry enough all day, for the company was very good."

Dorothy had a keen eye for this perpetual comedy of human nature, and she draws us

more than one of those ridiculous persons whom we know like our Molière. Occasionally she goes outside of her circle of observation into the field of common report, and sketches the characters of the fashionable world; but we have room only for one more extract of this nature. It shall be about Lady Isabella Rich, daughter of the Lord Holland beheaded a few years before, and sister of Dorothy's friend, Lady Diana, who seems to have been of a sweet and winning nature :

"But my Lady Isabella that speaks and looks and sings and plays, and all so prettily, why cannot I say she is as free from faults as her sister believes her? No; I am afraid she is not, and sorry that those she has are so generally known. My brother did not bring them for an example; but I did, and made him confess she had better have married a beggar than that beast with all his estate. She cannot be excused; but certainly they run a strange hazard that have such husbands as makes them think they cannot be more undone whatever course they take. Oh 'tis ten thousand pities! I remember she was the first woman that ever I took notice of for extremely handsome; and in earnest she was then the loveliest lady that could be looked on, I think. But what should she do with beauty now? Were I as she I should hide myself from all the world."

These scenes and characters from contemporary life, however, should not lead us from the fact that the substance of the correspondence is the trials of the two lovers, though, as love is rather the spirit than the matter of the letters, it is more difficult to give an impression of this side of the volume. Temple seems to have been an ardent lover and an anxious one, and there is much protesting on Dorothy's part to meet his doubts and fears. She describes receiving a letter from him, however, in such a spirited way that it should relieve any lover's mind, but there is no space left for the passage. She writes often of their "crossed fortune," and at one period there is very great despondency, so that she urges that he abandon the suit and that they both go their several ways to the lot of all the world. She speaks of the beginning of their affection.

"Can I remember how ignorantly and innocently I suffered it to steal upon me by degrees; how, under the mask of friendship, I cozened myself into that which, had it appeared to me in its true shape, I had feared and shunned? Can I discern that it has made the trouble of your life and cast a cloud upon mine that will help to cover me in my grave? Can I know that it wrought so upon us both as to make neither of us friends to one another, but agree in running wildly to our own destruction, and that perhaps of some innocent persons who might live to curse our folly that gave them so miserable a being? Ah! if you love yourself or me, you must confess that I have reason to condemn this senseless passion."

And so she goes on through several letters, in a strain of intensity and seriousness that shows the genuine suffering. But the clouds broke away under Temple's influence, and they determined to stand to their hopes. When Dorothy's father died, she left Chicksands and made visits about the country and in town. London evidently wears the Puritan yoke more lightly than at first, and in the correspondence which, under somewhat greater inconveniences of exchanging letters, kept on, we get a few features of the city, a visit to old Lilly and "the execution of the Portugals," with the rest. It was not many months now before the alliance was finally arranged, Sir John Temple at last consenting to the desire of his son, who had also done some rejecting of advantageous marriage on his side, and the relatives of Dorothy, even to the jealous brother who had denied "honor and religion" to Temple, joining in the negotiation for the settlement. The Temples wished to leave this graceless enemy out, but Dorothy insisted that he should appear formally. The remainder of their lives was passed with distinction and honor, and there is no sign but that the marriage, for which they had waited seven years, was a happy one. They were unfortunate in losing their children —one of them, who was for a few days King William's secretary, under strange circumstances. A letter referring to his suicide closes the correspondence, and shows in Dorothy the same firm spirit that breathes in her earlier writing. As a record of a few years of a young woman's life in England in the middle of the seventeenth century, and of the contemporary social spirit, the collection has a high value, and it is in itself an addition of mark to the list of English biography. The editing has been performed with the utmost fidelity and thoroughness, with excellent judgment. It was a labor of love, and the devotion of the editor to Dorothy's memory has a personal touch which adds to the charm of the work.

SOLOMON MAIMON.

Solomon Maimon: An Autobiography. Translated from the German, with Additions and Notes. By J. Clark Murray, LL.D., F.R.S.C. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.

It was a happy chance that led Prof. Murray of McGill College, Montreal, to glance over the shelves of a second-hand bookstore in Toronto; for he was attracted by a little volume entitled 'S. Maimon's Lebensgeschichte,' whose translation will serve to acquaint English and American readers with a veritable Jewish Rousseau—at least his autobiography possesses in many respects the fascination of Rousseau's 'Confessions,' however dissimilar the authors in character and disposition. It is, indeed, surprising that so little is known in English of Maimon—an important figure among Kant's contemporaries, and, according to Kant himself (in a letter to Marcus Herz), one of the keenest and most prominent of his opponents. German writers devote some attention to him, Kuno Fischer in particular (in his 'History of Recent Philosophy'), while Erdmann and Ed. Zeller recognize the merits of a thinker for whose intellect Fichte confessed "eine grenzenlose Hochachtung" (boundless esteem). It was reserved for the author of 'Daniel Deronda,' who in that book shows a fair acquaintance with Jewish literature, to refer to "that wonderful bit of autobiography—the life of the Polish Jew, Solomon Maimon," and to immortalize the name of Maimon's friend, Moses Lapidoth, in her Jewish heroine, Mirah Lapidoth.

The story of Maimon's life is a night-piece from the latter half of the eighteenth century —a record of want, beggary, wandering, illumined by an indomitable zeal for knowledge. His efforts to emerge from his Polish-Jewish environment—his struggles to attain recognition in the world of letters—are not without their parallel in the history of literature, but it is rare to meet such a saddened experience, such long-continued misery, described in a style so naïf that it reminds one of Montaigne in his most confiding mood. There are passages not a few which suggest, too, Heine's picturesque irony; but there is little humor to relieve the gloomy narrative, which is an historical picture of Jewish life in Poland and parts of Germany a century ago.

Maimon was born in Lithuanian Poland in 1754, where his grandfather leased an estate from Prince Radzivil, but was so careless in his domestic economy that he was robbed on all sides. Maimon's father introduced a little more order, and trading with Koenigsberg in Prussia provided the household with tin and brass utensils. "We began," writes Maimon, "to have better meals, to wear finer clothes than before; I was even clad in damask." Following the old-time Jewish system of education, he was taught the Bible in his sixth year, and thus relates his first difficulties:

"In my sixth year my father began to read the Bible with me. 'In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth.' Here I interrupted my father and asked: 'But, papa, who created God?' 'God was not created by any one,' replied my father; 'He existed from all eternity.' 'Did He exist ten years ago?' I asked again. 'O yes,' my father said, 'He existed even a hundred years ago.' 'Then, perhaps,' I continued, 'God is already a thousand years old?' 'Silence! God was eternal.' 'But,' I insisted, 'He must surely have been born at some time.' 'You little fool,' said my father. 'No! He was for ever and ever and ever.'"

Not a very promising beginning for a young theologian, and Maimon soon developed an uncomfortable desire for wider knowledge than the traditional training. He was forbidden to read any books except the Talmud; but in his father's absence he made a raid upon the cupboard in his parent's study, and alighted upon some Hebrew books, histories, and astronomical works.

"As I was still a child, and the beds in my father's house were few, I was allowed to sleep with my old grandmother, whose bed stood in the above-mentioned study. As I was obliged during the day to occupy myself solely with the study of the Talmud, and durst not take another book in my hand, I devoted the evenings to my astronomical inquiries. Accordingly, after my grandmother had gone to bed, I put some fresh wood on the fire and took out my beloved astronomical book. My grandmother, indeed, scolded me, because it was too cold for the old lady to lie alone in bed, but I did not trouble myself about that, and continued my study till the fire was burnt out."

The even current of Maimon's childhood was soon disturbed by the loss of his grandfather's property, which set the family adrift. In their new abode, he was sent to a Talmudic school, and in his eleventh year was married, after the custom of his time. His married life was not a happy one. "I stood not only under the slipper of my wife, but—what was worse—under the lash of my mother-in-law." It must have been a painful relaxation, judging by the labor involved, to study Latin, Greek, and German, and turn for further knowledge to the Kabbala. His scepticism began to bud, and he and his friend Moses Lapidoth soon earned unsavory reputations as independent thinkers. After some experience as tutor he journeyed to Koenigsberg, Stettin, and Berlin, resolved to extend his knowledge of men and the sciences. This was in his twenty-fifth year, and he admits that he was far from presentable, with a "tolerably stiff beard, in tattered, dirty clothes," and with a language a mixture of Hebrew, Jewish German, Polish, and Russian. He was refused permission to stay in Berlin, and his deepest stage of misery which followed is described with some minuteness, as well as the story of his deliverance at the hands of a charitable rabbi, who recognized Maimon's learning and offered him shelter. But Maimon's restlessness had become chronic. He soon tired of the monotonous village life, and again set out for Berlin. How he found Wolf's 'Metaphysics' in a butter-shop, paid two groschen for the treasure, and wrote a treatise in Hebrew against the "foundations of revealed as well as of natural theology," is narrated in a chapter which introduces the reader to Moses Mendelssohn.

"I sent this dissertation to Mendelssohn, who was not a little amazed that a Polish Jew, who had scarcely got the length of seeing the Metaphysics of Wolff, was already able to penetrate

into their depths so far that he was in a position to shake their results by means of a correct Ontology. He invited me to visit him and I accepted his invitation. But I was so shy, the manners and customs of the Berliners were so new to me, it was not without fear and embarrassment that I ventured to enter a fashionable house. When, therefore, I opened Mendelssohn's door, and saw him and other gentle folks who were there, as well as the beautiful rooms and elegant furniture, I shrank back, closed the door again, and had a mind not to go in. Mendelssohn, however, had observed me. He came out and spoke to me very kindly, led me into his room, placed himself beside me at the window, and paid me many compliments about my writing."

It was not long before Maimon's careless manner of living made Mendelssohn and other friends dissatisfied, and Maimon again became the wanderer, visiting Hamburg and Amsterdam, in which place he was on the point of drowning himself, but overcame the desire. He abandoned Holland, because he discovered that "the main desire of the Dutch Jews is to make money; and they manifest no particular liking for the sciences." Returning to Hamburg, he offered to become a convert to Christianity, but he was told by a Christian clergyman, to whom he had stated at length his reasons for conversion, that he was too much of a philosopher to prove a good Christian. For two years he studied at the gymnasium, his favorite branches being philosophy and mathematics, and then the old restlessness reasserted itself. He forsook Hamburg, dwelt a while in Berlin, and settled at Breslau for a longer period, where he was visited by his wife, from whom he had been separated for so many years. She returned to Poland, with his son, after being legally divorced.

The last chapter in the Autobiography tells of the fourth journey to Berlin, his study of Kant's works—at first being a warm adherent, and later a keen critic—and finally throws light on his literary activity in that capital. Fortune at last began to smile on the wanderer: a Silesian nobleman, Count Kalkreuth, who had formed a high opinion of his writings, offered him a home, which was gladly accepted. Maimon, however, enjoyed rest for a few years only, dying November 22, 1800. The kindly village clergyman who visited him the day before his death, gives a pathetic account of a conversation with the philosopher, who remarked: "Ah me! I have been a foolish man, the most foolish among the most foolish —and how earnestly I wished it otherwise."

Prof. Murray has done English literature a service by enriching it with this autobiography, which is quotable throughout, and presents many striking and suggestive passages. He is the reverse of harsh in his estimate of Maimon, and inclined to extenuate those lamentable defects of temper and mind which made him one of the many who are called, not chosen. He has these good words to say for Maimon's character:

"It is noteworthy that with all the unrestrained rudeness which often characterized his manners, Maimon was not without a certain dignified courtesy; and when the occasion demanded it he could turn a polite phrase as prettily as the most accomplished gentleman. There was, moreover, in Maimon an intrinsic shyness which must have gone a long way to soften the less amiable side of his social character. Then it is evident that his conversation, in his better moods at least, had a charm which made him a welcome guest in any company. Thus, amid all that may have been repulsive at times, there must have been in Maimon's character a good deal to attract the friendly companionship of others."

Prof. Murray would have added appreciably to the value of his book by appending a chapter on Maimon's philosophy and his relation to Kant and Fichte. The subject has been fairly treated by Dr. Witte in a *brochure* which Prof. Murray has overlooked ('Salomon Maimon, von Dr. J. H. Witte. Berlin: H. R. Mecklenburg.' 1876). The omission of an index is unpardonable. The English transliteration of Hebrew and foreign terms is not always happy.

Report of a Commissary of Subsistence, 1861-5. By H. C. Symonds, formerly Major and C. S. U. S. A. Sing Sing, N. Y.: Published by the Author.

It is a misnomer to call this volume 'Report of a Commissary of Subsistence.' 'Recollections of a Commissary' would be a more suitable title. The work is desultory, and while it contains some of the official correspondence and some formal statistics of a commissary of subsistence, it contains also many of the commissary's recollections of matters in no way connected with his branch of the public service. The author is a graduate of the U. S. Military Academy, and was an officer of the regular army until he resigned in 1865. Able, industrious, conscientious, and sensitive, Major Symonds left the service with a grievance, which he sets forth in his book. It is easy to see, now that the blinding heat of zeal and loyalty has somewhat subsided, that his discomfiture in the particular matter he suffered from was inevitable. He undertook (in 1864) the dangerous task of controlling (to borrow the *mot*) the product of the *pen*. That is to say, to protect the Government from extortion in its purchase of pork for the army, he, with proper authority, set up a Government pork-packing establishment in Louisville. He might have known that that would be more than the patriots who were fighting in the rear of the army (for money) could endure. With the aid of some newspapers and politicians, they made a raid upon the audacious innovator who wanted to buy pork for the soldiers at something less than $50 a barrel. The worst of it was that Major Symonds's superior officers, who had forced him into the business, failed to stand by him. He says: "When I needed support, they withheld it. It was long after I had fled from the service that I first thought I had discovered the true inwardness of that whole hog business. I now have no doubt that it was a well-conceived scheme to bulldoze Kentucky and Indiana in the coming Presidential election [1864], and I appear to have been the only victim."

It was a stormy period, but it has all passed away, and, so far from injuring Major Symonds's reputation, it is safe to say that not one in a million knows that he was abused, and probably all who read of the affair hereafter will see that Major Symonds was not only honest, but was absolutely true to his trust and calling. Nevertheless, he had cause for discontent. He was maligned by speculators and adventurers, and his valuable services were in no way rewarded by the Government. On the contrary, he says that when a bill passed Congress in 1865 authorizing the addition of five or six colonels to his corps, he was especially recommended by the chief of the corps for one of them, but "the Secretary of War read, tore up the paper, and, throwing the pieces down, said, with a round oath, that I should never have anything so long as he could control it." That is enough to account for Major Symonds's resignation, and for the bitterness that marks his little book. It fixed the key upon which his song is pitched. In his view, "the call for 75,000 troops" (April, 1861), instead of attesting the loyalty and patriotism of the people, demonstrated "that there was profit in loyalty, and the accession of patriots and plunderers to the ranks of the Administration was overwhelming." He lived in what he aptly calls "the opiated atmosphere that is generally provided for those who spend other people's money."

But, apart from its tone and cynicism, the book throws valuable side-lights upon some important questions of history. Major Symonds says that he had a visit in Louisville from an old schoolmate, who had just come from the Altoona Conference of Northern Governors, and was on his way to Springfield, Illinois. Major Symonds called this schoolmate's attention to the fact that he had seen in the *New York Times* several extracts from rural papers thrusting at McClellan, and asked if there "was any method in it." His friend, after considerable hesitation, said there was, "that it had been decided that McClellan must go" (this, it should be remembered, was as early as July, 1862); that the Democrats had determined upon running McClellan in 1864, and that they, the Republicans, did not propose to supply the ammunition; that I might as well know it so that I could govern myself accordingly." This is testimony upon an interesting point in history.

Major Symonds served in Louisville under Generals Anderson, Sherman, Buell, and Rosecrans in 1861-62; indeed, he remained on duty there until 1865. Speaking of General Buell's return to Louisville, about the last of September, 1862, his reorganization of his army, and his prompt advance against Bragg, Major Symonds says:

"Personally I had not been an ardent admirer of Buell, although I fully recognized and respected his military virtues. It may have been that I had no such inducement as the lamb had to love Mary. But on this occasion he showed as grand qualities of fitness for chief command as had ever come within my knowledge by reading or observation. And from all the information I received, and I received a good deal that has not been written, or, if written, has been presented in so gingerly a manner as to carry erroneous convictions, I believe that had his orders been executed with subordination to duty and loyalty to military service, he would have redeemed the disasters in the East by victory in the West. By the displacement of General D. C. Buell the country lost the services of the best general I had thus far encountered in the war; in fact, he was the only one who had those qualities I had thought necessary for high command."

Major Symonds's testimony concerning General Sherman's great campaign, which began May 1, 1864, and extended from Chattanooga to Atlanta, and thence "to the sea," contains something new. He was in charge of the Subsistence Department at Louisville, the base of supplies, and General Robert Allen was in charge of the Quartermaster's Department at the same point. Major Symonds says:

"One morning during Christmas week of 1863, Col. C. B. Comstock, of General Grant's Staff, came to my office. . . . He stated that General Sherman was to start on the 1st of May following from Chattanooga with 105,000 effective men and 30,000 civil employees; that I was charged with the subsistence of that army, and would be held responsible for that part of the work, . . . and that only General Allen and myself would know the details, otherwise than at the headquarters of General Grant and of General Sherman; that if any knowledge reached the public, one of us would be considered responsible; that I must put nothing on paper in my office or in my correspondence by which the plans or the purpose of the campaign could be disclosed; that he, Porter, or Babcock would stop in and see me from time to time, when, if I had any complaints to make or orders to request, I would state the matter orally to either one, and it would be attended to. He told me General Grant was to make at the same time a forward movement with the army of the Potomac. I asked him whose plans these were, and he replied 'General Grant's.' I asked, 'What after Atlanta?' and he replied,

'Savannah if we can, Mobile if we must.' He took his hat and left. *These were orders.* I obeyed them with the fidelity of a sacred obligation, and, so far as I know or believe, no one but General Allen and myself did know of them. It is hardly possible that the Commissary-General himself could have known of them, and I do not believe that they were known to the Secretary of War. . . . At the beginning, General Allen and myself were made by General Grant an integral part of the campaign, and we were charged with its logistics, in order that General Sherman should be free to do only with its strategy. How well he did his part, a great deal of the history of the war has been made to tell. How well we did our part, is only known in the glory he achieved and the rewards that were bestowed upon his immediate entourage. If we had failed in any respect, it would probably have been fatal to his ambition as well as to our official existence. If he had failed, it would have been entirely in order to charge the failure to the incapacity or disloyalty of one or both of us."

Therefore, Major Symonds adds, "I defiantly claim that a fair share of his success was due to work done by myself, General Allen," etc. The claim is the usual and reasonable one made in favor of the supply departments, and probably General Sherman does not dispute it. It seems to be the fate of war that glory is not measured by the real importance of services rendered, but goes wholly or mainly to the men who do the actual killing. Major Symonds, it seems, devoted himself to the important and confidential duty assigned to him by General Grant, but by August he says: "The Secretary of War had received information from General Sherman's headquarters that there was danger of his expedition failing from want of subsistence, and that the fault lay with me in Louisvllle." Thereupon the Commissary-General was sent from Washington to Louisville, and dropped in upon Major Symonds without warning to look into the matter. He immediately sent to Captain Bright, Major Symonds's subordinate, who was at Chattanooga serving rations directly to Sherman's army, a telegram saying: "Send me at once the daily average number of rations you have forwarded to General Sherman's army since the 1st of May." The reply was: "The daily average number of rations I have forwarded to General Sherman's army since the 1st of May is 412,000." This, says Major Symonds, "was more than three rations a day to every mouth that left Chattanooga on that campaign, and yet they were crying for more and 'living off the country.'" Major Symonds continues: "I do not desire to appear in the light of a critic of General Sherman's strategy in that campaign, nor would I pluck one laurel leaf from the crown he so ably won. . . . Fortunately, Hood stepped aside and gave them the way they wanted, and with abundant supplies they were enabled to start for the sea with the least possible delay."

Major Symonds's object is not to detract from fighting men or commanders, but to set forth the claims of what he calls the "working officer" of the supply departments. He appears to be correct in his conclusion that their rewards are small in proportion to their merits and services, and his injunction to young soldiers is, "Avoid a staff appointment in time of war."

Struggles for Life. By William Knighton, LL.D., Vice-President Royal Society of Literature, etc. London: Williams & Norgate. 1888. 3d ed., revised, 12mo, pp. 289.

THE subject of this book is an important one, and the author, who is already known by other works, mostly on life in the East, has an easy style and a quick eye for taking facts, and his sympathies are ready for every form of suffering. But that is the most that can be said. He had probably some vague moral purpose in writing, and the statement on the title-page that this is the third edition shows that he has caught something of the public attention; and yet it is hard to see what he meant to teach, or indeed why the book should have been written at all. Mr. Knighton tells over in a hasty and miscellaneous way the old story of the various horrors that humanity has gone through. The suffering of modern English paupers, primitive barbarism, Roman persecution and Indian Thuggism, the Spanish abuse of the Caribs, the persecution of the Albigenses, the tortures of the Inquisition, Greek slavery, the horrors of the middle passage, feudal ferocity, the plague, the ballet, the *droit de cuisse*, the *Pall Mall Gazette* scandal, the Berlin trial of the Artist Gräf and his nude model, human sacrifices, Jewish wars, Tartar invasions, Turkish conquests, our savage treatment of Indian tribes, and a vast number of other brutalities are hastily recounted, with no evident order or argument. Mr. Knighton does not intend to cater to any low instincts, and yet his narrative has not a little of that ghastly attraction which the "police" newspapers have for the average man. There is in most of us something of the savage love of suffering, a craving to sup full of horrors, which might not be sated by twice the number of details Mr. Knighton gives us. In spite of all that modern humanitarianism can do, this cruel instinct remains fixed in man's nature, and every now and then some warm-hearted and notoriety-loving writer appeals to it and plays upon our cruelty under the disguise of charity.

But the practical question comes up at once, What is the good of it all? Mr. Knighton has no new facts to offer. Indeed, regarded from a scientific point of view, his pessimism is one-sided in the extreme. What is the use of telling over the hideous story unless there is some conclusion to be drawn, some way pointed out to prevent the recurrence of the evils described? Mr. Knighton does not even attempt to do this. The only approach he makes to a suggestion of remedy is to urge a federation of English colonies, and suggest some form of action by ladies of social prominence in England; and it would be unjust to suppose that he could seriously expect either of these to help us much in solving the hardships of the struggle for existence. The truth is, he has made a heterogeneous collection of striking facts, but has not digested them enough to find out whether any practical conclusion can be drawn from them. Probably there is none to be drawn. Very many of his instances belong to a state of life so different from our own that it is not worth while to try to guard against them, for they cannot recur without a decay in civilization so profound that everything we hold most dear will first have gone by the board. No doubt the brutal instincts still exist even in the most civilized races, and they will occasionally break out in times of war or popular excitement. Even a change of fashion like the license just now accorded to prize-fighting may bring them to the surface; but, on the whole, the influences of civilization are strongly opposed to their manifestation. It is not so clear that the brutal instinct itself is dying out. The struggle for existence is shaping the races pretty constantly, but perhaps without doing anything more to eradicate this trait than merely keeping it out of sight; for the fertile portion of the race from which the new generations spring has a much larger proportion of violent physical energy and hot-headed passion than of gentle sentimentalism. Still, gentleness is firmly enthroned as far as outward manifestations go, and this book may give the average American some pleasure in thinking how much worse than himself most of the world has been. Severe competition and great contrast of wealth and poverty are an essential part of modern civilization, and the pressure of the struggle for existence is, on the whole, a good thing. Books of this kind, which dwell exclusively on its brutal side, without having any remedy to offer, are mischievous, no matter how philanthropic the author's intentions may be.

"*The Fighting Veres*": Lives of Sir Francis Vere, General of the Queen's Forces in the Low Countries, Governor of the Brill and of Portsmouth, and of Sir Horace Vere, General of the English Forces in the Low Countries, Governor of the Brill, Master-General of Ordnance, and Baron Vere of Tilbury. By Clements R. Markham. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888. 8vo, pp. 508.

THE name of Sir Francis Vere is a striking reminder how empty and evanescent a thing is fame. He was, says Mr. Markham, "the first great English general in modern history. He founded a school which was further developed by his brother Horace. In that school were formed those distinguished leaders who fought out the war between Charles I. and the Parliament of England." Yet he is not mentioned by Mr. Green in his 'Short History of the English People,' and only once incidentally by Mr. Gardiner in his 'History of England.' Mr. Markham adds: "In the same school were formed those military advisers who accompanied the lovers of freedom to colonize America. The posterity of both the great branches of the English folk, of that in America as of that in the old country, ought therefore to know the story of the 'Fighting Veres.'" But the American Cyclopædia does not contain his name, nor does Bancroft's History, although we are told by Mr. Markham (p. 388) that "Miles Standish had been educated in the school of the Veres."

In truth, Sir F. Vere's career is so identified with the war in the Netherlands that both the English and American historians forget to notice that it also stands in near relation to the history of their countries. In Motley's pages he is, of course, a conspicuous figure; but Mr. Motley, while praising his soldier-like qualities, speaks of "his inordinate self-esteem, both personal and national, and his want of true sympathy for the cause in which he fought." That he was essentially a soldier has no doubt helped to obscure his name with a generation which places emphasis rather upon the arts of peace, in reaction against the undue prominence of war in former times. Mr. Markham has done well, therefore, to revive the memory of this distinguished man in a book written especially for the American public, and to call attention directly to the connection between his subject and the early history of America. "I now venture," he says, "to submit to American readers this new attempt to supply what I believe to be a desideratum in their national history. The proclamation of Queen Elizabeth in 1585 was the forerunner of the Declaration of American Independence. The lives of Sir Francis and Sir Horace Vere include events which aroused the spirit of American colonization." He has, we think, made too large a book of it. It contains a great deal of detail which is really unimportant, and detracts from its interest by withdrawing attention from the great current of events.

Mr. Markham undertakes, as is natural, to vindicate his hero against Mr. Motley's strictures—chiefly in the account of the battle of

Nieuport, also upon other occasions. It is not possible to weigh the argument pro and con with perfect fairness, because Mr. Motley is no longer able to make a rejoinder. So far as one can judge from the evidence placed before us, the defence is complete. It is fair, also, to cite in full Mr. Markham's opinion of Sir Francis Vere's writings, containing his account of the military events in which he participated; his judgment, it will be seen, is directly opposite to that of Mr. Motley, cited above. He suspects, by the way, that Mr. Motley never read the writings in question, except in "an incomplete French abridgment" (p. 303).

"To one who has also read his letters and despatches written on the spot, and the letters of others describing the same events, the most striking feature of these Notes is their accuracy. With the exception of discrepancies in numbers of men or guns—and even these are of rare occurrence—the agreement of the Notes, written from memory long after, with narratives prepared at the time, is very remarkable. Another point worthy of remark is the proof afforded by the Notes of the modesty and absence of self-assertion in Vere's public despatches" (p. 358).

We must say, too, that the general tenor of the narrative appears to contradict Mr. Motley's charge that he lacked sympathy with the cause in which he fought.

It seems at first sight as if Sir Francis Vere received disproportionate attention in this volume, his younger brother, Sir Horace, having nominally less than a hundred pages out of 460. But it must be remembered that he was for several years associated with his elder brother, whom he survived. The book is very handsomely printed, and contains, besides portraits of the two brothers, a number of excellent maps and plans.

The Poetry of the Future. By James Wood Davidson. New York: John B. Alden. 1888.

THIS rather snappish little essay shows the singularly annoying influence which English prosody seems to have upon the minds of those who discuss it. The writer has set himself to a thorough reform of what he regards as the height of the learned folly of grammarians, and has reduced our prosody to no more than four feet, of which the principal are the iamb and the anapæst. Trochees, spondees, dactyls, amphibrachs, etc., he discards altogether. This is but the beginning of his iconoclasm, and he proceeds to demolish stanzaic and metrical divisions and the childishness of rhyme without more ado; the "poetry of the future"—alias "Walt Whitman and Adah Menken"—will not have them. To show that he is right, Mr. Davidson scans many passages on his new system, to which there can be no objection, since he gains in unity and simplicity in several instances and the arbitrary element in scansion has long been recognized. When he further rewrites our poems, however, in the paragraphic way of Walt Whitman and Adah Menken, truly he treats them "as gypsies do stolen children." He "deforms" them with a vengeance. The fact of the matter is, that he regards verse purely from the point of view of an elocutionist. Elocution is his fetish; the stresses of the elocutionist are prosody, his pauses make line and stanza, and his convenience is the Apollo-measure to which all the Muses must dance.

Mr. Davidson is, of course, a disciple of Poe, but he has left that pioneer far behind. Like his leader, he has great contempt for Longfellow's hexameters, and perhaps more for his Hiawathan trochees, which he characterizes as "humpty-dumpty with a perceptible tendency to the higgledy-piggledy"; and he corrects Milton, as if the poet were a truant schoolboy, but in such a way as shows the one to be the schoolmaster and the other the poet. These defects of temper and taste are the worst thing in the little volume, which, with its Swedenborgianism, its Poelsm, its Walt-Whitman-and-Adah-Menken-ism, and its heroic wrath at old Murray, is a more idiosyncratic work than one is likely to meet with in a twelvemonth. The author is well read in his subject, and he writes as well as he has read; but "the poetry of the future" which he is so sure about, with its elocutionary god, is, under favor, only the buzzing of his prosodical bee in his bonnet.

William Shakespeare Portrayed by Himself. A Revelation of the Poet in the Career and Character of one of his own Dramatic Heroes. By Robert Waters. Worthington Co.

THE temptation to satisfy curiosity about Shakspere's personal character seems able to be resisted only by the soundest and most learned of Shakspere scholars. The issue of some book written to tell us more than any one knows about the poet, is so regular an occurrence that one could almost make a law of it, as of some facts in sociology. It is a disease, such as Mr. Furness lately called the Baconian theory, that attacks the tyro, like the measles—an incident of literary childhood. In the present case the character chosen by Shakspere to unlock his heart in is said to be *Prince Hal;* and a long discourse, with liberal extracts from "Henry IV.," is written out, for the purpose of paralleling the remarks of the scapegrace Prince with Shakspere's supposed history and temperament. The argument fills a volume of considerable size, and at the end one is just as wise as before. The last pages are occupied with an attack on Donnelly's revelations, such as was to be expected from one who found Shakspere in so attractive a character as the young Prince. But in such speculation every man may have his will.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, Grant. In All Shades; A Novel. Chicago Rand, McNally & Co.
Amory, T. C. Charles River: A Poem. Cambridge, Mass.
Bates, A. The Pagans. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 50 cents.
Blatherwick, C. Uncle Pierce: A Novel. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Bray, Rev. H. T. Essays on God and Man. Booneville, Mo.: The Author. $2.
Chadwick, J. W. A Book of Poems. 8th ed. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Crawford, J. M. The Kalevala, the Epic Poem of Finland. 2 vols. John B. Alden.
Evans, T. C. Of Many Men. American News Co.
Ginn, E. Selections from Ruskin. Boston: Ginn & Co. 40 cents.
Gizycki, Prof. G. von. Kant und Schopenhauer. Leipzig: Wilhelm Friedrich.
Grant, R. Jack in the Bush; or, A Summer on a Salmon River. Boston: Jordan, Marsh & Co.
Hinman, R. Eclectic Physical Geography. Cincinnati: Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co. $1.
Hugo, V. The Toilers of the Sea. 2 vols.—Notre Dame de Paris. 2 vols. Translated by Isabel F. Hapgood. Thos. Y. Crowell & Co.
Lockwood, S. Animal Memoirs. Part I. Mammals. Ivison, Blakeman & Co.
Lowndes, Cecilia S. Both Sides of the River: A Tale. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1.50.
Mayhew and Skeat. Concise Dictionary of Middle English, 1150–1580. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.90.
McClellan, Lt.-Col. C. The Personal Memoirs and Military History of U. S. Grant *vs.* the Record of the Army of the Potomac. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.75.
Meredith, G. Evan Harrington: A Novel. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Monthaye, Capt. E. Krupp and De Bange. New York: Thos. Prosser & Son.
Nield, T. The Human Brotherhood: Two Poems. Indianapolis: The Church at Work Pub. Co. 75 cents.
Norton, C. B. The President and His Cabinet. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.
Oswald, E. J. The Dragon of the North: A Tale of the Normans in Italy. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1.50.
Otis, J. Little Joe. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.
Ragozin, Z. A. The Story of Media, Babylon, and Persia. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Roe, E. K. God Reigns: Lay Sermons. Chicago: Laird & Lee.
Roe, E. R. From the Beaten Path: A Novel. Chicago: Laird & Lee.
Rolfe, W. J. and J. C. Macaulay's Lays of Ancient Rome. Harper & Bros.
Ruben, E. The Path to Fame. New York: O. Lauckner.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 13, 1888.

The Week.

We can recall no Presidential campaign since slavery was abolished that has been marked by such abnegations of manhood in the higher counsels of the nation as the present. The passage of the anti-Chinese bill in the Senate with only three dissenting votes, after a message had been received from the President saying that the treaty had not been rejected by the Chinese Government, but only held for further consideration, caps the climax. When this message was received, Mr. Stewart of Nevada wanted to know if we were going to put up with an affront like that. Held for consideration! Just Heaven! was such insolence ever heard of? Here was a treaty that had been in the hands of the Chinese authorities a whole week, perhaps even ten days. Not ratified yet? Let us teach these red dragons a lesson in punctuality. There is a commercial treaty lying around loose in Washington—a treaty with Mexico, we believe—that has been held for consideration about four years, and is not yet finally acted upon. Yet we are going to teach the world that treaties are made to be approved or disapproved at the drop of the hat. And the whole Senate, except a minority too small to be counted, voted with Stewart of Nevada. The Senator who sinned most against the light was Mr. Dawes of Massachusetts, the friend of the red man. The Senator who showed most manliness was Mr. Gorman of Maryland—a wonderful see-saw indeed. We owe it to Mr. Gorman that there is still a chance to save some remnant of self-respect out of this fearful degradation.

The Republicans have carried Maine by about the same majority as they had in 1884. Mr. Blaine telegraphs that "it is not simply a great victory, it is almost a political revolution." The *Tribune* says, "Never was there a more certain harbinger of victory all along the line in November." Something very like this happened four years ago, as the following parallel from the *Tribune's* editorial columns of then and now will show:

TRIBUNE, SEPT. 11, 1884.

The news from Maine grows better and better. The Republicans of that State have achieved what Mr. Blaine has justly called "an unparalleled triumph." . . . Well done, Maine! *The defeat of Cleveland is writ large in what she accomplished on Monday.*

TRIBUNE, SEPT. 11, 1888.

The verdict of Maine is a magnificent response to the victories in Vermont, Oregon, and Rhode Island. . . . Free trade and truckling to Canadian interests have found no favor in Maine, whose right to the motto "Dirigo" can no longer be challenged. *Never was there a more certain harbinger of victory all along the line in November.*

We are free to say that we think the *Tribune's* interpretation of the returns is as nearly accurate now as it was four years ago. To our mind the figures simply show that party lines in Maine remain substantially as they were in the last Presidential campaign. This may rejoice the Republicans, and it may not. It may show several things, but the fact which it discloses most plainly is that there is no "cyclone of fear" among the Democratic voters; and we have the authority of so eminent a Republican leader as Mr. Chauncey M. Depew that unless there be such a cyclone, there will be small chance of Republican success in November.

Gen. Harrison's letter of acceptance, as the effort of a man in middle life to deal with a complicated subject to which he has never given any attention, and which is forced on his consideration by circumstances, deserves respectful treatment. It is, however, difficult to criticise it at all without seeming to be uncivil, because any criticism of it will seem rather an examination of Gen. Harrison's mental equipment than of his political economy. Political economy he cannot be said to have. His views about the tariff are the commonplaces which a busy lawyer has probably picked up in conversation or inherited. It is clear enough that he has not studied the question at all. The probabilities seem to be that his mind is as unfitted for such study as that of some men is for the study of mathematics. For instance, what most troubles him in the Mills bill is not "the length of the step" which he thinks this bill makes, but "the direction of it." That is, he does not see what great harm it will do *per se*, but what alarms him is, that he thinks it will lead to a "placing of the tariff laws on a purely revenue basis," or "practical free trade—free trade in the English sense." But it must be apparent, even to a child, that if the Mills bill produces the dreadful effects on trade and industry which its opponents say it will, no other step in the direction of free trade will ever be made. The country will be satisfied with the result of the experiment. The old duties will be restored, and the revenue reformers and "the British free-traders" brought to confusion. So that it is the length of the step, and not the direction, which is really the important thing.

Behind this little logical slip, there is evidently that feeling about the sacredness of the tariff as a valuable national possession, rather than as a form of taxation, which one meets with all over the country among persons who have not given much attention to economical questions—the feeling that the tariff is—like the Gospel, or like education, or like chastisement by a loving parent—something good for people whether they like it or not, or want it or not. To Gen. Harrison, apparently, a country which lowered its tariff, or got rid of it, would be like a country which had relapsed into heathenism, or had plunged into debauchery through the teachings of wicked men. He reproves, for instance, "those who teach that the import duty on foreign goods sold in our market is paid by the consumer," not so much because what they say is not true, as because "it discredits in the minds of others our system of levying duties on competing foreign products." In other words, it strikes him as one of "Bob" Ingersoll's lectures, or derision of the Scriptures, strikes a pious and moral man. This state of mind is interesting, but it is psychologically rather than economically interesting. Gen. Harrison's refusal to "stop to refute this theory as to the effect of our tariff duties," on the ground that those who advance it "are students of maxims rather than of markets," we must treat with silent respect. We think he is quite right in his reserve. A letter of acceptance is hardly the place for such a discussion, and if it were, Gen. Harrison could not carry the controversy very far without a loss of dignity, because the "students of maxims" are tough customers, and he would get but little glory out of a tussle with them.

A very neat exposure of Mr. Blaine's habitual charlatanry is made by the Boston *Herald*. In his recent speech before the citizens of Eastport, Maine, Mr. Blaine congratulated them on their wonderful recuperative energy, as displayed in building anew their town after the great fire a few years ago, and informed them that they could not have done this but for the assistance which they received from the protective tariff. Having done this, says the *Herald*, Mr. Blaine proceeded to hold up for their execration the Mills bill, showing them how it invited Canadians to bring in without duty every form of timber, hewn and sawed and squared and sided. The *Herald* reminds Mr. Blaine that in the record of the Forty-ninth Congress he will find a petition, signed by the Selectmen of Eastport, and dated immediately after the fire, asking Congress to come to the relief of the stricken town, and permit all building materials to be brought in free of duty in order that the work of rebuilding might be done without the burden of protective duties. This petition was presented to Congress by that roaring protectionist, Capt. Boutelle, who accompanied it with a bill granting what the petition asked. Boutelle made a speech in its favor, in the course of which he called attention to the fact that the bill only followed the precedent which had been established when another Maine town, Portland, had been a sufferer by a great fire in 1866.

There are a great many people in a muddle-headed condition about the tariff, owing to the necessity of maintaining for campaign purposes that it enables the manufacturer both to pay high wages and to charge low prices. There is probably nobody who is more muddled on the whole question than Senator Hoar. He has just been doing some "voicing" in the New York *Tribune*, in which he on Monday delivered himself of the following sapient opinion:

"Neither is it true that the tariff increases the burden upon the necessaries of life to the working people. Not more than 15 or 20 per cent. of all the articles which a well-to-do workingman requires for use in his family consists of articles on which there is any duty at all, and of a large part of that per cent. the price of the article is as cheap in this country as it is abroad, so that the tariff does not increase it at all, while the wages of the workingmen in consequence of the tariff are from 40 to 100 per cent. higher.

"The working people of America will easily be made to see these things—indeed, they see them now—and the President's letter will be regarded by them as a feeble attempt to mislead them."

Now, if 80 per cent. of the articles consumed by the bulk of the population are not touched by the tariff, and the cost of the remaining 20 per cent. is not raised by the tariff, how in the name of common sense does the tariff enable the manufacturer to put up the wages of workingmen in this country from 40 to 100 per cent. over those paid to workingmen abroad? The tariff is not an unseen influence, like spiritual regeneration, or a tonic, like acid phosphates, to be taken internally. It does a manufacturer good by enabling him to get higher prices for his wares, and his own story is that, because he gets higher prices for his wares, he is enabled to pay higher wages. But if Senator Hoar be right, where do the higher wages come from? Not from the price, because that is about the same here as abroad. Is it possible that we are in the presence of a miracle? Were these tariff verses recited at the Tariff Convention in this city four years ago really a hymn?

"Protection, oh Protection, the joyful sound proclaim
Till each remotest nation has heard the Tariff's name!"

An amusing but very interesting explanation is offered by a United States Senator, of the reason why the Senate does not produce its tariff bill. It is neither more nor less than the very reasonable fear that, when the bill saw the light, the President would send in a message recommending its passage, for the relief of the Treasury and of commerce and industry. This, coming on top of the retaliation message, would of course be a terrible blow, and would make the position of the Republican party in the canvass even more ridiculous than it is. We say the fear is a reasonable one, because, the passage of the Mills bill being apparently impossible this session, the President would probably jump at any chance that offered of keeping down the surplus, even if the measure did not in all respects meet his views, and trust to getting something better next year, when the path of revision had once been fairly entered on. The more one thinks of it, the more extraordinary it seems that the Republicans in Congress did not in the beginning concoct a revision bill of their own, and run it in opposition to the Mills bill. Their failure to see the need of this is in fact one of the best omens of the crisis. It looks as if Providence had, after much forbearance, decided on their destruction.

James P. Foster, President of the Republican League of the United States, is still after "fat," and, judging by the breathless character of his latest appeal, the chase is getting desperate. He declares that if he can only get "fat" enough, he will show that the League is the "greatest engine of modern political warfare." If he will allow us to differ with him, we will venture the opinion that he has already made it such an engine by the production of his "Fat" circular alone. There is no such campaign document in existence as that is, and none which has had such a circulation, especially by the enemy. Foster's present scheme is for $1 subscriptions, and he offers the following powerful inducements:

"Every subscriber to this fund will receive an elegant souvenir which will be worth the money he has given, and the League will allow you to retain for the use of your club 25 per cent. of all the subscriptions you may receive.

"To every club which secures $200 before the 25th day of September the League will present an elegant silk banner, with pole, cords, etc., containing the official emblem of the League; an elegant affair which any club may be proud to possess."

Why not offer a Waterbury watch, or an Unabridged Dictionary, or a Library of Universal Knowledge in return for one-dollar subscriptions? What will be left of the dollar after the 25 per cent. reduction has been made and the "elegant souvenir" and "elegant silk banner with poles, cord, etc.," have been paid for?

We repeat that we think a good electoral law ought to make the circulation of fraudulent or forged quotations or letters, with the view of influencing votes thereby, a criminal offence. Under the law of this State at present, if Mr. H. K. Thurber were to "falsely sign the name of the officer of a corporation or of any other person to a letter, message, or other paper," or "*utter or circulate such a letter, message, or other paper*, knowing that the same has been so falsely signed," with "the intent of affecting the market price of the public funds of this State or any State," or "the market price of *any merchandise or commodity whatever*"—say, groceries—he would expose himself to a fine of $5,000 or imprisonment in the penitentiary for not more three years (N. Y. Penal Code, sec. 435). If such were the intent of the leaflet he has been circulating, he would get three years for his *Times* forgery, and be a ruined and disgraced man. But because the intent of his leaflet is not to run up the price of groceries, or of stocks and bonds, but simply to affect the action of his countrymen on a vast question of government, involving hundreds of millions of dollars, he has been allowed to go on his way and snap his fingers at the police.

The Republican outlook in Minnesota is threatening, to say the least. The farmers of the State made a formal appeal to the Republican Convention, which met last week, to adopt the following as the tariff plank of the platform:

"We protest against the doctrine of high protection, and demand a judicious and radical reduction of the present tariff. We are opposed to free whiskey and tobacco while we are compelled to pay high taxes on sugar and lumber."

This request was not granted, but instead a platform was adopted which approved the national Republican platform in one part and repudiated it in another, and a candidate for Governor was nominated who is especially obnoxious to the farming and other industrial interests of the State. Two newspapers representing these interests have bolted from the ticket, and announce their intention to support the Democratic candidate. What the ultimate result will be is, of course, uncertain. The Democrats claim that it gives them a good prospect of carrying the State, but the Republicans deny this. A most humiliating aspect of the situation is the attitude of the leading Republican newspaper of the State, the St. Paul *Pioneer-Press*. It has for years been an able advocate of tariff reform, but since the Chicago Convention it has been trying to make its readers believe that there is nothing inconsistent between its former teachings and the declarations of that platform.

By his manly and straightforward stand on the high-license question, Warner Miller is making it easy for independent voters to support him. His speech at Little Valley on Saturday was a much more explicit and courageous utterance on this point than the Republican platform's. He refused to quibble over the terms tax or license, declaring himself squarely in favor of high license, and adding: "In the coming contest I do not hesitate to say that I prefer to be beaten upon that question rather than succeed by subterfuge and double-dealing." He went on to say that the liquor interests of the State had openly and formally taken the opposite ground, and had forced the issue between themselves and the rest of the people. Their undisguised championship of Gov. Hill, and his undisguised willingness to do their bidding, have also helped to make this question the leading one of the campaign. Mr. Miller is a shrewd politician as well as an honest man. He wisely puts his tariff views out of the contest, for as Governor he would have nothing to do with that question. He stands before the people of this State as the pledged defender of orderly and honest government, and as such is the exact opposite of Gov. Hill. On that issue, every reputable voter in the State, of every party and of no party, ought to have no difficulty in deciding as to which of the two men shall have his vote.

While there is a great deal of force in the Republican taunt that no self-respecting voter can take much pleasure in supporting a party which is capable of nominating a man like "Dave" Hill for Governor, still it should be borne in mind that the Republican party has been guilty of a like offence of even larger proportions. Bad as Hill's nomination will be as a revelation of party depravity, it will not be so bad as was Blaine's nomination for the Presidency by the Republican party. We venture to hope, also, that Hill's candidacy will not involve the humiliating spectacle which Blaine's did of men of high character and correct principles taking

the stump, defending his dishonesty, and declaring that they could see nothing in his career of lying and jobbery which unfitted him for public office. Hill belongs to the same variety of statesman as Blaine, and his renomination for office will be, as Blaine's nomination was, only a fresh evidence that the working machinery of political parties, if left to itself without fear of consequences, pays small heed to moral qualifications in candidates. The only restraint, in other words, which the orderly and respectable elements in American politics can exert upon the machine-workers in either party is by uniting against every bad candidate and making his election impossible.

The *World* says that Gov. Hill's faults have been "grossly exaggerated." Well, which faults? It is not possible to have exaggerated his main fault of taking money from a contractor to pay his campaign notes. There are certain "faults" one cannot "exaggerate," and this is one of them. When a Governor of a great State connives at gross jobbery in order to make $10,000, one cannot say in palliation, as one may say of the theft of a watch, that he did it because he was hungry, or out of work, or had a sick wife, or was led astray by evil companions. Men who are elected Governors of States are supposed to have risen out of the atmosphere in which criminals plead necessity or temptation in extenuation. We are not arguing that Mr. Hill ought to go to jail, or be fined, or impeached, or subjected to any sort of penalty. We simply say that to confer on him a second time the great honor of the Governorship would be a defiance of the morality of the community such as no party in this country has ever perpetrated, except the Republican party when it nominated James G. Blaine for the Presidency. There is always something very comic in the notion that you are persecuting a man if you do not want him raised to the highest place in the State or nation.

The way in which men like Senator Blackburn go about denouncing the President's civil-service-reform policy is a striking illustration of the difficulties the President has had to contend with in carrying it out. A great many prominent Democratic politicians, like a great many prominent Republican politicians, feel about it just as Senator Blackburn does, and work against it privately, but do not, like Senator Blackburn, blurt out their feelings in public places. They are, however, like Senator Blackburn, generally elderly men, who will never get reconciled to anything but the spoils system, and will die mourning over its decline. Its complete expulsion from the public service need only be looked for from the generation which has grown up since the war. The older men like the system in which they were bred, and will not admit, even to themselves, that conditions which favored their own rise into power or eminence can really be bad.

In considering our relations with Canada, it should be borne in mind that that country is just as badly bestridden and bedevilled with the doctrine of "protection to home industry" as we are. One of the outcroppings of this sentiment, and one of the deft imitations of our own practice, has lately been disclosed in an executive order requiring the collection of duties on boxes and other coverings in which green fruit is shipped to Canada. Green fruit, plants, and bulbs were made free between the two countries by reciprocal legislation last year, and for a time things went well. But lately an order has been issued by the Canadian authorities to their customs officers to collect duties on the boxes, bags, or other coverings, just as we, after the Treaty of Washington went in force, collected duties on lobster cans, although the lobsters were admitted free of duty. It is reported that the British Minister at Washington has remonstrated with the Canadian Government against this evasion. Another bit of protectionism is the rebate of tolls allowed to Canadian vessels passing through the Welland Canal, to which President Cleveland called attention in his recent message. This is intended to protect Montreal grain-shippers. There is no excuse for this discrimination. It is a clear violation of the treaty, and it should either be stopped or the same medicine should be offered to Canada that she offers to us.

The accounts—apparently authentic—which come from Germany, touching the manners and customs of the young Emperor, are undoubtedly enough to make sober-minded people uneasy. He started the other day, at four in the morning, with an aide-de-camp, to several of the cavalry barracks in the neighborhood of Berlin, had "boots and saddles" sounded, and ordered the regiments to march promptly to a point seven miles outside the city, to which he went at full gallop and waited for them, watch in hand. His little sons, too, live in uniform, with high boots, sabres, and spurs, and their plays consist of the attack and defence of little redoubts, and military exercises under the superintendence of two or three gendarmes. These things somewhat resemble the eccentricities of the father of the Great Frederick, and are probably intended to show that the new ruler is a true Hohenzollern, but they seem sadly out of place in an industrial age, and naturally set people asking, What next? or rather, What will happen after Bismarck goes? The great preponderence given to the sovereign in the Prussian Constitution works well as long as the sovereign is a capable and prudent man, surrounded by wise counsellors; but the capable and prudent sovereigns and the wise counsellors die, and the hare-brained young fellows get their innings, and sometimes make an awful mess of it. In earlier days, when the state was made up of farmers, priests, and soldiers, and credit, and commerce, and manufactures counted for little, the brilliant young military monarchs were mischievous enough, heaven knows, but harmless compared to what they might be now if let loose among the infinite complications of modern society. The great trouble Austria had to contend with between 1848 and 1866 was, as an Austrian statesman said, that she had a "young and chivalrous Emperor," who ran on for twenty years before he had sense hammered into him, and became a sober-minded, peaceable constitutional monarch; but it took Sadowa as well as Magenta and Solferino to do it.

The British Government has just concluded a remarkable experiment in the art of naval warfare, by means of manœuvres between two divisions of the fleet, one supposed to be "the enemy" which the military men are always so dreadfully afraid of, and the other the defender of the coast. The enemy was blockaded in an Irish port, but managed to escape, and then either burned the shipping or levied contributions on all the leading ports of the kingdom, including Liverpool. In fact, if the result showed anything, it showed that it would be impossible, with any force the kingdom could muster, to prevent an active and enterprising squadron from inflicting enormous damage all along the coasts. It has brought home to the British public more clearly than ever before the very unpleasant truth that pitched battles between great fleets will be by no means the prominent or important feature of the next great naval war; that the worst of it, by far, will be the devastation wrought by cruisers, and that the strongest maritime Power in our day is really the Power which has least property afloat, and fewest unprotected seaports.

The resolution of the English Trades Union Congress in favor of "the nationalization of land" doubtless does not mean much, but it is a natural outcome of what are called the Allotment Acts of recent years, through which local authorities are empowered under certain conditions to appropriate land in small lots to be let to workingmen—to say nothing of the very exceptional treatment of the Irish land question. The expropriation of individual owners for the benefit of other people, and the interference of the Legislature in the contracts between landlord and tenant, are both impressive acknowledgments that land is a very peculiar kind of property, with which the State may take peculiar liberties, and it is not surprising that the workingmen have taken the lesson to heart, and think that there is something more to be got out of it. But what gives the land question its importance, both in England and Ireland, is the fact that it has until now been a monopoly in the hands of a small number of owners, who were able to exact rent for its use. Rent is, however, rapidly disappearing under the competition of the remoter parts of the globe, and when it has gone, the land will no longer dazzle workingmen or anybody else in England. What makes them think its nationalization would be a good thing is the fact that they have seen the land hitherto supporting in great luxury and leisure a large class besides the cultivators. But this class is gradually disappearing.

MR. CLEVELAND'S LETTER OF ACCEPTANCE.

THE Republican newspapers have been long anxious to see Mr. Cleveland's letter accepting his renomination, and have latterly been inclined to chide him for delay in writing it. They now have it in full, and there yet remain two months in which to analyze it. We venture to predict that they will not like it. We suspect that they could have endured a still greater delay in the production of it. No campaign document of the year will make so strong an impression, for although the arguments presented do not differ in any marked way from those of other debaters on the same side, they are stated in a very felicitous manner for reaching the ear of the common people, and the rostrum from which they are delivered is, of course, the most commanding of all. Mr. Cleveland's statement of the issue presented by the free-whiskey clause of the Republican platform is perfectly fair, and his comment upon it appeals powerfully to the common sense of the people.

"The implication," he says, "contained in this party declaration, that desperate measures are justified or necessary to save from destruction or surrender what is termed our protective system, should confuse no one. The existence of such a system is *entirely consistent with the regulation of the extent to which it should be applied* and the correction of its abuses. Of course, in a country as great as ours, with such a wonderful variety of interests, often leading in entirely different directions, it is difficult if not impossible to settle upon a perfect tariff plan. But in accomplishing the reform we have entered upon, the necessity of which is so obvious, I believe we should not be content with a reduction of revenue involving the prohibition of importations and the removal of the internal tax upon whiskey."

Here is the issue of the campaign in a nutshell. We have a protective system. No party, nobody, considers it perfect. The Republican party in 1884 promised to revise it and correct its inequalities. But after neglecting this duty for years, and after preventing anybody else from doing it, the party has taken the ground that the existing tariff is a sacred thing, and that its protective features cannot be amended at all except in the way of increasing the taxes. The duties on particular articles may vary all the way from 10 to 100 per cent., but these inequalities can only be corrected by lifting the lower ones to the level of the higher—never by reducing the higher in any degree whatever. Rather than reduce any such tax, let tobacco and whiskey be made free.

This position is so absurd, so utterly nonsensical, that it needs only the touch which the President gives it to show us what it really is. It is like one of those ancient mummies that have the semblance of the human form till somebody breaks the crust and lets in the air, when the whole thing collapses and turns to dust. The President says that the existence of the protective system is entirely consistent with steps for its adjustment to the present exigency of a surplus revenue. "Nothing of the kind," says the Chicago platform. "The existence of a protective system is consistent only with increased rates of duty and a repeal of the whiskey tax."

There are some situations in politics which upset the gravity of impartial witnesses, and this is one of them. It is impossible to add anything to its comic features. It is possible only to point out the incongruity of things in a few plain words, and leave the rest to the common sense of plain people. This is what the President has done in his letter of acceptance. More than this it would have been useless to attempt. "It is a condition and not a theory that confronts us," he said in his message to Congress. How the Republican party would meet this condition is stated in the Chicago platform. "We would meet it," say the Republicans, "when it becomes flagrant and unbearable, by adding to the taxes on the necessaries of life when imported from abroad, and by repealing those on intoxicating drinks when produced in our own distilleries." There is the cap-sheaf of your protective system. There is its crown of glory. Mr. Cleveland holds up this crown of glory as a spectacle for mankind, and says that he is content to abide by the judgment of the American people upon the principles of his message, as contrasted with those of the advocates of dearer food and clothing and cheaper drinks.

TARIFF REFORM A MORAL ISSUE.

WITH one or two exceptions, the religious newspapers are pretty consistently refraining from taking any part in the canvass. This is due, they tell us, not to the disastrous nature of their fooling with political questions four years ago, but to their clear conviction that there is no moral issue involved in the coming election. In 1884, they say, there was such an issue—the personal character of the candidates. Then they felt called upon to speak out. But now that it is a mere question of economic policy, a choice between opposing theories of the tariff, they think there is no reason for their impairing their religious influence by assuming a partisan position.

Far be it from us to quarrel with this conclusion. There are the best of reasons why the religious press, as such, should abstain from partisan activity. But we cannot at all admit that the reason offered is one of them. It is an altogether antiquated and inadequate conception of morality that is unable to see that the pending issue of tariff reform is, in large part, a moral issue. To deny that it is, smacks of what may be called the lurid school of moralists—we mean the men who feel an appeal to their moral instincts only when it is a clear case of heaven against hell. For them to be able to recognize right and wrong on the two sides of a battle, it must be an Armageddon. Right must be enveloped in a heavenly halo, or they do not know it, and wrong must be wrapped in sulphurous gloom, or they will not be sure of it. This is very largely, we suppose, the attitude of the Prohibitionists. They are men who, so to speak, pine for a moral issue—and they want it to be one that they can see a mile away. Since the Republican party has ceased to stir their enthusiasm, as it did in the days when it stood for human liberty, they have been casting about for a new cause to awaken their passionate devotion, and they have apparently found it. They regard it as the height of absurdity to talk about a question of custom-house regulations, as they call it, being a question largely moral.

Yet tariff reform is a moral issue of a most positive and commanding sort. We may even say that it is so on whichever side of the question a man takes his position — provided he takes it honestly; for every honest and intelligent voter, next November, will believe that he is voting for national prosperity. But national prosperity means national improvement in morals. No teaching of scientific ethics is more clear than just this intimate connection between the physical condition and the moral state. Thus it has been shown, for example, that suicide varies with the food supply. The introduction of gas in the streets of London was followed by an immediate decrease in public crime. We have to distinguish here between morals and religiosity. In times of national distress the churches are more resorted to, it is true, than in periods of prosperity. From this fact it has been inferred that a commercial panic, like that of 1857, is a great quickener of morality because it is of church attendance. But this is to overlook the immense increase of crime, which is always the other pole of the social movement originated by public calamity, and also to be blind to the true influence of a series of prosperous years in raising the standard of comfort and of intelligence, in ameliorating manners and putting a premium upon good habits. The surest way of hitting the moral is to aim at the physical, and the citizen who is really persuaded that the prosperity of the country is to hinge, very largely, upon the result of the voting two months from now, may be certain that the morals of the people will be affected in the most important ways.

In fact, if we admit that the reasoning of the advocates of tariff reform is sound, we cannot well deny that they have ground for entering into the contest with the loftiest moral enthusiasm. It is conducive to morality to have public measures rightly named and clearly understood by the people. A part of the work of tariff-reformers, in the present campaign, consists in exposing hypocrisy and deception. They are helping to fix the label "favoritism," "class legislation," "bounty system," on the thing that has falsely been called "protection." They stand for economy in national administration, and economy is a public virtue and a source of private morality. They are striving to restore our true political ideal of equality before the law, instead of the present system of legislation for the benefit of the few at the expense of the many. They are working to prevent, in the most direct way possible, the creation of permanent class distinctions in this country, and of persistent social antagonisms. They labor for simpler and directer political

methods, for the better distribution of wealth, for a more steadily expansive business success, and for a more constant employment and contentment of laboring men. And it is no wonder that they feel all their moral earnestness enlisted in the struggle to secure such worthy ends, since they are well assured that that way lies a higher degree of social well-being and a better public morality.

If proof were still wanting that this "grovelling dispute over taxes," as it has been called by a moralist of the lurid school, has in it the power to stir the moral nature, it might be seen in the more striking party changes which it is causing. Every election brings desertions from one side or the other. There are always the mercenaries who jump the way they think the cat is going to, and the men who "vote for Kane." There are plenty of them in this campaign, no doubt. But the remarkable thing about it is the great number of unselfish and thoughtful men between whom and their party this tariff question has thrust a sharp sword. To break up old party associations and attachments is no easy thing for such men. It means a violent wrench for them. It means reproach and, often, obloquy. They dread these things, and they brave them only under the imperative command laid upon them by conscience.

ONE-CENT LETTER POSTAGE.

One of the measures to which the Republican party stands committed by its platform is the reduction of letter postage to one cent an ounce. The proposal is an attractive one, but, considering its origin, it should be scrutinized with care. The dominant element in that party is determined above all things to maintain the tariff. To this end it is willing to remit the tax on whiskey, and to this end it is willing to favor any expenditure of money that is likely to prove unremunerative. At present it is necessary to raise by taxation a sum estimated at $4,000,000 a year, and really considerably more, in order to meet the deficit in the revenues of the Post-office. It is obvious that if this deficit can be increased by a reduction of postage, the tariff will be so much more secure. Such a result would be entirely consistent with a policy that aims to deceive the people as to the real cost of their government. It would be merely offering as a gratuity what must be paid for by increased taxation—a process always economically wasteful and generally politically corrupting.

The New York *Tribune* has recently undertaken to defend this measure upon two grounds. It declares that cheap postage means the rapid diffusion of intelligence; and that as the Republican party is the party of intelligence, it naturally favors cheap postage, while the Democratic party, as the party of ignorance, opposes it. This argument, however grateful to the intelligence of the readers of the *Tribune*, can hardly be regarded as conclusive. The question involved is, whether those who use the post shall pay for the service what it costs and when they get it, or whether they shall get it for less than it costs, and let the deficiency fall on the revenue raised by taxation. To allow a man to send a letter for one cent when it costs more, and then to tax him to make up the loss, is properly not to cheapen postage, but to make it more expensive by the amount lost in collecting the tax.

Under our present system of tariff taxation, the burden of a deficiency in postal revenue falls heaviest upon those who write the fewest letters. Letters are written chiefly by business men and by persons of wealth and leisure. The mass of the common people are not great letter-writers. Their simple affairs do not require much correspondence, and their incessant toil does not admit of it. For the Government to carry letters at less than cost is to make the poor pay for a convenience used especially by the well-to-do. It is true that such a convenience indirectly benefits all classes, but the same is true of every appliance that encourages intercourse. Railroads lead to the rapid diffusion of intelligence and of wealth, but that is no reason why those who travel should not pay their fares, or why those who send freight should send it for nothing.

The other argument by which the *Tribune* supports this measure is, that the deficiency that it will create will be temporary. If this were true, it would settle the question, for all that is demanded by justice is that the Postal Department shall be self-supporting. A large profit is obtained from this source, it is true, by Great Britain, but this profit is obviously a tax, and such a tax would be so unpopular in this country that it is idle to consider its merits. If letters can be carried for one cent an ounce without loss, the country will unquestionably demand that they shall be carried at that rate, and the demand will be complied with under those circumstances at least as readily by the Democratic as by the Republican party.

The argument, however, is not valid. It proceeds upon the assumption that since a reduction in the rate of postage has usually been followed by such an increase of business as to make up the loss of revenue, therefore the reduction of letter postage to one cent an ounce will be followed by this result. But it is easy to see the fallacy of this. Up to a certain point, in almost any industry, a larger business can be done at relatively less expense, and therefore at a lower rate. Beyond that point the ratio of expense to business is comparatively steady. If the rate is fixed too low, the more business increases the greater the loss in doing it. These truths are so elementary that it would hardly be worth while to state them were it not for a popular impression that there is something peculiar about the postal business, and that somehow it is impossible for its rates to be fixed so low that they will not pay its expenses. The reduction of rates has been so enormous as to furnish considerable support to this belief, but its absurdity can be shown by reference to a single fact. The rate of postage for newspapers and periodicals is now so low that they are carried at a loss, and this loss increases with the increase of this class of matter. According to the estimate of the Postmaster-General, it now constitutes nearly one-third of the weight of the mails, while it brings in about one-fortieth of the revenue. If the other two-thirds paid the same rate of postage, the revenue of the Post-office would be about $4,000,000 instead of $46,000,000. Although the reports of the postal service do not furnish much information on the subject, it is yet possible to prove from them that a reduction of letter postage to one cent an ounce would probably bring it below the point where an increase of business brings an increase of profit. The revenue of the office is derived almost exclusively from stamps, and amounts to some $45,700,000 from this source. The amount derived from second-class matter is positively known to be $1,364,000. The amount derived from fourth-class matter cannot be definitely fixed, but we may adopt the official conjecture that it is $2,000,000. As to third-class matter, it is impossible to be accurate, but, from a variety of circumstances, it is probable that $5,000,000 would be an exaggerated estimate of its amount. Postal cards produce $3,570,000. Putting the total of these items at $12,000,000, we have remaining about $33,700,000 as the revenue derived from first-class matter.

The expenditure of the office is about $52,000,000 yearly, and of this we may say roughly that $25,000,000 is on account of transportation and other expenses that vary directly with the amount of business, and the rest is on account of salaries and wages. If, now, the rate of postage were reduced as proposed, and in consequence the amount of first-class matter doubled, the revenue would stand at the same figure as at present, $46,000,000. Estimating the first-class matter as constituting one-half of the present weight of the mail, the transportation account would then be $37,500,000. If the salary account remained the same, the total expenditure would be $64,500,000, a deficit of nearly $19,000,000. If the amount of first-class matter quadrupled, the revenue would rise to about $80,000,000, the transportation account to over $62,000,000, and, even on the extravagant supposition that the salary account was not increased, the deficit would be about $10,000,000. Reasoning from the past rate of increase of the salary account, the deficit would be far larger, and would increase with the increase of business.

While these estimates are largely conjectural, they may be depended upon sufficiently to justify the conclusion that one-cent letter postage, at the present cost of transportation, and with the present rate of postage on second-class matter, would be an expensive luxury. The *Tribune* suggests that Republican orators would do well to remind their hearers that a Republican Congress would mean one-cent postage. We trust that the suggestion will be acted on, feeling sufficient confidence in the intelligence of their hearers to believe that they will reflect that one-cent postage will have to be paid for in taxes, that these taxes come principally out of the earnings of poor people, and that well-to-do people will get the principal benefit of the change.

A LOW OPINION OF THE CHACE BILL.

THE August number of *Belford's Magazine* contains an editorial contribution on "International Copyright," which exhibits a gloomy view of the future of that question, and is especially severe upon the Chace bill. "The authors want in an international copyright," according to this article, "what the people are not only ignorant of, but would set their multitudinous countenance against were they enlightened." And the prospects are no brighter as regards Congress. A lugubrious picture is drawn of the abject drudgery imposed upon a member of Congress by his constituency, and the writer exclaims: "Think of such a life, and the man engaged in it being called upon to consider cases of abstract justice—in other words, to hear an earnest advocate of a moral right lying outside of the Solon's immediate business. Such advocate is regarded justly as a crank and a bore. To avoid him the member dives down alleys and hides in the cloak-room, or the barber-shop, or less savory localities, and blasphemes." The first two sections of Mr. Spencer's chapter on "The Right of Property in Ideas," are quoted from his 'Social Statics,' as containing all that there is to be said on the subject of the moral obligation to respect intellectual property; but as out of the whole number of Senators, Members, and Delegates in Congress (according to our author, who is, presumably, Mr. Don Piatt himself) there are "only thirteen who know who Herbert Spencer is, and only five who have read anything from his pen, one can clearly see not only the little influence the ablest thinker of the century has upon our law-making body, but how wide apart are the literary guild and Congress. . . . We must not be understood as giving the cold shoulder to what these gifted sons of the pen are so earnest in denouncing," Mr. Piatt explains. "We are only striving to show the utter hopelessness of their attempt to get a remedy from Congress." Even if the widest information could be diffused, however, it is thought doubtful if the effect would amount to much, and the explanation of this and the reason for the severe denunciation of the Chace bill are stated as follows:

"For the last quarter of a century the public conscience has been dulled and all business debauched by a policy that makes politics mere trickery and business a system of theft. When the Government entered the field of private enterprise and sought to build a privileged class on taxation, it was guilty of a fraud that has poisoned the people, and we have in a great measure destroyed all honest dealing. The book-publishers, for example, suffer no shame in acknowledging that their business is theft, and their great accumulations mere plunder; for they have given and are giving the people cheap books. This is enough for the Congressmen, and the bill agreed on leaves the stealing intact. That is, it shifts denial of international copyright from the Government to the publishers. If the foreign author will, within a certain time after producing his book in a foreign country, secure an American publisher, and have the same printed on American paper by American printers, he may possess the poor privilege of calling his own property his own. Of course this will be followed by a pool or Trust among our publishers, and the international copyright will be a statute to benefit the thieving publishers. What heretofore has been mere neglect will thereafter have the sanction of law. All new books by untried authors will be at the mercy of the publishers, and open to plunder by the Typographical Union and the Paper Trust. The advocates of this measure claim that this bill passed to a law will be a recognition of the right. We can see nothing of the sort in the impudent and iniquitous measure. It simply sanctions by law all that has been sanctioned by time, and lifts the thieves into recognition as respectable men. The assurance of a claim from publishers who are already protected by a high tariff on foreign books—a tax on knowledge—fairly stuns one."

In the last paragraph of this article it is insisted that the law of trade-marks affords to literary property all the protection that can be asked for; and this view is said to have received the sanction of the ablest lawyers of the country. But although so high an authority as Jeremiah Sullivan Black is named as having held this opinion, it is difficult to believe that authors would, under trade-mark law, secure adequate protection for their productions. It is undoubtedly true that the title of a book may be protected as a trade-mark, and in isolated cases this protection of the title may practically secure the book from piracy, because the reprinting of the work under any other title would be unprofitable. A good example of such a case is that of the only English book protected by the courts of this country, namely, the celebrated 'Chatterbox.' Its title is registered as a trade-mark, and as the popularity of the book—an annual volume of selections with illustrations—depends upon the reputation acquired by the particular series of selections so named, the publisher is granted a property right in the title, and the use of this designation, or any near imitation of it, for some other book of selections is prohibited, as well as the use of it in connection with a reprint of the work itself. But it is to be noted that this prohibition does not extend to the book aside from the title. As Mr. Justice Wheeler very plainly stated in the opinion rendered in the case of Estes vs. Williams (21 *Federal Reporter*, 189): "There being no copyright to prevent, the defendants claim the right to so print and publish the series of books [the various 'Chatterbox' volumes] in this country. There is no question but that the defendants have the right to reprint the compositions and illustrations contained in these books, including the titles of the several pieces and pictures."

But if the law as laid down in this case were applied, for example, to a work by Alfred Tennyson, who might have secured a trade-mark property in its title, it will easily be seen that in the absence of an international copyright the author's trade-mark protection would avail him nothing, because the text of the work could still be reprinted, and the cunning pirate would only need to give the fraudulent edition some such designation as 'The Latest Poem by the Poet-Laureate of England,' to secure its ready identification by the public, and a consequent sale for it, to the author's loss. There would seem to be a clear difference of principle involved. As Mr. Sebastian, in his work on 'Trade-Marks,' says: "A trade-mark does not protect the *substance* of the article to which it is attached from being imitated, but it identifies an article and indicates the source to which that article is to be attributed." But what the author first of all requires is protection for the substance of his book. The name he gives it is of secondary importance, and may be next to no title at all, as 'The Writings of John Smith,' for example. And it is worthy of notice that the statutes created to protect his *book* do not afford any protection to his title, except as the title is an integral part of the book.

CONVICTS AND DEMAGOGUES.

THE Legislature of the State of New York is not a body that commands high respect. The public views the beginning of its sessions with apprehension and their close with relief. It has passed many bad laws, but it has perhaps never passed a law so bad as the recent act concerning the prisons. As a combination of reckless cruelty, of economic folly, and of base subserviency to the lowest element in our politics, this measure is unsurpassed. By its provisions the use of machinery in all the penal institutions of the State is prohibited, and the sale of such products as the inmates thus handicapped might still produce is made illegal. The result is, that the prisoners are now locked in their cells, the machinery of the prisons is idle, and the workshops are deserted. This is the immediate result, but the consequences of depriving men of employment are remote as well as immediate. They will appear in an increase of sickness, insanity, and death among the convicts. They will also appear when convicts are discharged, or rather turned loose upon society, to make such a living as can be made in these days by men untrained in the use of machinery.

One of the features of that ably managed institution, the Elmira Reformatory, is the publication by the inmates of a weekly newspaper called the *Summary*. Every one who has read this paper will testify that it is—from a literary point of view, at least—up to the average of the press of the country, and that it is singularly clean, sensible, and able in its management. It might properly be recommended for general circulation, but such a recommendation would be useless. It is now clearly illegal either to sell or to give a copy of the paper to any person whatsoever, even to an inmate of the Reformatory where it is composed. There are trade schools in this institution where young men have been taught such arts as would enable them to earn their own support when discharged. These schools must be suppressed, for there is no authority for the expenditure of money for the purchase of the materials or the payment of the instructors which they require. It may be added that it is contrary to the spirit of our legislation that such training should be given to convicts. It only serves to make their competition more dangerous to "Labor" when they are freed from restraint.

We have referred to the *Summary*, however, not for the purpose of arousing sympathy over its fate, but to call attention to certain appeals that have appeared recently in its columns. It may be stated by way of explanation that the Superintendent of the Elmira Reformatory provides a letter-box, into which the inmates are allowed to drop communications addressed to him upon such subjects as they choose, and that the appeals which we quote below are specimens taken from a large number of similar tenor:

"Can you find me employment, and oblige one who had rather work than remain idle?"

"I have lain all day looking at the wall. Will you please let me have some work?"

"Please give me something to do—*anything*."

"I hope you will be able to find some work for me, no matter how low or menial. Before I came here I detested work. Now I am almost crazy for something to do."

"Could you not find me something to do? It is harder to kill time now than it ever was to put up my task in the foundry."

"Be so kind as to give me a job. I am a good hand at painting. Rather work than remain idle."

"Can you find me a place to work somewhere? I am almost dead after being idle so long. I had rather work day and night than to remain idle. Please give me work, hard work. The day seems two days."

"Please give me work at painting or anything else. I cannot sleep at night."

"Do please let me have some work."

We will not insult the intelligence of our readers by arguing that whatever offences these young men may have committed, they are yet human beings and ought not to be treated with wanton cruelty. It is impossible that any one should seriously maintain that convicts ought not to be permitted to work, or that it is not the duty of the State to make them work. What we do urge is, that it is the immediate duty of all conscientious citizens to let their representatives know that they must stop their shameful trifling with the lives and interests of several thousand of the most helpless of their fellow-creatures. These men should be made to understand that there are other votes to be thought of besides those of a few unprincipled manufacturers and labor agitators. They should be required to explain publicly the reasons for their action. They should be compelled to answer without evasion or equivocation the following questions: (1.) Must not the convicts be supported? (2.) If so, must they not be supported either by their own labor or by that of law-abiding citizens? (3.) If they are not to be supported by their own labor, how are other laborers benefited by being made to work for the support of idle convicts?

Let us put the case as plainly as possible, and ask, If there were two communities in all respects similar, in one of which the prisoners supported themselves, while in the other they were supported at the public expense, whether the rate of wages would not be lower in the latter community, and if not, why not? The talk of the competition of the products of convict labor with those of free labor is a capital *reductio ad absurdum* of the theory of protection. The products of the convicts are bartered for those of other laborers. The other laborers therefore get an equivalent for the goods transferred to and consumed by the convicts. Put a stop to the labor of the convicts, and the free laborers are still compelled by the taxing power of the State to transfer the same quantity of their products to the convicts for their consumption, but they now get as an equivalent—nothing. And it is by such measures as this that our legislators show their sympathy with "Labor"! The situation is described with grim humor in the following extract from an article on the subject by Mr. Eugene Smith, the Secretary of the New York Prison Association:

"In Great Britain the standing grievance of the Labor party has been for many years the large budget required for the support of the royal family. The tax levied for this object has excited a deeper discontent, and has stirred up more disloyal and riotous demonstrations on the part of the laboring classes, than perhaps any other public burden imposed on the English people. It has been a matter of national satisfaction in the United States that we had no regal establishment to be maintained at the public expense. But now come the special advocates of free labor and propose to place on the American people a burden of taxation far heavier than the burden of royalty: to erect into a dependent and unproductive class, which shall be housed, fed, and clothed out of the public Treasury, a body of men more numerous than the royal family with all its dependencies. And all this they demand as a boon to the laboring man! Does the Labor party in Great Britain and Ireland object to supporting a dependent class because it is royal? or does the Labor party in the United States insist on supporting a dependent class because it is criminal? And if the burden takes the form of taxation, what difference does it make whether the class supported is royal or criminal?"

POETS AND COÖPERATIVES.

On the Bay of Spezia, August, 1888.

I come from Casa Magni, and am writing in the shadow of the ilex and walnut trees under whose dark, massive, intermingled foliage Shelley wrote most of his poems after he left Pisa in 1822 till he suffered the sea change. There was no spot in the whole world that I had so longed to visit, had been so near and yet (through mere chance) left unvisited, and a mere chance has brought me here to-day, namely, an invitation from the workingmen of Spezia, Lerici, and San Terenzio to launch the third steamer that they have built with their own capital, and, we may truly say, with the sweat of their brow. A second invitation, from a Russian lady, Dr. Paper, lodged me in the house overlooking Casa Magni and the very room in which Shelley slept.

Can you wonder that my first thought was to ascertain who now was the owner of that house, and whether it still could be visited, as, hearing that the new owner was an Englishman, I feared me much to receive a "no"? But all such fear was put to flight by a courteous permission to visit the house and wander in the rooms at will from Mrs. Pearse, whose husband has purchased the whole property—that is to say, the ilex and olive woods, and the large house on the summit behind, which "Mary" tells us was, in her time, falling into ruin, as the proprietor was insane and his malady prevented its being finished. That house upon the hill is now complete, and a delicious summer residence it must be, as it is now let. The new proprietors actually inhabit the house that Shelley dwelt in, which is not included in the purchase, and which unfortunately the owner is allowing to go utterly to ruin. There it is exactly as the Shelleys left it, and indeed as they found it when Shelley arrived at Lerici on the 28th of April, 1822—a white house with arches, which had once been a Jesuit convent, sheltered by the steep, wooded hill behind, on the edge of the cove in the depth of which nestles the fishing village of San Terenzio. A small house it is for one family, as the unpaved ground floor which Shelley used for storing boat-gear and fishing-tackle, and which is now filled with huge olive jars, is uninhabitable; yet as no other house could be found for the Williamses, Shelley gave them half of his, and here on the 1st of May, 1822, the whole party took possession of their new abode.

It would be difficult to imagine a more perfect poet's home, with the sea which (though tideless), owing to an almost constant ground swell, dashes and foams against its walls—a sea now gray and hoary, now violet or green or blue, oftenest golden, as the sturdy rowers cleave the waves with their oars, and the sun shines down into the clefts.

The view from the veranda which surrounds the house is, even for Italy, we will not say unrivalled, but certainly it cannot be outrivalled. The horizon is bounded by the meeting line "'twixt sea and sky." To the left the picturesque castle of Lerici overlooks the little town of the same name, where the water laps the basement of the white, flat-roofed houses and is generally calm and quiet in its port, so that when boats and steamers cannot near San Terenzio, in Lerici they can always enter and land their passengers and freight. And now we look eastward with our eyes fixed, as Shelley's were for days and days, on that opening between Monte Tino and Porto Venere. There it was that, on the 12th of May, Shelley descried from the terrace "a strange sail coming round the point," a sail strange even to Maglian, the kindly harbormaster. It was the long-expected, alas! fatal, boat, built by Captain Roberts, who had also built the *Bolivar* for Lord Byron at Genoa. Too heavy a swell was swinging upon the shore at San Terenzio; so, though the weather was cloudy and threatening, Shelley and Williams walked to Lerici, "made a stretch off the land to try her, found that she fetched whatever she looked at, that in short they had a perfect plaything for the summer." Only there was one vexation: Trelawny had named the boat *Don Juan*, whereas Mary and Shelley had named her the *Ariel*, and Lord Byron, offended at the change, had written to Roberts to have the name painted on the mainsail. "For days and nights, full twenty-one," writes Mary, "did Shelley and Edward ponder on her anabaptism and the washing out of her primeval stain; turpentine, spirits of wine, *bucato*, all were tried, and it became dappled, and no more. At length a piece has been taken out and reefs put, so that the sail does not look the worse." Eight and forty days afterwards Shelley left his "divine bay" on board the *Ariel*, and at nine o'clock on the first day of July she cast anchor alongside the *Bolivar*, Byron's yacht, in the port of Leghorn. Eight days later, dawn was ushered in with a thunder-storm, but it rolled away, and all again was fair; but before the sun had set on the sea that he loved better even than the sun, our singing god had looked his last on sea and sky and sweetest earth, telling us for the last time

" . . . the wondrous story
How all things are transfigured except love."

What an old story it is—sixty-six years old this summer; yet you can fancy it happened yesterday, so vividly, in her passionate anguish, has Mary told the tale, completed by Trelawny.

The absurd story trumped up by Sir Vincent Eyre, "that an old fisherman who had died twelve years before at Sarzana, confessed to a priest that he was one of five who, seeing the English boat in great danger, thinking that Byron was on board and that they should find gold," etc., etc., is so utterly ridiculous that Trelawny must have been in his dotage to have given it the least credence. It was always known, from the time that Captain Roberts raised the *Ariel* from fifteen fathoms of water, that the gunwale was stove in and a great hole knocked in the stern timbers; but what does that prove? That there had been a collision, an accidental collision. One has but to sail or row on this sea in a squall, as we did yesterday, to realize that sailors, even though they be Ligurian sailors, than whom the world knows no braver, would have quite enough to do to hold their own, and that all thought of plunder would be lost in the struggle for dear life. And the day on which Shelley was lost, all eyewitnesses agree in telling how the sun was obscured by mists, how it was dark long before sunset, how sea and sky were black as blackest night. It would be too horrible to believe that Shelley's loving heart, his sweet, love-beaming eyes, were saddened by the sight of such a crime—a crime which, under the circumstances, could not have been committed, and therefore we may say it *was* not. Surely it is grief enough to have lost him just as he had begun to be his best and greatest self, without "piling the agony" up higher in that melodramatic fashion. Much pleasanter it is to dwell on the fact that Shelley lived out his last days in gladness and in such beautiful surroundings, and that he found his death in the sea he loved so well—his grave in that very spot of which he wrote: "The cemetery is an open space among the ruins, under the pyramid which is the tomb of Cestius, and the massive walls and towers now mouldering and desolate which formed the circuit of ancient Rome—the ruins covered even in winter with violets and daisies; it might make one in love with death to think that one should be buried in so sweet a place."

Very curious is Mary's detestation of this lovely place; in her horror there is surely something of presentiment, and the horror colors all her descriptions of this primitive but certainly not barbarous people. "The natives," she writes, "were wilder than the place; our near neighbors of San Terenzio were more like savages than any I have ever lived among. Many a night they passed on the beach singing or rather howling, the women dancing about among the waves that broke at their feet, the men leaning against the rocks, joining in their loud, wild chorus." All which merely means that the fishermen's wives, grandfathers, and children used, then as now, to wait upon the rocks and along the shore for the return of the husbands, fathers, and sons from their often dangerous voyages. "No provisions," she complains, "could be got nearer than Sarzana, and even there the supply was very deficient; nor, had we been wrecked upon an island in the South Seas, could we have felt ourselves further from civilization and comfort." Even to-day the inhabitants of San Terenzio live chiefly upon bread, fruit, and fish; but as there is now quite a little colony of Italians, Russians, American, and English who come every summer during the bathing season, housekeeping is a far less toilsome task than it was in Mary's time. You get excellent butcher's meat, the water is fresh and sparkling, and the wine of the hills is as good as you need want.

To-day San Terenzio is in full festival, as we have just returned from the launch of the *Alleanza del Golfo*, built at Lerici and sent off the stocks into the foaming, dancing waves in the presence of some 15,000 workingmen and their invited guests, who from dawn this morning until four P. M. have been steaming and rowing into the little town from every village and hamlet overhanging the coast, as from Spezia herself. This is the third steamer built by the coöperative society of workmen with their own saved-up capital, and in part by their own handiwork on festivals and evenings. Coöperation in Italy has considerable difficulty in holding its own against the "dissolving views" of Socialists, Communists, Anarchists, and Nihilists, who, though they have never succeeded in getting any fact accomplished, evince real genius in putting spokes into other people's wheels. But at least half of the workingmen of Liguria are thoroughgoing Mazzinians—politically, economically, if not always religiously; and coöperation was one of Mazzini's favorite factors of progress, Cattaneo also maintaining that any miracle may be accomplished "by associated minds."

Just five years ago, in the little hamlet of Solaro, overhanging the Gulf, five workingmen met to discuss the possibility of putting by their savings in sufficient sums and in sufficient numbers to build a steamer of their own to carry the operatives to and from their work in Spezia, at the Arsenal, or at the great lead foundry of Pertusola. Great difficulties had to be overcome, and much persuasive patience exhausted, before they could put together $10,000 with which to build the *Workman's Union*, which was launched just three years ago. She was a complete success, and, though carrying passengers for a third less than her competitors, in a year the profits were sufficient to build the sister vessel, the *Emilia Henfrey*, and again the *Alliance* launched to-day. The paid-up social capital amounts to-day to $40,000, and the coöperatives have decided at once to lay down a fourth steamer. Besides the ordinary traffic to and from Spezia, the Government pays them 500 francs a month for taking the invalid marines to and from the hospital at Porto Venere. Thus coöperation in the Gulf of Spezia has achieved a signal triumph.

After the launch, which was really a beautiful spectacle—seventy associations with their bands and colors filing in and taking up their station round the finished vessel, with her colors flying and her steam up, though still on the stocks—an old man approached me, wishing to present to me his son, the professor. "I am Poggi Felice," quoth he. Then we remembered that he was one of the fourteen workmen whose hands we clasped thirty years ago on board the *Cagliari*, as they were starting with Pisacane for the glorious but fatal expedition of Sapri to free Naples from the Bourbon. They failed, those brave ones: six were cut to pieces with their leaders, Pisacane and Falcone; the rest, after being condemned to death, were confined with their third leader, Nicotera, in the underground dungeons of Favignana. But their failure was the forerunner of the success of the "Thousand." Pisacane and his followers were the pioneers of Garibaldi and the successful liberators of Sicily and Naples. Garibaldi it was who liberated them from Favignana, and, once free, they immediately enlisted in the crack corps of the Genoese sharpshooters, and at the battle of Milazzo one was killed and five were wounded. Of these five Poggi was one; three are dead, and one, Carlo Rota, I am told, I shall find at San Pier D'Arena, where he is the head and soul of coöperation among the workmen.

San Pier d'Arena.—Voltri, August 18.

This letter, commenced in Shelley's ilex woods overhanging the Bay of Spezia, has, after some days of wandering along the coast, to be finished at San Pier d'Arena and posted at Voltri. Here coöperation is indeed flourishing, for the workmen have four different cooperative societies—the Society of Mutual Aid, the Coöperative Stores, the Building Society, and the Coöperative Iron Foundry. The stores have nothing particular except that their accounts are kept as I have never seen any other accounts kept, public or private, for clearness or precision. You can go through their books for the last twenty years, and see for yourself the amount of capital, of losses, profits, and how the dividends are distributed. At present their capital amounts to $45,000, besides the reserve fund of $10,000, and of another $2,000 calculated for the wear and tear of machinery, utensils, and furniture. Their profits for the last six months are a clear $5,000, divided thus: 7 per cent. on all the paid-up shares, 3½ per cent. on all the purchases made at the stores. Each share costs $4, and no one can own more than fifty shares. These stores have nine sub-stores, all kept by members, who give in their accounts daily and balance them every three months. The comestibles are few but excellent—wine, bread, *paste* (maccaroni), flour, cheese, coffee, sugar, biscuits, eggs, and dried mushrooms. Once they tried butcher's meat, but made as dismal a failure as their English brethren, lost $2,000, and shut up shop at once. They make no point of underselling the ordinary shopkeepers, marking their goods at barely less by 5 per cent. At first the women were opposed to the system because they could not get credit, but the 3½ per cent. returned to them for every hundred francs spent overcame all opposition. The stores are opened to all non-members, who, beginning with next year, are also to receive 3 per cent. on their purchases. The iron foundry is also a success, and has a capital of $80,000. The home of the Mutual Aid Society is really an elegant building, with reading-rooms, bathroom, dispensary, a doctor who attends daily from twelve till two, and a hall capable of holding two thousand people.

But what we consider the triumph of coöperation in San Pier d'Arena is the Building Society. Workingmen's homes in Italy, especially in cities, and of all cities in Naples, are generally unfit for human habitation. Piggeries, dog-kennels, fowl-houses, not to speak of stables, are often cleaner and less populated. In one room we have found, not only in underground Naples, but in cities such as Adria, eleven human beings huddled together—living, sleeping, feeding, etc., between four square walls with mud pavement, and often only with a hole in the roof for the smoke to escape. How, we ask, is cleanliness or morality to be taught or learned? How can a tired workingman be expected to exchange the delights of a pothouse for the din, filth, and confusion of his so-called home? Now these workingmen's houses, built by the coöperatives of San Pier d'Arena, are really palatial residences. Each apartment has three bedrooms, a sitting-room, a kitchen, closets, and (*rara avis*) a water-closet. The members wanting an apartment pay fifteen cents a week until the palace is completed. In each of the palaces, nine stories high (so built because of the enormous price of

ground), you have from thirty to thirty-six apartments, each supposed to cost $1,000. For each of these, duly numbered, lots are drawn, so that fate decides whether you shall live on a terrace or on a ground floor (some reduction, however, being made for these extremities), or whether the stairs you have to climb shall be 30 or 200. When once the apartment is ready for habitation, the inmates pay five dollars a month till they have cleared off the $1,000, when the apartment is their very own. Often a small family will take an apartment and let off the bedrooms to other workmen with their wives, keeping the sitting-room and kitchen in common. Carlo Rota, Pisacane's companion, one of the five wounded at Milazzo, is the President of the Coöperative Associations, and, with Armirotti, the workingmen's member of Parliament, took us over all the buildings and gave us these details, which we have thought really well worth recording.

Of Voltri I will only say that we are guests in the Mameli palace, now belonging to Nicola, the brother of Goffredo, Italy's soldier poet, whose "Fratelli d'Italia, l'Italia è desta" was the war hymn of every Italian volunteer who fought and died that Italy might live and claim for her own Rome, for which Goffredo himself fought and fell in 1849, and where he too is buried—not with Shelley in the heretic cemetery, but in Campo Varano, where Pio Nono also sleeps the sleep that knows no waking. J. W. M.

THE TEMPLE OF PAPHIAN APHRODITE.—II.

PARIS, August 7.

THE most amazing statement on page 210 of 'Cyprus' is now to come: "The southeast wall," that is, of the "peribolos," of which (as we read not many lines above) only a few blocks are extant, "I ascertained, by excavating its whole length, was 690 feet long." Evidently there is some confusion here. If there are only a few blocks of this wall extant, then it is not 690 feet long. Called upon to decide between our author's two statements, I have assured myself, by observation on the site, that the former and not the latter gives the truth. I understand that all attempts to find traces of this extended wall have proved without result. If Gen. di Cesnola had refreshed his memory, in the preparation of his ground-plan of the temple, by consulting Von Hammer's plan, I am sure that he would have altered his views about this peribolos, or outside wall. Von Hammer's plan represents a steep hill, near the brow of which he supposes the temple to have stood. The peribolos wall of Gen. di Cesnola has to plunge down into the valley and run off at an almost breakneck slope, before these 690 feet can be accounted for. The best proof, however, that there has been some mistake, is that this wall exists nowhere, either above or below ground. Gen. di Cesnola's assertion that "of this 'peribolos' only a few blocks are extant," is further confirmed because, of the 272 feet on the west of which he speaks, hardly a quarter can now be found. Hence, when our author says, "The length of the west side I could only trace as far as 272 feet," and "The length of the other two sides I was unable to ascertain," we are ready with a question. For what good reason do the four sides of this non-proven peribolos wall appear upon his plan? The length of two of these sides, our author says, he could not ascertain, and he is not sure that they exist. A very small fraction of this 272 feet on the west can be found. As to the length of the fourth side, his statement that he excavated 690 feet of it is discredited, first, by his own declaration that "Of the whole peribolos only a few blocks are extant," and, next, by the facts, which convince every visitor of Old Paphos that this wall of 690 feet is a physical absurdity. Thus the outside and larger parallelogram of the plan, given on page 212, and described on page 210 of 'Cyprus,' does not correspond with the remains discoverable upon the site of the temple, and its four sides should be dispensed with. If additional proof were needed, it would be this. The few extant blocks which form the southwest corner of this non-proven peribolos wall do not now lie, and never have lain, on lines parallel with any of the lines of Gen. di Cesnola's inner and smaller parallelogram, which is supposed to represent the temple proper—what various people have ventured to speak of as its cella. Of this inappropriate use of the term "cella" our author is innocent, but not of having forgotten the wisest and truest thing which his eighth chapter contains, namely, that an enormous mass of accumulated rubbish required removal from the site of the temple at Old Paphos.

This rubbish Gen. di Cesnola admits that he did not remove. How, then, can he expect us to follow him when, on page 211, he says: "The walls of the temple itself . . . I was able to trace correctly, by dint of patience. Though very little is seen above ground," adds he, "yet, strange to say, the four corner-stones are still standing." This is indeed strange to say, for of these four "corner-stones" only two have ever been at the corner of any building, and not one was ever at the corner of the temple. Furthermore, I satisfied myself on the spot that, if these four corners, two of which were not and are not corners, were made the corners of a building, that building would not be a parallelogram, and would not have the dimensions given for the temple in 'Cyprus.' Therefore the inner and smaller parallelogram of the plan on page 212 must be called in question. One of the walls, for instance, taken there to be the south wall of the temple, proves to be the outer wall of a vast porch lying south of the temple; and so I might continue. I said that Von Hammer, and consequently Engel, was, in respect of size, nearer the facts with his plan than the author of 'Cyprus.' This is true, because the south wall of what Von Hammer considered the Umfangsmauer, or peribolos of the temple, corresponds to the outer wall of this portico. Now, the length of this wall is within bowshot of what Von Hammer gives as the length of the peribolos. But still, Van Hammer exaggerates; his outside wall is 100 by 150 paces. This is more oblong than is Gen. di Cesnola's temple, 221 feet long by 167 broad. I imagine, however, that Von Hammer would not vouch for the accuracy of his measurements within an inch or two, as General di Cesnola does for his.

The difference is great between General di Cesnola's temple and the only structure which now has undeniable claim to be considered to represent the real temple. It is therefore deeply to be regretted that the wholly impossible plan of General di Cesnola's 'Cyprus' should have found a place in the third volume of Perrot and Chipiez. Like the temple of the plan on page 212, the real temple is oblong, but its interior width is about 18 feet, against 167 on the plan in 'Cyprus,' and its interior length is about 58 feet, against 221 in our author's plan. The walls of this most ancient shrine are 4½ feet thick. If the points of the compass are well given on my sketch-plan of the temple, its orientation is about that of the shrine of "El Maabed," as given by M. Ernest Renan in his 'Mission de Phénicie.' This shrine is at Marathus, in the part of Syria from which Cinyras is fabled to have come.

But to return to page 211 of 'Cyprus.' I am convinced there is error in the statement that "the corner-stone of the northwest side" (*i. e.*, of the temple) "has a hole in it thirteen inches in diameter." It is, however, perfectly true that "a similar hole also exists in the southwest corner," *i. e.*, the only corner of the supposed outer wall. Not only is there one, but there are many holes in this "southwest corner." I rejoice that General di Cesnola escapes a part of the responsibility for his statement that "these strange holes, which go through the whole stone, may have been connected with" the oracle of the great Paphian temple. The description of these holes, a misleading one, is our author's, but the notion about the oracle is cited as the opinion of Dr. Friedrichs, who visited General di Cesnola at Paphos. The General is, however, himself responsible for this, the last statement upon his page 211 with which I shall quarrel. "From this spot," *i. e.*, the corner in question, "if a person stand upon this huge perforated stone, he can produce a clear and fine echo of a phrase of three or four words, pronounced in a moderate tone of voice." To this let me add, that if a person stands a short distance away from the "huge perforated stone," he can also produce the same echo. In fact, it was proved to me that the echo was due to the existence of the Lusignan castle not far off. Remove that mediæval building and the echo disappears. But what could an echo have to do with an oracle? Nay, more, what could these holes have to do with an oracle? Our author's account of them, with his subsequent word, "perforated," suggests that these holes were visible from the outside, or came through to the outside. This is not the case. Ross gives the best account of them, saying that the stones have "deep cuts on their inner side, which served to give a hold to the implements used in moving them." He mentions similar holes in the stones of temples in Sicily, an island where the Phœnicians have also left many traces of their presence.

Neither General di Cesnola nor his friend Dr. Friedrichs invented this notion about the oracle. That, again, can be found in Von Hammer's book, published at Vienna in 1811. It would seem that Dr. Friedrichs inoculated our author with all the errors contained in Von Hammer's brilliant but hasty sketch. The notion of granite at Old Paphos is a casual slip of Von Hammer's, who likewise originated the peribolos, and described these holes definitely as "grosse Löcher die von *aussen nach innen* in einer krummen Linie gebohrt sind." Then he gives, in much more plausible form than our author's, the suggestion of communication from inside the temple with people outside, and also suggests a connection with oracles. The whole theory fails when it is remembered that these holes cannot be reached or seen from the outside, and that they end nowhere. They all—and there are many of them—start from the inside into the vertical side of a stone, and, after turning awhile within, come out upon its horizontal side. This is usually the lower horizontal side. These holes are not very dissimilar in their course from some of the wonderful loop tunnels in the St. Gotthard Railway. They all issue in a line at right angles to that of their entrance, and their issue is always against the surface of the next stone. Hence Ross seems to be nearest to the truth. They cannot have been of use after the wall was constructed, and may have served in the transportation of the blocks.

Turning now to page 213, we find our author speaking of the plain between Koukliá and the shore; this, he says, "must formerly have been wooded." I do not know why the word "must" is justifiable here, but perhaps what immediately follows will explain. This plain, we read, "was doubtless the grove spoken of by Homer." Homer mentions a precinct, which may, of course, have contained a grove, but there is nowhere in Homer mention of a grove at Paphos. And, finally, we come to Von Hammer's last error, revised and enlarged by General di Cesnola. Near the sea, but not by any means so near as the most completely misleading picture on page 214 would have us suppose, stand two curious stones five feet apart, which Messrs. Guillemard and Hogarth at one time believed might have been parts of some ancient wine press or oil press. Von Hammer saw these; called the oblong holes (which are their most remarkable feature) windows; and said they were remains of the ancient port of Old Paphos. Near them Von Hammer describes a pit filled with all manner of architectural fragments. These last, he suggests, belonged possibly to an ancient temple, at which perhaps the yearly procession from New Paphos paused, and where its members may have made preliminary sacrifice before going up the hill to the temple of Old Paphos. Von Hammer also says that here was the spot where Aphrodite rose from the waves, and indulges in a great deal of very charming and evidently irresponsible rhetoric. Our author, however, coming afterwards, declares that the two stones which, according to Von Hammer, belonged to the port, were a part of the temple. He takes it for granted that a building there would be "the temple," whereas Von Hammer invented the notion of the temple, and also that of the stopping of the procession there. Strabo tells of the procession and of the great temple at Old Paphos, but not a word of the stop at the bottom of the hill nor of a temple there. Therefore a much more definite description of the two "fabrics," which General di Cesnola says he discovered, is desirable before any one can be expected to believe that in antiquity there was anything on the spot of greater religious importance than a farm and an oil mill.

And now, for the last time, I will find further fault with this very misguiding eighth chapter. Once upon page 214, and again upon the following page, General di Cesnola mentions the river Bocarus. I cannot sympathize with the false modesty which prompts our author to say "the river Bocarus, now called by another name." The modern name of the small stream that flows at the bottom of the hill is the Diarrhizos. It is all the more necessary to use this modern name since the name Bocarus has no connection with any river or anything else upon the island of Cyprus. It is the only river name, preserved from antiquity, which undoubtedly belongs in the island of Salamis off the coast of Attica. All the maps, and nearly all modern reference books, are in error on this small geographical point; therefore, General di Cesnola errs here in a numerous and goodly company. I said that he repeated all the errors of Von Hammer, but this is not true in respect of the modern name of this river. Von Hammer misspells it "Dyarizos," and gives a grotesquely false derivation. This encourages him to believe that on going up the hill to Old Paphos he heard the murmuring of two brooks, which are not there; and behold! the sound of rushing waters is added to the many decorative fictions with which he furnishes forth the ancient precinct and the temple of Paphian Aphrodite. Engel follows Von Hammer here, but, with an uneasiness which does honor to his insight, endeavors to prove the existence of these two never-failing, ever-murmuring, nonexistent brooks by a most laughably irrelevant quotation from Ioannes Cameniata. As M. de Mas-Latrie has most truly said, Engel did not add much to our knowledge of the ancient geography of Cyprus. That has remained stationary, or nearly so, since the 28th of May, 1762, when D'Anville presented to the French Academy his Greco-Venetian map of the island, with comments which have formed ever since the basis of the distribution of ancient names in Cyprus. One mistake, unavoidable in 1762—it appears on D'Anville's map, but is very plausibly veiled in his comments—is the lumping together of the highest mountain in Cyprus, Troodos, which lies northeast of the site of Old Paphos, and of Mt. Santa Croce or Stavrovuni, which lies almost east of the same site. This last height seems to the passer-by the highest mountain in the island. Strabo undoubtedly called it Mount Olympus, and knew nothing of the Troodos.

Of the river Bocarus and the comedy of dryasdust errors which led to its importation into Cypriote topography, and also of the goodly company of mountains named Olympus on various maps of Cyprus, I shall treat at length elsewhere. It is enough to say here that General di Cesnola forgets the not inconsiderable heights beginning on Cape Arnaut (Acamas), which lies northwest of Koukliá, when he says: "East of Koukliá commences that range of lofty mountains, the highest of which, now called Troodos, was known as Mount Olympus." He also forgets that Mt. Troodos was not known to the ancient geographers who speak of Cyprus.

In closing our author's book at the end of chapter the eighth, I may surely say with some justification that I wish this chapter had never been written. It is possible, though I fear it is not made probable by what is to be found in the other chapters of 'Cyprus,' that, had General di Cesnola mistrusted his own observation less, had he been less prone to see upon the site of Old Paphos what Von Hammer and Engel invited him to see, had he dilated with his own emotions exclusively, he might have come nearer to the truth. Far from it he certainly would still have remained in any case, since he never saw the temple at all, but left it as he found it, buried under many tons of earth.

In closing, an expression of gratitude to friends at Koukliá is certainly called for. Without the kind and generously afforded assistance which they, who had lived upon the site for months, extended, I should never have been able in three days to declare my independence, or to prepare at any time the long catalogue of errors just given. Without them I never could have helped others towards the hidden truth about the hidden shrine of Aphrodite at Old Paphos. I speak advisedly, since the shrine is still hidden, and will be until full publication of all the researches which were ended at the beginning of last May, and which began last January. Much as I owe to the kindness of others, I would not make any one responsible for what I have just said excepting myself alone. I trust that I have said nothing of moment which the coming numbers of the *Hellenic Journal* will not substantiate; and my confidence is based upon the care with which I studied the remains at Old Paphos during the last three days that excavations were there in progress. I had the pleasure of being present when the last Greek inscription was added to the wonderful store which has rewarded the labors of nearly half a year. The last of a number of Cypriote inscriptions was also found during my stay at Koukliá.

While I have been writing, the memories of kindness received at every turn during my tour in Cyprus have been constantly recurring. And now they are so vivid that I am sure of but one thing: I know that those who have never been in Cyprus will hardly get from my words a picture of the warmth of welcome which there awaits the traveller. Again and again I am tempted to rejoice at the absence of hotels, which procured me such a heart-warming experience, and the near acquaintance of those who must otherwise have been strangers. I but add my testimony to that of Professor Sayce, and of many others who have known the almost more than English hospitality of the English in Cyprus.

Finally, I recommend all classical scholars in search of unsolved problems in history, topography, and archæology to betake themselves to Cyprus; but let them make haste. There are those now there who will soon have all these questions solved. L. D.

Correspondence.

MR. GOLDWIN SMITH ON THE MISERY OF LONDON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On my return home after a long absence, I have seen the notice of my 'Trip to England' in your number of August 2. You say, "knowing something of Mr. Goldwin Smith's reputation, they (the readers of the book) will be prepared to find in it a certain amount of curious doctrine, both social and political. . . . They will not be very much surprised to find him making light of the terrible misery of London, on the ground that it has been exaggerated for the purposes of literary sensation." It is here implied not only that I have made light of terrible misery, but that to do this is characteristic of me. I will beg permission to quote the entire passage, a sentence of which, it will be seen, is here misquoted, and will leave your readers to judge whether the imputation is well founded:

"Everybody has something to say about the painful contrast between the extremes of wealth and poverty in London; and people from new countries, where the pressure on the means of subsistence is as yet comparatively little felt, are very apt to turn up their hands and eyes, and thank heaven that they are not as those English. *Painful the contrast is, and hideous some of the low quarters of London are*, above all at night, when the fatal gin-palaces flare, and round them gather sickly and ragged forms coming to barter perhaps the last garment or the bread of to-morrow for an hour of excitement and oblivion. But in the first place we must remember, that *pictures of London misery have been sought out and presented in the most glaring colors for the purposes of literary sensation.* In the second place, we must remember, that among five millions there is inevitably much distress, caused not only by want, but by disease, intemperance, crime, and accidents, for which the community is not to blame. In the third place, we must remember, the great immigration of needy, or worse than needy, foreigners already mentioned. Charity, we find on inquiry, is active; often in those crowded and noisome alleys we shall meet its gentle ministers, and we shall be told that they pass safely on their mission even through the worst haunts of crime. Nor does the number of the destitute and suffering after all bear any proportion to the number of those for whom the great city provides a livelihood, and who are living in decency and comfort, with all the opportunities of domestic happiness and all the appliances of the most advanced civilization. The misery of London is more repulsive than that of some other cities in its aspect, partly on account of the dinginess produced by the smoke, partly because it is crowded into such close quarters. The streets being, like those of ancient cities generally, too narrow and crooked for street railways, the people are compelled

to live close to the centres of employment, especially to the docks. *Still, when all allowances have been made, the bad quarters of London are a sad sight, and one which it may be morally useful to Dives amidst his purple and fine linen to have seen. They are sources of social and political danger, too, as recent outbreaks of their squalid turbulence have proved. They are the English Faubourg St.-Antoine.*" (P. 46.)

The italics, of course, are not in the book.

Your obedient servant, GOLDWIN SMITH.

TORONTO, September 4, 1888.

REPUBLICAN INTOLERANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One can easily understand how powerfully the intelligent and cultured classes of the North were drawn towards the Republican party in its younger days. To a believer in personal and political freedom, it undoubtedly did present attractions which were not to be found elsewhere. If that character had been maintained, it would no doubt be as strong in the intellectual centres of the country now as it was in days gone by. But instead of this, we find the Republican managers of to-day not only appealing directly to ignorance and prejudice for support, but even resorting to the most contemptible methods imaginable to suppress intelligent discussion.

A new illustration of this fact has recently come within the knowledge of the writer. In Denison University, the Baptist College of Ohio, R. S. Colwell, Professor of Greek, has been teaching political economy for some years. Though originally a protectionist, careful study of the subject convinced him that he was wrong, and brought him to the other side. Since the present campaign seemed to him to involve no other issue of so great importance as the tariff question, he naturally concluded to support the principles in which he believes, and, at the earnest request of a great many citizens, has made a few speeches in favor of tariff reform. Not being able to meet his arguments, the Newark *American*, the Republican county organ, manifested its chagrin in a personal attack so full of impotent abuse and bad English as to disgust the better class of Republicans as well as Democrats.

The editor of the Granville *Times*, the only other Republican paper in the community, at first resented such tactics, as calculated to make it impossible for an educated man to belong to the party; but the bulldozing element of the party seems to have suppressed his better judgment, for he is now engaged in the attempt to silence the Professor by inducing Republicans to boycott the College. As is usual in such cases, this petty persecution bids fair to defeat its own end. Republicans who have accepted high tariff as a party principle, without much reflection, are beginning to raise the question whether a doctrine which needs such methods of defence can be worth defending.

* * *

CAMPAIGN LYING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A daily paper has remarked within a few days, that "The Republican organs, that is, the honest ones, are slowly and painfully taking back the claim that the London *Times* ever said" a certain widely quoted thing, namely, that "The only use England has for an Irishman is when he emigrates to the United States, and votes for free trade." Whether or not the *North American Review* wishes itself to be classed among the "honest" Republican organs, or not, we cannot say. Certainly, however, the astonished reader who finds the above spurious citation in the September number of this *Review*, as the basis of five extended "Irish comments on an English text," can hardly be blamed for doubting its non-partisan character. The same number, it is true, contains an article on the other side, to which no other signature than "A Democrat" is appended.

It is not, however, to the giving place to the statement of opposing views that objection may be fairly taken; the motto, "Tros Tyriusve mihi nullo discrimine agetur" (almost the sole relic of the *Review* in the days when Felton, Bowen, and Hillard gave it its tone), could be appealed to as warrant for that. But the printing of the "text" above cited, which even the daily newspapers are tardily abandoning, is a painfully discreditable performance. It is, moreover, not very edifying to find, among the five signers to these "Comments," the name of one college professor, albeit he is the one duly engaged on the Wharton Foundation to teach a certain definite dogma. CIVIS.

MR. EDWARD ATKINSON'S REPORT ON BIMETALLISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have reason to know that my report on bimetallism in Europe is much valued by teachers and students in political economy as a book of reference, for the reason that the greater part of the volume is taken up by Taussig's admirable translation of Soetbeer's 'Materialen,' and the reports of leading geologists and mining engineers on the production of gold and silver.

I have a large number of copies of this report at my disposal, and shall be glad to send one to any teacher or student or librarian who will send me his address with stamps for eight cents for the postage.

I make this offer at the suggestion of one of my friends who thought the pile of reports ought not to remain unused.

Yours very truly, EDWARD ATKINSON.

BOSTON, September 8, 1888.

THE NEW FINE-ART MUSEUM IN DETROIT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A brief account of the building and successful opening of the new Art Museum in Detroit may be of interest to your readers. In the fall of 1882 a plan was proposed for holding an art loan exhibition, which it was hoped might lead to the establishment of a permanent art museum. In September of the following year the exhibition opened with a collection of something more than a thousand paintings and water-colors, drawn chiefly from the private collections of this city and of Cleveland, with contributions from numerous art dealers and artists living at a greater distance. The success of the exhibition was not to be measured solely by the artistic merit of its paintings, although this was considerably above the average of such collections. The attendance was large, over 134,000, and the influence of the exhibition, in quickening the interest of the public and in kindling the enthusiasm of a few art lovers, has been very great. Before the close of it the work of raising money for a permanent building was begun, and at the end of January, 1884, $40,000 had been raised in subscriptions of $1,000 each, the forty subscribers forming a corporation which has since increased its capital to $100,000 and erected the present building. While this work was in progress, a second exhibition was held in the spring of 1886, smaller than the first, but of greater average merit and equally successful. The result of the two exhibitions, and of the earnest and intelligent coöperation of the local newspapers, has been a widespread interest in the success of the undertaking, and the gradual education of the popular taste, I believe, to the point of really appreciating the fine collection which is presented to the public view in the opening of the new museum.

The building is a good example of late Romanesque architecture, substantial, fire-proof, and well adapted to its uses. There are already a few valuable paintings in the possession of the Museum—a "Marriage of St. Catharine," the gift of Pope Leo XIII.; a "Martyrdom of St. Andrew" by Murillo, a Claude Lorraine, Rembrandt Peale's "Court of Death," and several modern paintings of some merit. It was thought best to supplement these at the opening by a new loan exhibition of choice works, and Mr. George I. Seney of New York kindly allowed the use of a hundred of the most valuable paintings of his collection, and these, with fifty or sixty additional works from private galleries in this city, form a fairly representative exhibition of the work of that group of modern French artists whose influence dominates the art of our day—Corot, Daubigny, Dupré, Diaz, Rousseau, Decamps, Troyon, and their successors, Breton, Benj. Constant, Alfred Stevens, and others. Only the three masters, Millet, Gérôme, and Meissonier, are wanting, but their influence is present in the work of their pupils.

Some notion of German art may be gleaned from Achenbach, Knaus, Meyer von Bremen, Gabriel Max, and Munkacsy, who are represented, while Israels and Clays, Wahlberg and Salmson, Villegas and Escosura, Boughton and Burgess, Inness and George Fuller, give glimpses of what has been done in other parts of the world. Yet it remains an exhibition of modern French art, and such an exhibition as has rarely been seen in the West, and its opening is therefore an event of more than local importance.

The intelligent efforts and generous enthusiasm of the forty "immortals" who have provided us with this feast deserve great praise, and the example of an art museum founded and sustained by the coöperation of a number of people of moderate wealth may be an inspiration to some of the larger cities, which are waiting for a millionaire to die and leave such an institution founded as a monument to his memory. WM. W. HUDSON.

DETROIT, MICH., September 3, 1888.

Notes.

HARPER & BROS. publish directly 'Peninsular California,' by Charles Nordhoff, handsomely illustrated; 'The Land Beyond the Forest [Transylvania],' by Mme. E. Gerard; and a fifth number of the 'Franklin Square Song Collection.'

Ticknor & Co.'s fall announcements include 'Four Years with the Army of the Potomac,' by Gen. Regis De Trobriand; 'A Short History of the Secession War,' by Rossiter Johnson; 'The Other Side of War,' being letters from the headquarters of the U. S. Sanitary Commission with the Army of the Potomac, campaign of 1862, by Miss Kate P. Wormeley; 'Pen and Powder,' by Franc B. Wilkie of the Chicago *Times*; 'Songs and Ballads of the Old Plantation,' by Joel Chandler Harris and Eli Shepherd; three quarto illustrated editions of the popular songs "Marching through Georgia," "Nelly was a Lady," and

"Massa's in the Cold, Cold Ground"; Tennyson's 'Dream of Fair Women,' illustrated; 'Letters of Felix Mendelssohn to Ignaz and Charlotte Moscheles,' translated and edited by Felix Moscheles; a new volume of Essays by the late E. P. Whipple; 'Stories and Sketches,' by John Boyle O'Reilly; 'A Man Story,' by E. W. Howe; 'Steadfast,' by Rose Terry Cooke; 'Safe Building,' by Louis De Coppet Berg; and 'Ancient and Modern Lighthouses,' fully illustrated, by Major D. P. Heap.

The late Lester Wallack's "Memories of the Last Fifty Years" will appear in the October *Scribner's*.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have reissued in a neat and compact form, for popular sale, the ninth volume of Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge's edition of the works of Alexander Hamilton. This contains the 'Federalist.' The sole difference in the two issues is the omission of the irrelevant table of errata for the first eight volumes, and the list of omitted letters.

With the text of the late Helen Jackson's 'The Procession of Flowers in Colorado' our readers are doubtless familiar, and they will recall with pleasure the vividness of the coloring and the faithfulness of the sketch. But magazine articles are ephemeral, and, after their short lives, usually sink into the incomplete but grateful oblivion of 'Poole's Index to Periodical Literature.' The experiment of testing somewhat further their hold upon life by subjecting them to the ordeal of republication, is always an anxious one. No author, however, could reasonably ask to have the task of republication intrusted to more loving and judicious hands than those which have endeavored to preserve this work by "H. H.," in the form in which it comes to us from Roberts Bros., Boston. Twelve water-color drawings of a high degree of merit, by Miss Alice A. Stewart, have been placed by hand as marginal decorations on the generous pages in each copy of the limited edition. All of them are easily recognizable as the more attractive of the Colorado flowers described in the text, and all, with possibly one exception, have been drawn from specimens which a botanist would regard as characteristic. The heavy paper, good printing, and elegant binding harmonize completely with the text and the delineations.

As population and manufactures grow, so does the resulting material refuse augment, and its disposal becomes an ever-increasing problem for the sanitary engineer. The unsuccessful efforts at its solution are numerous, and the failures are costly, both in money and health. The latest and perhaps the best general discussion of it is Mr. J. W. Slater's 'Sewage Treatment, Purification, and Utilization' (London: Whittaker & Co.; New York: D. Van Nostrand), which, although written with special reference to British conditions, sets forth general principles that are applicable elsewhere under similar conditions. The author writes as an expert of twenty years' experience, and very wisely concludes "that there is no one process universally applicable." The volume discusses all recognized methods intelligently and with apparent fairness, though with decidedly expressed opinions, and we recommend it to an honorable place in the sanitarian's library.

Of theatrical autobiographies there is never any dearth, but just now the great success of 'Mr. and Mrs. Bancroft On and Off the Stage' has greatly stimulated their production in England. Two of the most recent are little pamphlets sketching the careers of two of the comic songsters or entertainers of London—'Corney Grain, by Himself' (London: John Murray), and 'A Society Clown,' by George Grossmith (Bristol: J. W. Arrowsmith). Both Mr. Grain and Mr. Grossmith are pleasantly innocent in their frank autobiographies, and inoffensively interested in themselves. Mr. Grain is a partner in the German Reed show, and Mr. Grossmith is the original *Sir Joseph Porter* and *Koko* in the Gilbert and Sullivan operettas; but both performers give entertainments in private houses—a regular business in London, where a dull society has to hire its amusers. To a cynical critic the chapters in which these gentlemen describe their relations to the society they delight, and their own adventures and misadventures therein, are much the most entertaining. Not a few of their little anecdotes a social observer might find typical. To the future historian of the English stage—if such a being shall ever exist—Mr. Grossmith's chapter on the rehearsing and performing of the Gilbert and Sullivan operettas will be useful.

M. Edouard Rod will be remembered as the author of an extremely sombre and pessimistic book which appeared some years ago under the title 'La Course à la Mort,' and which showed much ability. The author is still a young man, about thirty, and for several years has been Professor of Comparative Literature in the University of Geneva, and life now seems to have a healthy interest for him—at least in its literary aspects. He has collected some of his more recent papers into a volume: 'Études sur le dix-neuvième siècle—Giacomo Leopardi' (Paris: Perrin; Boston: Schoenhof). The article upon Leopardi is, however, only one among nearly a dozen which make up the volume; some of the more attractive of the others being "Les Véristes italiens," "Richard Wagner et l'Esthéthique allemande," and "Les Préraphaélites anglais."

The more noteworthy articles in the June and July numbers of the *Centralblatt für Bibliothekswesen* include a contribution to the Gutenberg-Coster controversy by A. Wyss, who disputes the conclusions of Hessels, and points out some of the weak places in the arguments of the Costerians; a note by J. Gildemeister, giving references to some Oriental works in which mention is made of the discovery of America; an article by Dr. Falk on the probable author of the colophon in the Catholicon of 1460, which is generally ascribed to Gutenberg, but which he believes was written by Conrad Humery; and a useful descriptive summary of the principal bibliographical works published in Belgium in 1887. The August number contains the first instalment of a full and interesting account of the discovery, by G. Merula, in 1494, of some twenty-five classical manuscripts in the Benedictine monastery of Bobbio.

The June number of the *Export Journal* (Leipzig) completes the first year of this polyglot "International Circular for the Book, Paper, and Printing Trades"; and Mr. Hedeler, the editor and publisher, deserves a word of commendation for the skill with which he has given fresh interest to each successive number, and a reference value to the yearly volume. Among the contents of more than temporary interest and value, may be mentioned the recent tariffs of Italy, Rumania, and the several British colonies of Australasia; the full text, in French, German, and English, of the International Copyright Union; and much information concerning the international (Smithsonian) exchange of books, by P. F. Richter, an intelligent and industrious librarian in the Royal Library at Dresden. Also, descriptive accounts of the publishing houses of Brockhaus, Baron Tauchnitz (Leipzig), Kröner Brothers (Stuttgart), Quantin (Paris), Sampson Low, and the Bible Society (London), Ricordi, and Hoepli (Milan), and two United States firms, Benziger & Co. and L. Prang & Co.

A Pottery and Porcelain Exhibition, with a competition for American workmen, will be opened by the Trustees of the Pennsylvania Museum and School of Industrial Art in Memorial Hall, Fairmount Park, Philadelphia, on October 16, closing on November 13. This is intended to be the first of an annual series of competitive exhibitions, taking up in turn all the various art industries. The Trustees have a yearly income of about $1,000, derived from a fund given by the late Joseph C. Temple for this purpose. For particulars the Secretary should be addressed at Memorial Hall. The enterprise seems in every way laudable.

—Mr. Mallock gives us, in his essay on Cyprus in *Scribner's* for September, a pretty illustration of the strong hold that a plausible error has on popular belief. There has been, he says, a general destruction of the forests in Cyprus, and, as a consequence, there has been "a great diminution of the rainfall." It is hardly likely that Mr. Mallock has studied with any care the mooted question involved in this unhesitating assertion; indeed, he may not know that it is in discussion among specialists in forestry and meteorology. Yet the relation of cause and effect is stated in his entertaining story with as much confidence as if it were a matter of direct record, like the destruction of the Abbey of Bella Pais by the Turks. Now, as soon as one begins to examine this matter, he will find that the diminution of rainfall as a consequence of forest-cutting in the countries around the Mediterranean is not proved by any valid line of argument. The possibility of the reverse relation does not seem to enter the popular mind; the desire to find an immediate cause for any suspected effect is too strong to be satisfied with remote and slow processes. But it is certainly possible that a decrease of rainfall consequent on a change in natural and widespread conditions could prevent the natural reforesting of a region from which the trees are cut off. May not this be the case in Cyprus? As to the "great diminution of the rainfall," this is pure imagination. There has doubtless been some decrease, for the geologic evidence of gradual desiccation is almost universal; but there is no evidence to show that the rainfall of the Mediterranean region was *much* greater than now in historic times. The best studies of the physical conditions of Greece in the classic period fail to discover that it was then a rainy country; as long as the country has been known it has had its droughts, and it has needed careful cultivation to secure good returns. When Cyprus was a power in the world, and gathered tribute from foreign nations to make good its natural deficiencies, it must have been a thrifty island; but, with the loss of power, there has been a steady decay of thrift. It is a difficult matter to manage a farm in a dry region. The farmer must be undisturbed in his work, and must have a good market near at hand; then let him but keep his irrigating canals in good repair, and, with a moderate rainfall, he will transform a dusty country into a garden. Cut down the forests, and the streams rise in freshets with every shower, and run dry in fair weather. The freshets wash out breaches in the canals, and the water is wasted. Barbarous invaders are as destructive as floods.

—The Report of the Factory Inspectors of the State of New York for the year 1887 contains a brief account of the proceedings of those officers and a large quantity of padding. Some twenty-five pages are devoted to an essay

upon the injury to health caused by the dust generated in the various manufactures—taken, apparently, from the Report of the Board of Health, and relating to matters wholly outside of the duties of the factory inspector. Nearly as many more are occupied with a detailed account of the addresses and proceedings at a meeting of factory inspectors held at Philadelphia, which was not attended by the inspectors of this State. Over a hundred pages are filled with extracts from the statute-books of other States, American and European, bearing upon the regulation of factory labor. The sixty pages of tables are merely office memoranda, and their meaning could have been given in a few lines. We call this matter padding, not because it might not have value in the hands of a commission appointed to report upon the regulation of factory labor, but because our factory inspectors are not competent to deal with such a subject. If intelligent and upright men can be obtained who will report what they have seen and done, and not attempt to make out a general policy of legislation, their reports upon our factories will have value. But while appointments are made as at present in this State, it cannot be expected that the suggestions of office-holders should command attention. Our factory inspector is not required by his position to devise a system of public education, and, judging from his report, he does not seem to be personally qualified to do so. So far as it is possible to judge of the work done by the inspectors from this record, we should say that it was of considerable value in causing the erection of fire-escapes, in compelling regard to decency, and in restricting the employment of young children. But the insolent tone in which some of the inspectors refer to their success in compelling manufacturers to adopt their interpretation of the law, shows how much the success of paternal legislation depends upon the character of those who carry it out.

—The tenth volume of the Proceedings of the Royal Library at Stockholm (*Kongl. Bibliotekets Handlingar*) contains the report of the Librarian, Dr. G. E. Klemming, and volume 2, for 1887, of the 'Accessions-Katalog.' This important library, the Riks-Bibliotek, or National Library of Sweden, was removed in the fall of 1877 from the Royal Palace to the most modern library structure in Scandinavia, a fine building beautifully situated in "Humlegaarden," an old park of considerable extent. It contained at that time about 200,000 volumes, besides a great many pamphlets, considerable collections of maps and engravings, and nearly 8,000 manuscripts. This library, which aims to contain as complete a collection as possible of Swedish literature, supplemented by the more important scientific and literary works published in foreign countries, is, by royal decree of November 9, 1877, divided into two chief divisions—the Swedish and the foreign. Of the accessions for 1887, according to the Report, 12,791 numbers (books, pamphlets, periodicals, maps, etc.) belonged to the first division, while to the foreign department 879 distinct works were added, consisting of 1,055 volumes and parts of volumes, and 264 pamphlets. The Swedish ordinance relating to the freedom of the press requires that a copy of everything printed in Sweden shall be sent to each of the two university libraries and to the library at Stockholm, and the officers of the latter institution are taking active measures to see that this deposit, so far as their library is concerned, is complete for each year. The Librarian reports that for 1886 nearly everything has been received, and he furnishes a table classifying the products of the printing-press of the country for that year. From this we learn that 524 new books were published in 862 volumes, and 664 works in process of publication were continued in 1,302 volumes or parts, while 6,280 pamphlets of less than 100 pages were printed. These figures do not include magazines and newspapers, of which there were 537 in course of publication during the year, 93 being new. As regards the subjects of the new books, fiction leads with 94 new novels, theology following with 81 new works, while 40 books were devoted to education, 35 belonged in the class of polite literature, and there were 25 biographies and 21 philological works.

—The list of accessions is an interesting experiment in coöperative cataloguing. Besides the Royal Library, Sweden possesses three others of importance—the university libraries at Lund and Upsala, and the library of the Royal Swedish Academy, the last containing the largest collection of books relating to the natural sciences in Sweden. There are, in addition, others of considerable size devoted to special literatures. But none of these, excepting the University library at Upsala (since 1850) and the library of the University at Lund (since 1853), have published lists of their accessions, and need was felt of some ready means of ascertaining, more especially, what new foreign literature was received at these various institutions. In 1886, therefore, an effort was made to secure through coöperation the preparation and publication of an annual catalogue which should indicate the books received at each of the more important libraries in the country. After some preliminary conferences a plan was formulated and carried into effect, and early in 1887 the first volume was published by the Royal Library, edited by one of its officers, Mr. Erik Wilhelm Dahlgren, containing the titles of all the books printed outside of Sweden which were received during 1886 at seven libraries, viz., the four already named, and the libraries of the Medical-Surgical Institute of Stockholm, the Academy of Belles-lettres, History and Antiquities, and the General Staff of the Army. The second volume, for 1887, which is contained in the *Handlingar* recently published, and is also issued separately within its own covers, is prepared upon the same general plan, but, in addition to the seven libraries represented in volume one, eight others are included, among them the library of the Swedish Parliament, and the libraries of two art institutions at Stockholm. While this publication is without doubt useful in Sweden, its value abroad would be greatly increased by the inclusion of books printed in that country. An annual catalogue of Swedish literature, published by authority, would be very valuable, not only for present use, but for future reference. The Royal Library, whose Swedish division is almost perfect, is well equipped for the production of a work similar to the annual catalogue of Norwegian books issued by the University of Norway, and it would be an act of graceful liberality upon the part of the Swedish Government, and but a well-deserved recognition of Mr. Dahlgren's competent services, if such annual appropriations were made for this work as would enable him to include each year the titles of all publications produced in Sweden.

—Among the accessions for 1887 we note an item of more than passing interest to Americans —namely, seventy-eight volumes printed in the United States in the Swedish language. These chiefly supplement the collection of Swedish periodicals published in this country made by Prof. T. N. Hasselquist of Augustana College, Rock Island, Ill., and now preserved in the Royal Library. A catalogue ('Svenska Tidningar och Tidskrifter utgifna inom Nord-Amerikas Förenta Stater: Bibliografisk öfversigt af Bernhard [Wilhelm] Lundstedt') was published in 1886, at which time the collection numbered 163 journals. The titles of these are recorded in chronological order from 1851, when *Skandinaven* was issued in New York city, to 1886; and an index of places shows their geographical distribution over sixteen States and Territories. Chicago is indicated as the centre of Swedish journalism in this country; no less than fifty-three different newspapers having appeared there from 1856 to 1886, while other cities in Illinois have been places of publication for twenty-one more. In New York and Minnesota occurs the next highest number, twenty-three for each State; fifteen papers appearing in the two cities of St. Paul and Minneapolis, and sixteen having been published during thirty-five years in New York city. In 1872-73 a single newspaper in Swedish was published in Maine, and one was begun in Washington Territory in 1885. None seem to have appeared further south than Missouri, five titles being credited to that State. Mr. Lundstedt's work is most painstaking, each title being prepared with elaborate care, every detail of the slightest importance being given, including the subscription price; the size of the printed page of each paper is stated in centimetres. At the end is a list of deficiencies; and should any one possessing copies of Swedish-American papers be willing to spare them to complete this unique collection, they may address Professor Hasselquist, or Mr. Lundstedt, Royal Library, Stockholm.

—Notwithstanding the Scotch prisoners sent by Cromwell to Boston, and the Huguenots who took refuge there, New England, in the judgment of Palfrey, was preëminently homogeneous and English, in fact, a new England. Proofs of an early race prejudice may be gathered in the State House archives in Boston. Some of them have never been printed. The following quaint sentence chronicles a jealousy of the Irish, and also shows the custom of persons selling themselves to pay their passage. It is from the report of a "Committee appointed by the General Court of the Colony of Massachusetts to consider proposals for the public benefit." Its date is October 29, 1654, and the signers were Daniel Gookin, Thomas Savage, Roger Clap, Richard Russell, and Francis Norton:

"This Court considering y^e^ Cruel and malignant Spirit y^t^ have from tyme to tyme byn manifest in y^e^ Irish Nation against y^e^ English Nation doe heerby declare thye pr^o^hibition of any Irish men women or children into this Jurisdiction on the penalty of fifty pounds sterling to each Inhabitant y^t^ shall buy off any merchant, ship m^r^ or other agent any such pson or psns soe transported by y^m^ w^ch^ fine shall be by the Cuntrys marshall on conviction off some magistrate or Court leavedd and be to the use of y^e^ Informer one third and two thirds to y^e^ Cuntry. This act to bee in force six months after publication of this order."

GEORGE PERKINS MARSH.

Life and Letters of George Perkins Marsh. Compiled by Caroline Crane Marsh. In two volumes. Vol. I. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1888.

'THE Life and Letters of George Perkins Marsh' takes us back to the beginning of this century. He was born in 1801, very near the time when Daniel Webster came to Woodstock to study law with Mr. Marsh's father, who had, three or four years before, been appointed United States District Attorney by General

Washington. He was born into one of the best of the professional families which then dominated New England. Leaders in all the learned professions were among his kinsfolk. His cousin, James Marsh, was President of the University of Vermont, and a leader of American thought in the exploration of German philosophy as interpreted by Coleridge. George P. Marsh was the flower of the family. When he was appointed Minister to Italy in 1861, he was the most eminent of American scholars, and one of the most eminent of American statesmen, and he remained at that post for twenty-one fruitful and honorable years. Writers of twenty or thirty years ago generally designate him as a philologist, the new 'Cyclopædia of American Biography' designates him as a diplomatist, and in both characters he deserves a memorial volume.

The present volume is due to the pious labors of his wife, and it deals most with his personal character, his growth and life as a man. The first part is the most interesting. He was a universal genius, it seems. The author narrates with classic simplicity and clearness anecdotes which show his early love for nature, the plastic arts, music, mechanics, languages, books, science. He was very fond of working with tools and watching workmen, but his great delight was, like Macaulay's, to lie on his elbows and read a book. The 'Encyclopædia Britannica' was his favorite at the age of seven, and to have the undisturbed enjoyment of it he used to drag it under dark tables. Before he was observed he had ruined his eyes. He was not allowed to read freely again till he was eleven, and he had to use glasses all the rest of his life. Meantime, he had made remarkable development in hearing. His passion for music was strong, his sensibility for the most delicate musical notes was quick, he knew the notes of all the birds; all loud or harsh sounds gave him acute physical pain—the sounds of church bells among the rest. He learned Latin and Greek *viva voce*, his brothers reading them to him. In this way the habits were acquired which made him so remarkable a linguist. He could speak any language as soon as he could read it fluently. When he heard a language spoken by natives, he always joined in the conversation, and showed as wonderful power of reproducing vocal sounds as of catching them.

He entered Dartmouth College in 1816. He had been a few months at Phillips Academy, Andover, in 1815, but his father said he never knew how or when George prepared for college. He passed in with credit. That might well be: his father was a trustee, and the Marsh boys were well known in Hanover; an elder brother had lately graduated with the highest honors. But he was at once recognized by his classmates as a prodigy of scholarship, and next to Rufus Choate, who was two classes before him, and unapproachable in brilliancy, he was the hero of his day in college. He handled the mathematics like a Newton, read immensely in Greek and Latin, "read the Greek poets and historians with as much ease as an ordinary man would read a newspaper," plunged into Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, French, German; and yet it is said that he never spoke of his college life in after years except to blame himself for wasted time, or to praise Choate or some other fellow-student. After graduating at the head of his class, he taught school a while, in the old New England fashion, like John Adams, and Daniel Webster, and Rufus Choate, and the rest. Choate was a college tutor. But Marsh was a failure; he soon had enough of teaching to last him through life. Long afterwards he was offered professorships at Harvard and elsewhere, but he was not to be tempted. "What can I say more?" he writes in 1859. "I hate boys, hate tuition, hate forms, and possess only one qualification for the place, namely, poverty."

He studied law and practised for about twenty years. In 1843 he was elected a representative in the Congress of the United States. These twenty years were the fruitful period of his philological life. He very early became interested in the northern races from whom the English are descended, and applied himself to the study of their languages and literature and antiquities. In 1832 (1832–1864) he was in frequent correspondence with Prof. Rafn of the University of Copenhagen, writing indifferently in English and Danish. In 1838 he printed an Icelandic grammar. He collected the rarest books in these northern languages and read them. He also wrote articles about them, and delivered orations—or, at least, an oration, a great one, delivered before the Philomathesian Society of Middlebury, Vermont, in 1843. At that time these languages and literatures, the Anglo-Saxon and Icelandic, were as remote from common scholarly knowledge as Algonkin or Choctaw. The swarm of German scholars had not yet lighted upon them. Grimm's knowledge of 'Beowulf' was talked of much as Mr. Trumbull's knowledge of Eliot's Bible is now. Four or five Englishmen were working with Grimm or after him. The Kembles were lamenting that John Mitchell Kemble was nothing better than the chief of Anglo-Saxonists in England. No one of them was to be compared for a moment with Mr. Marsh in general mental vigor or special linguistic genius. His published works are eminently fresh and original, not professorial, not of any school, not discussions of other students' views, but clear statements of what he saw with his own eyes in his own copies of the original works, with the comments of an American thinker. His 'Lectures on the English Language,' delivered before the post-graduates of Columbia College in 1859, and 'Lectures on the Origin and History of the English Language and Its Early Literature,' delivered before the Lowell Institute in 1860, were almost extemporaneous utterances from the stores of his earlier studies, but they were everywhere recognized as the best books of their kind, and they are still counted among the books which no gentleman's library can be without. Philologists, who have been in the habit of thinking of Mr. Marsh mainly as the chief of the American scholars of his time, may be disappointed to find that the life and letters have the briefest reference to his linguistic life. No part of his philological correspondence is given, and apparently little of it has been recovered. He never kept a journal, and seldom talked about his past. He had conscientious scruples about it, it seems; so that the data for a biography as a mental record are very scanty. We have to thank the memory of the accomplished friend who shared his hours of study for such record as is preserved.

Mr. Marsh was a member of the House of Representatives from 1843 to 1849, the time of the annexation of Texas, the Mexican war, and the organization of the Smithsonian Institution. We get a lively picture of the life at Washington in those days, with many interesting anecdotes. One is worth copying. An English friend inquired of Mr. Marsh "how much his Congressional elections had cost him." His answer was, "Not so much as a glass of wine. I never asked a man to my house for the sake of his vote, nor, so far as I can now remember, did I ever do any man any service with that end in view. In my State such things are not necessary." In 1849 Mr. Marsh was appointed Minister to Turkey. He returned to America in 1854. Half the volume is occupied with letters of this period. Kossuth and Koszta figure in it, and sketches of life in Constantinople and Athens, and of travels in Egypt and Palestine and Europe.

The rest of this first volume is devoted to the eight following years of Presidents Pierce and Buchanan, and closes with Mr. Marsh's appointment, by President Lincoln, as Minister to Italy in 1861. He had declined a Senatorship from Vermont, and other inviting positions, under the compulsion of pecuniary embarrassment. He had in his early life engaged in building up a village of woollen factories. Changes in the tariff had ruined him; after a struggle of many years, he finally gave up all his property to his creditors, and "at the age of fifty-nine began the world with a debt of ten thousand dollars in good new notes, and not a shilling to pay it with." He put all his talents to the exchangers, wrote for the periodicals, delivered lectures. He did not succeed as a popular lecturer. He spoke quietly and rapidly, and spoke close-packed sense—most likely, also, a good many long words.

Most men of any size have different aspects from the spear side and the spindle side. This book is a spindle-side view of Mr. Marsh. He was a big, vehement, masterful man among men, full of vitality and good cheer, and a certain ponderous wit or humor. But no man was tenderer towards woman. Reverence for woman was common to the Puritans of New England, and with good reason. It was a marked trait of the Marshes, and strongly accented in George P. Marsh. As a child, he "manifested a strong predilection for the companionship of girls rather than of boys"; in later life "he invariably shunned *gentlemen's* parties"; his letters are written to ladies by preference. He finds it easier to write to them, he says, even when he means the letters for their husbands. His public addresses abound in eloquent paragraphs in their honor. His wife he made his inseparable companion. Through the largest part of this book she is spoken of as unable to walk or stand, but means are found to take her over the continents, through galleries of art, through deserts, up mountain peaks supposed to be inaccessible, the strong arms of her husband being always ready. His biography is in one sense her reminiscences, and it is none the less charming for that. In one respect, however, it is a painful book. Mr. Marsh's suffering from the sickness and death of his kinsfolk and friends is so acute and so frequent as to make one feel as though woe were always impending.

Mr. Marsh was always an early riser. His working time was between five and nine in the morning. He struck an average when he was a lawyer by sleeping in his office while his partner listened to bores; in the House of Representatives it was a standing pleasantry to predict when J. Q. Adams and G. P. Marsh would go to sleep. He read as fast as another man would turn the leaves of a book, and his habit was to begin in the middle and read both ways. He read many books at once, changing from one to another every hour or so. In his familiar letters he is much of a polyglot, and a punster, of course. He sends Mr. Baird "some, bestimi I suppose, that *hibernate* in summer. It's a real hibernicism, isn't it?" A great many letters, by the way, are to Mr. Baird of the Smithsonian—letters of friendship mainly, but filled with an amateur's talk about natural science, which is not Mr. Marsh's best aspect. He speaks of some one as thinking him strong in punctuation, and not wholly ignorant of Low Dutch, but in "science" a dummy. He was

not that. He was a true lover of nature. It was one of his favorite thoughts that this love naturally grows deeper and warmer in old age. His last great book is on man and nature—'The Earth as Modified by Human Action.'

A second volume is to tell the story of the twenty-one fruitful years which Mr. Marsh spent as Minister to Italy.

MEMORIALS OF ARCHBISHOP TRENCH.

Richard Chenevix Trench, Archbishop: Letters and Memorials. Edited by the author of 'Charles Lowder.' 2 vols. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. 1888.

THESE "Letters and Memorials" are a very inadequate record of a man who was distinguished and remarkable in a variety of ways. Dr. Trench was a poet and a theologian; and as Archbishop of Dublin the difficult task devolved upon him of reconstituting the Anglican Church in Ireland after the passing of Mr. Gladstone's measure of disestablishment. Previous to his promotion to the Archiepiscopal see, he had been Dean of Westminster, and these ecclesiastical offices (conjointly with the position he occupied in the world of letters) brought him into contact with all that was most distinguished, intellectually or socially, in the England of his day. The biography of such a man would have been replete with interest, but the Archbishop, it appears, had laid an injunction upon his family—or had, at any rate, very emphatically expressed his desire—that after his death no record of his life should be given to the world. His widow has obeyed this injunction in the letter, though hardly in the spirit. The "Letters and Memorials" contained in the two volumes we are noticing do not profess to be a life of the Archbishop. They are only a selection from his correspondence and journals, with just so much of connecting narrative as to make their contents intelligible to the general reader. They constitute, in other words, a bad and imperfect biography. Far better would it have been, in our judgment, either absolutely to obey the wishes of the Archbishop or altogether to have disregarded them. The present work is a needless and unprofitable addition to that huge mass of printed matter purporting to be books, but which are such only in name and outward appearance, like Charles Lamb's backgammon boards.

The future Archbishop of Dublin was born in that city on September 5, 1807. He was, however, Irish only through the accident of his birth. His parents were of French extraction, and his life, until he became Archbishop, was almost wholly spent in England. For young men of thoughtful and imaginative temperaments, the England of the first forty years of this century must have been a highly stimulating atmosphere in which to live. It was a period of heroic achievements by sea and land, of a wonderful outbreak of genius at home. By the long and at last victorious struggle which Great Britain had maintained against the power of Napoleon, she had established for herself a foremost place among the nations; and, simultaneously with this, Byron, Shelley, Keats, Scott, Wordsworth, and Coleridge appeared in a constellation of genius second only to the brightness of the Elizabethan era. The effect of these occurrences upon the minds of Trench and his companions is discoverable in the youthful correspondence published in these volumes. In his university days at Cambridge he was one of a small society of young men nearly all of whom rose to eminence in after days. John Sterling, Arthur Hallam, Alfred Tennyson, Frederick Maurice, and Trench himself are the best known names among them. Others were John Kemble, Spedding, Venables, Charles Buller, Richard Milnes. The most interesting portion of these "Memorials" consists of the letters which in these early days passed between Trench and his friends, Sterling, Maurice, Hallam, Kemble, and others. A devouring earnestness, a passion for reforming the world, are the characteristics common to each member of this group of friends. They feed their minds on the poetry of Wordsworth and the philosophy of Coleridge. They write at immense length to each other upon the state of their respective souls. They are filled with faith in the great possibilities shortly to emerge from the bosom of time. They are all champions of liberty and the enemies of tyranny, and in this double character the future Archbishop, together with other youthful and ardent spirits, actually sailed from England in company with a band of refugee Spanish patriots for the purpose of overthrowing the Spanish monarchy. He had a narrow escape from being shot—a fate which overtook every member of this unlucky party with the exception of Trench and Kemble. At the same time, he was as far as possible from being a revolutionist of the French destructive type.

"To me," he writes in 1831, shortly after his return from Spain, "it seems that an aristocracy is necessary as the representative of the continuity of the consciousness of a nation. Unless there be something in a country not embraced by the birth and death of the fleeting generation which at any moment may compose it, you may have a horde, you may have a sovereign people, but you cannot have a nation. If it be a nation, it must look before and after. This, as of an individual, is its highest humanity. And there is no way that we can be called off from the demands of the ever importunate present; there is no way of binding it with indissoluble links to the past and future unless you preserve this body, in whom, after a manner, is involved the history of the past and prophecy of the future. Believing this, I would welcome the fiercest civil war before a government of clubs and unions."

Trench entered holy orders in the year 1832. From that time until his translation to the See of Dublin in 1863, he floated prosperously along the stream of ecclesiastical preferment, and it was during these thirty years that the greater part of his theological works were written. He was, of course, strongly opposed to the act for the disestablishment of the English Church in Ireland, and it does credit to his political foresight that he discerned the far-reaching consequences of that policy a great deal more clearly than did Mr. Gladstone or any other of its supporters. The following prophetic extract from a charge of his delivered in 1868 is quoted in the 'Memorials':

"When our establishment is denounced as a badge of conquest, what is this but the saying, in a way which is meant should irritate some portion of the Irish people, that the past has bequeathed its results to the present? But so it has done everywhere, and in ten thousand ways. In the historic life of nations there is no escaping the dominion of the past. If it be attempted to ignore its verdicts, to reverse its decisions, to undo what it has done, a far larger task will have to be taken in hand than merely the overthrow of our establishment. The possession by Protestant landlords of seven-eighths of the soil of Ireland—is not that a badge of conquest far more impressive, and with social and political results immeasurably more significant, than any which we can offer? Must that, also, close? Might not the whole present framework of things, the Viceroyalty, nay, the Royalty itself, which is behind the Viceroyalty, by the same right, or by a better, be termed badges of conquest; and, if all which keeps record of the great decisions of the past must needs be abolished, the removal of these on the same plea be demanded? When is a movement like this to stop? This much is certain, that, if once allowed, it will not stop exactly where those intend and desire who have set it agoing, any more than the rock which has been detached from the mountain-top will pause upon its side exactly where he who impelled it may desire."

Failing to avert disestablishment, the Archbishop addressed himself with unabated courage to the task of reconstructing the shattered Church after the blow had fallen. A more difficult and harassing task for a man of the Archbishop's temperament and convictions never devolved upon mortal man. He was a High Churchman, logically, if not explicitly, committed to the depressing tenet that outside of the Anglican Church there was small hope of the salvation of the devoutest Christian. To the Anglican Church belonged the Apostolical succession, on which depended the regenerating power of the sacrament of Baptism, and the real Presence in that of the Holy Communion. For the disestablished Church in Ireland to do aught in the process of reconstitution which might cut it off from communion with the Church in England, was tantamount, in the eyes of the Archbishop, to its destruction as a church, and its reduction to the level of a dissenting sect. The Irish laity, on the other hand, with whom he had to work, regarded the very things which the Archbishop held essential to the life of a church as survivals of Papacy, and drew, at least, this consolation from the fact of disestablishment—that now they could purge the Irish Church from all contamination by them. Further to aggravate the difficulties of the situation, there were behind the Archbishop his High-Church friends in England—Dr. Pusey, Canon Liddon, Wilberforce of Winchester—anxiously watching the strife, and shrieking out at intervals that the Irish Church would be no longer a church if this or that thing came to pass. Under these circumstances, Dr. Trench would seem to have acted with a rare combination of tact, firmness, and judgment, and he succeeded ultimately in bringing the Irish Church out of the fray considerably mutilated in the ecclesiastical sense, yet not so grossly defaced but that a High Churchman in England might condescend still to recognize her as a poor relative.

In conclusion, we must express our strong disapproval of a miscellaneous correspondence of this kind being given to the public without either an adequate table of contents or anything answering to an index. Scattered through the letters, especially those from Mr. John Sterling, which are the pleasantest and most suggestive among them, there are many things one would like to recall; but, without an index, they are almost as irrecoverable as the proverbial needle in the bundle of hay.

A Century of Ballads. Collected, Edited, and Illustrated in Facsimile of the Originals, by John Ashton. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The English and Scottish Popular Ballads. Edited by Francis James Child. Part V. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

MR. ASHTON has been known for some years past as a professional book-maker, who has devoted himself in particular, though he has not confined himself, to the illustration of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. The first of the volumes under review is one of his latest productions. It consists of about eighty poems arranged under the nine various headings of Social, Supernatural, Historical, Love, Drinking, Sea, Naval and Military, Sporting, and Local and Miscellaneous Ballads. They all belong or seem to belong to the seventeenth century; for in most cases nothing is given to fix positively the date.

The work is got up in sumptuous style, and

the expense bestowed upon it is in striking contrast with the character of its contents. Looked at from a literary point of view, the poems contained in it are about as worthless as those of any collection that industrious dulness has ever succeeded in gathering together. It would perhaps be no more than justice to give it precedence over all similar collections that have been made. These ballads may, indeed, be supposed to have some value as illustrating the manners and feelings of the past, and this is the special claim to consideration which their compiler sets up for them. Still, even in this respect they will be found in most cases to be of as little importance as they are of interest. It needs no one to come from the dead to tell us that some parents have opposed the wishes of their children in the matter of marriage, that some husbands have been drunkards and brutes, that some wives have been shrews, and that, in fine, human nature has in former centuries exhibited itself in the same agreeable or disagreeable ways that it does in the nineteenth. The truth is, these ballads seem to have been selected almost entirely for the cuts with which they were headed. Upon the faithful reproduction of these in facsimile Mr. Ashton prides himself unreservedly. As works of art it is not necessary to discuss their merits. It is sufficient to say that while the volume appears to have been got up for their sake, it has not been so ostensibly; and it militates accordingly against the eternal fitness of things that literary matter so utterly wretched should be clothed in a guise so elegant.

The original matter which the editor has prefixed to the collection of ballads is marked by some novel and surprising information, and by criticism which is even more novel and surprising than the information. There is this to be said for it, that it contains one piece which surpasses in literary value anything and everything else to be found in the book. This is "The Nut-Brown Maid," which "pretty poem," as Mr. Ashton calls it, he gives in full, as it might not be familiar to some of his readers, and he is honestly of opinion that it "is worthy of a place in the literature of its century." This betokens a judicious attitude of mind. It is clear that enthusiasm of the sort which comes from the late discovery of what is known to every one else will never lead Mr. Ashton astray. His general criticism of this piece, and the information collected in his Introduction, tend to impress firmly upon us the conviction that in the course of his seventeenth-century investigations he is likely to alight upon a certain epic called "Paradise Lost," which he will be disposed to consider a pretty good thing —at least a pretty good thing for its time and of its kind. Only in case he undertakes to print his discovery, it is to be hoped that he will edit it with more care and knowledge than he has bestowed upon "The Nut-Brown Maid." The obvious errors of the original are here not once corrected, and the words he selects for explanation either require none or are explained wrongly when they do. Some of the blunders made are of the grossest sort. *The ton*, for instance, which is a common form for 'the one,' is gravely rendered by "the town," and the interjection *loo*, a variant form of "lo," is interpreted 'loved.' As the only poem worth reading in this quarto of three hundred and fifty pages, it is annoying to have it reproduced in this slipshod fashion.

It is always pleasant to pass from the work of the compiler to that of the scholar. In this instance the leap is one of the longest conceivable. In the fifth part of the collection of English and Scottish Ballads now under notice we have a further outcome of the researches of the one man who, in the ballads of our tongue, is the greatest authority now living, and it is not too much to say the greatest authority that has ever lived. The progress of the work has been so often noticed in these columns that there is little opportunity left to speak in new terms of the finish and perfection with which everything connected with the subject has been treated, as well as of the exhaustive learning that has been brought to bear upon every particular poem that is printed. The part before us consists of forty-two ballads, almost all of which belong to the Robin Hood cycle. It is interesting to observe how in these the usual law of the development of the hero's reputation has been reversed; how, in the events recorded in the later pieces as contrasted with the earlier, the prowess of the famous outlaw steadily diminishes instead of increasing. The readers of 'Ivanhoe' will note, too, several of the places from which Scott derived his incidents. Of a more wide-reaching interest is the introduction to the ballad of "Adam Bell, Clym of the Clough, and William of Cloudesley." It is a mine of information in regard to the widely diffused series of stories connected with the shooting at an apple, or some other object, in close proximity to a living person, of which the most famous exemplar is the legend of William Tell. But the whole volume, like those which have preceded it, is full of illustrative matter, in which the learning of the East and the West has been brought together so as to shed light upon the subject of which the particular ballad treats. It is gratifying to see this great work going on steadily to its completion, for it is preëminently one of the kind that will never have to be done a second time. In this instance the worth of the contents will admit of any extent of external decoration, and the beautiful form in which the publishers have produced the collection corresponds fitly to its internal value.

The Photographic Negative, written as a practical guide to the preparation of sensitive surfaces, etc. By the Rev. W. H. Burbank. Scovill Manufacturing Co. 1888.

THERE is a defect running through the literature of photography, with few exceptions (and these mainly books of scientific investigators who had something new to say, and, being in earnest, said it in the fewest words possible, or at least with no idle repetition), which we wish to press home on the minds of the professional writers on photography, for it is making their literature a nuisance. We mean the extravagant tendency to pad their books out to large dimensions by the insertion of matters already worn out by repetition, and often of no practical value—apparently because the really important matter is so little that, if the work were limited to it, the dimensions of the volume would be incommensurate with the ambition of the author. What is necessary to be said with regard to practical photography, and would be of real utility to the learner, could be said in a book of half the bulk of this, which is devoted to the production of the negative, and, after all, does not say one word on the most important point in reference to this particular subject. But the photographic author, being generally a tyro in letters, magnifies the importance of his office, and cannot satisfy his aspirations with a small book, such as would result from the exclusion of all matter not really of moment. He therefore goes over all the well-known ground of past experience, and loads his book with pages of information as profitable as the geography of Ptolemy.

The author of this book, for instance, goes through all the details of some twenty-odd negative processes, some of which never had any value, as, for instance, Canon Beechey's, Capt. Abney's, Sutton's, Vogel's, the Gum-gallic, and some others of doubtful utility, while the greater part by far have now only an historic interest, and not more than three of the whole have any practical existence for the photographer. The old wet collodion, the simple washed collodion emulsion, and the gelatine processes are all that any person can require for practical purposes; and even from the enormous number of modifications made by the crowd of experimenters in the three or four distinct processes, our author's selections have been rather at random than from any knowledge of their actual working qualities. Thus, of Canon Beechey's process, which was only a trivial modification of the collodio-bromide emulsion, he says that it possessed "technical qualities of about one-half the sensitiveness of wet plates," which is simply absurd; the best of the processes of this type never passing the fifth of the sensitiveness of wet plates. The principal fact remaining of Capt. Abney's processes (for he discovered several, none of which were of any worth) is that the adoption of one of them resulted in losing all the photographic results of one of the eclipse expeditions. The author recommends Vogel's combined emulsion process, not seeming to know that it was a nostrum, and easily exploded in practical working out, and certainly never having tried it, which must have been the case with regard to most of the processes he describes.

Under remarks on exposure, etc., the author says that "the time of exposure is inversely as the distance of the objects to be photographed. To this law is due the reproduction of the effect known as aerial perspective"! This passes human comprehension, and throws a very grave imputation on the author's elementary scientific education, to say the least. There is no such law to begin with, and "the effect known as aerial perspective" is due simply to the intervention of illuminated vapor between the observer and the distance. An object five miles away is photographed as quickly as one ten miles away; but when objects are brought within very close range of the lens the focus is lengthened, and then the exposure of the plates is prolonged according to another law, stated correctly by the author: "The time of the exposure varies directly as the focal lengths of the objectives (lenses)"; but there is no approach to the variation indicated in the other "law."

The historical part of the book is extremely incomplete as history and imperfect as description. The tannin process, as discovered and first put into practice by Major Russell, was a pure bromide process, and it was afterwards applied to iodo-bromide. The collodio-bromide emulsion was not in the least due to Gaudin, though he had suggested something like it; and in the entire history no mention is made of the important practical discovery that an emulsion made with an excess of nitrate of silver possesses a degree of sensitiveness so much greater than that of the first emulsion of Sayce and Bolton, that it changed the character of all the work done with emulsions. The whole of this portion of the book is cursory, and evidently only wanted to swell out the volume.

With regard to the really important subject of the so-called orthochromatic film-plates, the author really gives no original information, nor does he approach the subject in a way to enable the reader to benefit by his experience, if he have any—which seems to

be a matter of question. The whole subject of equalizing the values of colors as rendered by photography is still a very obscure one, and there is grave doubt if there is any chemical effect in the action of the dyes used; that the color of the dye has any connection with increased sensitiveness to the relative color, is clearly not the case. This will be made evident by exposing a picture in which the colors require compensation to the yellow sunset light to be photographed, when the same effect will be found as is caused by the tint on the film, which again must be aided by a yellow screen in front of the lens—an additional indication that the effect produced is optical and not chemical. We remember twenty-five years ago that a photographer in Rome introduced the practice of photographing the old masters with the colored glass in front of his lens. When the subject comes to be thoroughly investigated by scientific method, it will probably be found that the orthochromatic effect is due to certain relations between exposure and development, as is said to be the opinion of Angerer of Vienna, one of the most successful of the picture photographers, the dye added to the film having simply the effect of unequally prolonging the exposure necessary. The orthchromatic plate fails on the spectrum.

But one subject on which the author might have given a much-needed light is that of the character of the negative required for special process-work, the manner of getting the best results for the one or the other of the numerous processes now in use—on all which he says nothing. Yet this is one of the most important elements in the business and one of the least understood, and on which, therefore, new and luminous instructions are needed.

Martin Van Buren. By Edward M. Shepard. [American Statesmen.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888.

WHATEVER judgment may be passed upon Van Buren by the readers of this book, they can certainly have but one opinion concerning the author: he has produced a masterpiece. We are at a loss whether to admire more the form or the substance of his work. Not many of our professed men of letters surpass him in mere literary skill—in facility of expression and in the art of setting forth facts in an interesting way. Very few of our historians equal him in the power of characterizing a political era, or in the breadth of the view which he takes of our political development. The problem of explaining the relations of the cliques that struggled for the control of the government of the State of New York is especially difficult, nor is it, in our judgment, an attractive one, but Mr. Shepard's familiarity with these details enables the reader to follow him with intelligence and with pleasure.

It must be said that the personality which furnishes the title to this book is not a striking one. Martin Van Buren was unquestionably a man of polished manners ("a perfect imitation of a gentleman," Bacourt called him) and decorous life. His legal attainments were considerable, and his statesmanship was dignified. But he had none of the strongly marked features that withstand the effacing influences of time. Perhaps it would be impossible to paint his portrait otherwise than in faint colors, and, in fact, Mr. Shepard scarcely attempts to inform us as to his private life or as to his personal relations. He presents him almost exclusively as a "statesman," and we think that his judgment is sound in this, not only because of the title of the series, but also because of the limitations of the individual. With this end in view he begins naturally with an account of the political theories and tendencies prevalent at the opening of Van Buren's career, and then passes to the great questions with which he was called to deal—the relations of the Government to the banks and to slavery.

To a considerable extent Mr. Shepard finds himself committed to a vindication. Van Buren had been trained among the fierce factional contests of New York politics, and had been taught neither to give nor to ask quarter. It would have been strange had he repudiated the maxim, *Væ victis;* and yet, as Mr. Shepard shows, he was more merciful than most of his contemporaries. Mr. Shepard is so ardent a civil-service reformer that he seems to us to be needlessly concerned about Van Buren's reputation on this point. The spirit of the Federalists was so contrary to that of democracy, and the bitterness of party feeling at that day was so intense, that it is at least doubtful if it was not necessary that all Federalists should be hunted out of office. In such a seething political caldron, most office-holders were, it is safe to say, "offensive partisans," and, as was the case in 1861, the people would not tolerate the retention in office of men who held views that were looked upon as little less than treasonable. Under Lincoln, it must be remembered, the changes were far more sweeping than ever before.

As to the charges of insincerity and double-dealing commonly made against Van Buren, Mr. Shepard wholly rejects them, and rejects them after having examined the evidence. He entered upon the investigation supposing the charges to be true, and found that they could not be supported. We may say that he has at least shifted the burden of proof. His plea is an extremely able one, and we will only urge against it the rather remarkable unanimity of contemporary opinion. It must be said, too, that the reader is not altogether free from the feeling that Mr. Shepard holds a brief, and that his attitude is not absolutely judicial. We do not object to this, for Van Buren is certainly entitled to the benefit of counsel, but we think that the judgment of his contemporaries is a circumstance that requires a little more consideration than Mr. Shepard gives it.

Upon some points, however, Mr. Shepard's argument is certainly triumphant. This man accused of insincerity and duplicity actually distinguished himself upon two occasions by devotion to principle. On both occasions his course was unpopular, and he knew that it would be probably fatal to his political future, but he did not flinch from the sacrifice. The first of those occasions was when, after the panic of 1837, he insisted upon financial conservatism and sobriety on the part of the Government, against a howling mob of ruined jobbers and speculators. It cost him his reëlection in 1840. The second was when he declared that slave territory should not be enlarged by the annexation of Texas. This cost him his renomination in 1844.

As to Van Buren's rank among our Presidents, Mr. Shepard justly declares that he does not belong among the mediocrities or accidents of the White House—among Monroe, Harrison, Tyler, Polk, Taylor, Fillmore, and Pierce. Nor is he upon the same plane as Jackson and the elder Adams. We are inclined to add that he is likely to stand much higher in the judgment of posterity than he would have, had it not been for Mr. Shepard's book. Viewed as a rhetorical achievement alone, this essay is admirable; and it certainly casts a strong and not unpleasing light upon a rather dark period in our political history.

An Introduction to the Study of the Middle Ages (375-814). By Ephraim Emerton, Ph.D., Professor of History in Harvard University. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1888. 8vo, pp. 268.

THE four hundred and fifty years or so between Constantine and Charlemagne form one of the most interesting and important as well as one of the most perplexing periods of history. It was the period of the transition from the ancient to the modern world, marked by three independent phases of transformation, any one of them vital enough to make an epoch in the history of humanity—the Christianization of Europe, the breaking up of the Roman Empire into new monarchies of German nationality, and a complete revolution in government and institutions. With the last of these, with the final establishment of feudalism, we have the Middle Ages proper. The merging of nationalities and the substitution of the Christian for the pagan ideal of life were slow and obscure processes; but the aspect of the period, at once the most difficult and the least understood, is in regard to the growth of feudal institutions. We have not until now possessed any book which would serve as a guide to this period from this three-fold point of view. These are historical treatises in abundance, ranging in fulness from Gibbon's great work to Mr. Curteis's excellent compendium; but no book specifically designed to meet the wants of the student. It is Mr. Emerton's great merit that he has carefully defined his field of labor, limiting himself to just these centuries, and for the most part to just the three points of view which we have indicated—the way in which the German nationality took possession of the Empire, the way in which the Christian Church took possession of society, and the way in which a new type of government was evolved, to meet the needs of a new type of society. This last subject necessarily carries him a little beyond the limits which he had set for himself. Feudalism came after Charlemagne, but could not be neglected; we have therefore a chapter following those upon Charlemagne, upon "The Beginnings of the Feudal System."

The book is distinctively a guide to students, not a final and complete account of its subject, although as a *history* it has high merit and a certain completeness within its limits. The Introduction is entitled "Suggestions to Teachers," and is followed by a list of books of a general character. Each chapter, moreover, begins with a well-selected list of books, containing, wherever necessary, a judicious appreciation of the works cited, whether as authorities or as modern works. For the modern literature we will say that it might have been well to make these discriminating remarks more general and detailed. A chronological table and an index complete the volume.

The part of the work which is most new, or which at all events contains most matter that is not generally accessible, is those chapters which treat of the period of the Frank Empire, chapters vii to xiv; especially, we think, that upon Germanic Ideas of Law, and the two historical chapters which treat of Charles Martel and Pepin. The two chapters upon Charlemagne contain an admirable and lucid account of the work of this great man, while that upon Feudalism is, we have no doubt, the best and clearest analysis of that institution to be found in the English language. The maps deserve special mention, as being about the first historical maps of Europe produced in this country of genuine and original merit. They are not copied from other works, but are specially designed to illustrate this book. The first is the Rhine-Danube Frontier before "The Great Mi-

grations"; here we should suppose that the Vandals ought to have been placed further west, on the other side of the Danube. The second is "Lines of March of the German Tribes." It seems to us misleading to commence the Ostrogoth line of march in Pannonia, as if this were their original seat. The successive points of the several migrations are indicated by dates; we would suggest that the date of the Burgundian settlement at Worms should be added. The map of "The Germans in the Empire" (for A. D. 500—by the way, dates ought to be affixed to the maps) contains useful dates on the face of the map for the settlement and occupation of the several countries. The maps of the "Frankish Kingdom under the Merovingians" and "under the Carolingians" will be very acceptable to students, as containing really accurate and intelligible boundary lines, as well as all the detail which they need. The last map, "Church Centres in Europe in the time of Charlemagne," contains material which we believe is not elsewhere accessible in English.

Life on the Congo. By the Rev. W. Holman Bentley. London: Religious Tract Society. Illustrated. Pp. 126, 8vo.

Mr. Bentley is of the Baptist Mission. His book is not descriptive, but relates mainly to the habits, customs, and beliefs of the natives. He appears to be a careful observer and has collected many interesting facts. Incidentally he writes more favorably of the climate than most travellers to this region, having been on the Congo two years and a half before he was attacked by fever. He also relates an interesting conversation with one of the negroes from the upper river in regard to the repeated attacks upon Stanley during his first expedition on its waters. These were due, according to this man, not to hostility, but simply to emulation. Each tribe heard that the tribes above had fought with the strangers, and accordingly they did the same. Of the native language, one of the many forms of the Bantu, he says, "The most marked feature is the euphonic concord, a principle by which the characteristic prefix of the noun is attached to the pronouns and adjectives qualifying it, and to the verb of which it is the subject. Thus, *ma*tadi *ma*ma *ma*mpwena *ma*mpembe *me*jitanga beni; these great white stones are very heavy." He quotes with approval the statement made in Mr. R. N. Cust's work on the African languages, that "its grammatical principles are founded on the most systematic and philosophical basis, and the number of words may be multiplied to an almost indefinite extent." His experience also confirms the truth of Mr. Stanley's assertion that the Congo native is a born trader. He says, "A five-year-old boy will somehow get three or four strings of beads, and with them will buy a small chicken. After a few months of patient care, it is worth eight or ten strings, and his capital is doubled." He is soon able to buy a small pig, and with the proceeds of this, of rat hunting and barter with other boys, he at last gets capital enough to make a trading trip to the coast. All this time he lives, apart from his parents, in a house with the other boys of the village. "The right of inheritance is from uncle to nephew; thus a man's slaves and real property go to the eldest son of his eldest sister, or the next of kin on such lines." A man's children, on the other hand, are the property of his wife's relatives, and he has "little or no control over them."

The Congo week consists of four days, the markets, which are apparently their measure of time, being held every fourth or eighth day. The laws of the market are stringent. "No one is allowed to come armed, no one may catch a debtor on market day, no one may use a knife against another in a passion. The penalty for all these offences is death, and many muzzles of buried guns stick up in the market places to warn other rowdies against a like fate." The natives have no religion, unless the simple belief in a Supreme Being, whom they neither fear nor worship, can be so regarded. They have great faith in the power of charms (to which, however, they do not attribute any personality, and so do not worship them, as some travellers have asserted) as well as in witchcraft, which enters into every relation of life, and is the fruitful source of numerous murders. The author describes two curious customs prevailing among them, Ndembo and Nkimba. In the former, young people, chiefly, are attacked by hysteria, and are carried away to an enclosed place outside of the village. Though supposed to be dead, they are supplied with food by their parents or friends, and after a time, varying from three months to three years, on the payment of certain doctor's fees, they are brought to life again. Returning to their homes, they pretend entire ignorance of everything which they have previously known, even to the mastication of food, which is done for them. The other is a species of freemason society established for mutual help and protection, having an initiation ceremonial and a mysterious language. This the novice learns during a seclusion of from six months to two years, required for this purpose. Mr. Bentley says that this language has evidently been made, but upon what principles he is still unable to discover, although he has collected two hundred words and forty sentences. "The vocabulary is limited, and is characterized by the system of alliteral concord." This society is spreading among the natives on the south bank of the Congo, and has been in some ways useful to the missionaries.

Elementary Treatise on Analytical Mechanics. By William G. Peck, Ph.D., LL.D., Professor of Mathematics, Mechanics, and Astronomy in Columbia College. A. S. Barnes & Co.

About thirty years ago Prof. Peck published a treatise on the 'Elements of Mechanics for the use of Colleges, Academies, and High Schools.' The elementary text-books then in use were too simple for advanced students, and, from their non-mathematical character, furnished a very inadequate basis for future study and investigation on the part of the student himself. The more thorough and complete treatises were too difficult for beginners, and too extensive for use as text-books. There was too wide a gap between the elementary and the complete treatises, which Prof. Peck's book was intended to fill. It was in many respects an admirable work, but it was not quite adapted to the educational conditions then existing in this country. It was in advance of the times. The processes of the differential and integral calculus were frequently introduced, and at that time the number of students who had studied the calculus was very small, and of these a still smaller proportion were able to make any intelligent use of its methods. In nearly if not quite all our colleges the calculus was an "optional" study, and the choice almost invariably fell on anything rather than the calculus. The result was that in our academies and high schools, although the teachers were to a large extent college graduates, the calculus was a branch of mathematics unknown and untaught. Accordingly, a year after its publication, Prof. Peck added to his book an appendix, in which the more important principles of mechanics were demonstrated by the processes employed in those branches of mathematics usually studied, and those portions of the work which might be omitted "without impairing the unity of the subject" were pointed out. This, however, did not prove entirely satisfactory. Teachers did not like to use, and pupils did not care to buy, a text-book a considerable portion of which was unintelligible and useless. It was evident that not only students in high schools and academies, but also those in technical schools and undergraduates in colleges, required a text-book constructed on a lower mathematical level. To meet this demand, Prof. Peck published in 1870 a substantially new work. The general plan of the book was the same as that of the former, but it was entirely rewritten, and analytical geometry was the upper limit of the mathematical knowledge assumed to be possessed by those making use of the work. Less than this it was impossible to assume without abandoning the attempt to treat mathematically any but the simplest problems of the science. But even for this the times were not yet ripe.

Over seventeen years have elapsed between the date of the preface of the work last mentioned and that of the one which now claims our attention. During that period the progress of the United States has been in no direction more marked than in the great increase in the number of students of the higher branches of science, including mathematics. Though analytical geometry and the calculus are still optional studies in most institutions, yet there are probably ten persons now who make them serious objects of study where there was one when Prof. Peck's treatise was first published. He has again entirely rewritten it. It is no larger than at first. It is still an elementary treatise in so far as it deals with the elementary conceptions which lie at the foundation of the science, but it is not a "popular" exposition of those conceptions. It is a thoroughly scientific work, and intended for those who wish to study, not merely to read about, mechanics. As the word "Analytical" introduced in the title indicates, the book is written from a mathematical standpoint. The methods of the differential and integral calculus are freely applied. The only concession to any want of knowledge or of memory on the part of the pupil is an occasional reference to a paragraph of the author's treatise on that subject. The work contains no historical information, discusses no philosophical questions, indulges in no metaphysical speculation. A large part of it might with very little change be moulded exactly into the form of Euclid's elements.

A thoroughly competent teacher, with a class of pupils who have sufficient knowledge of analytical geometry and the calculus to understand the meaning of the formulas and their transformations, has here an admirable text-book. The publishers have done their duty in the mechanical execution of the volume, and it is in that respect a great improvement on the two previous works.

Social Life and Literature Fifty Years Ago. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. 1888.

This little volume is an old man's word for his own times; and it must be acknowledged, even by the flippant criticism of the new age, that the retort is not without a certain grave force. It is not the change of literary fashion which has annoyed this gentleman of the old school, but the attack upon his own tastes and the vio-

lence done to great reputations. The process of pushing the fathers from their stools seems to him to be going on with indecent haste, with superciliousness in some quarters, and with a temper, in others, as unjust as it is patronizing. Doubtless when Mr. Lathrop spoke of Irving's style as "patent-leather Addisonian," and of his humor as smacking of college-boy's wit, he did not realize that Irving has not been dead so long to others as he seems to him; and this very just reproof from a contemporary who remembers Irving's fame at its height, and can quote Scott and Dickens against the young critic's opinion, may be as surprising to him as a voice from the tombs. Mr. James, too, may be startled; for it is a voice from old Salem, in true earnest, and the speaker has much cause for complaint against the international novelist who has used Salem as the very type and symbol of the narrowness and lack of resource which belonged to New England fifty years ago as Mr. James sees it. But not only has Mr. Lathrop written flippantly of Irving, and Mr. James satirically of old Salem; others have spoken of Hillard and of Ticknor in a way that shows only too plainly how far the world has left those honorable men behind, and every literary circle knows what scant courtesy and how short a shrift the immortal shades of Thackeray, Dickens, and Scott have lately received.

It is this general spirit of depreciation, together with a certain forgetfulness, that has called out this protest in behalf of antiquity—that is, of Irving, Scott, Dickens, and Thackeray, Ticknor, and that society which produced the coterie of the "Five of Clubs," to wit, Longfellow, Sumner, Felton, Hillard, and Cleveland. We are reminded that these scholars and gentlemen lived a long time ago—before "Pinafore" and Sullivan, the prince of pugilists, before athletics in colleges, newspaper interviewing, salvation armies, spiritualism, faith cures, Christian science, Canadian refugees, and stock gambling; but they made friends with the good opinion of their day, were respected by the best minds, and made their age remembered in literature, if it shall be remembered at all. They stood, in a word, for the culture of their times, and our friendly octogenarian who reminds us of all this, will have it that their culture was really respectable, and their achievement quite the equal of anything his latter days have seen. He seems disposed to class the literary spirit of to-day with that melancholy list of innovations beginning with "Pinafore" and ending with stock gambling. We indulge the hope that matters have not gone to such an extreme, though times have changed as times will. Meanwhile, in the crush of popular reputations made and lost as rapidly as fortunes in Wall Street, this sharp and well-deserved reminder of what stature men had in Nestor's day will be appreciated by a long-suffering but silent public, who, library statistics tell us, persist in reading the old books; and possibly the critics might do well to give it a bit of attention themselves.

The Structure and Classification of the Mesozoic Mammalia. By Henry Fairfield Osborn. Philadelphia: Academy of Natural Sciences. 1888. 4to. Illustrated.

THE Mesozoic are the earliest known mammals; ordinarily the class is said to have begun with them. Their sizes ranged from that of a small mouse to that of a large house rat. The determinations have been based on teeth and jaws; little else of the skeletons has been unearthed. Five of the genera are Triassic; about thirty are Jurassic. The variety of types among them, and their degrees of comparative advancement, prove them to be descendants of lines of mammalian ancestors reaching still further back. In other words, there were mammals much earlier than any of the primitive insectivores and marsupials yet brought to light. Dr. Buckland, in his paper on Megalosaurus (1823), mentions the jaw of a small mammal from the Stonesfield slates of the Oolite, which, on the authority of Cuvier, he refers to Didelphys, the Opossum; this was their first notice. Afterwards they were reported from different parts of the Old World. In 1871, Prof. Owen brought together what was known at the time in his 'Monograph of the Fossil Mammalia of the Mesozoic Formations.' An American genus, Dromotherium, from the Triassic of North Carolina, had been made known by Prof. Emmons in 1857. Prof. Marsh obtained others from the Jurassic of Wyoming in 1878, and since then has considerably increased the list, adding six new genera and nine new species in his most important contribution, 'American Jurassic Mammals' (1887). Besides those mentioned, others have made discoveries in widely separated localities.

Like that of Owen, the work of Prof. Osborn is an attempt at an exhaustive study of all relating to Mesozoic mammals that has been brought forward up to the date of publication. In it he aims, so far as may be done from teeth and jaws, (1) to present the features of the genera, (2) to present the principles of classification, and (3) to discuss the affinities, origin, and succession. What relates to the features is mainly compilation, the author having no material not previously worked over. All of the genera are described and figured. The principles of classification do not differ materially from those adopted by predecessors. It is in the discussion that we find most of what the author can claim as original. In this, and in that it greatly facilitates the study of these fossils, lies the importance of the work. The few localities that have been touched upon have yielded just enough to prove that we have hardly more than begun upon an extensive group of well-differentiated genera, concerning which present conclusions as to possible lines of succession or origin are certain to be modified if not disestablished by more knowledge.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bolton, Mrs. S. K. Famous American Statesmen. T. Y. Crowell & Co.
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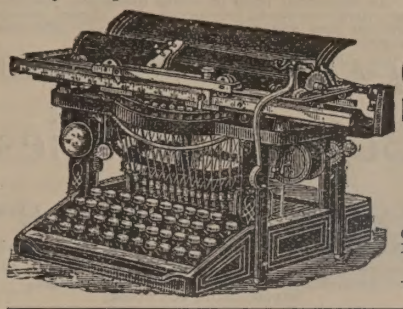

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 20, 1888.

The Week.

THERE is one feature in the present discussion which ought, we should think, to fill the more intelligent Republicans with honest shame, and that is the importance attached to the opinions of English newspapers—importance so great that quotations from them of the most commonplace kind have actually been forged or garbled, and made to do duty in the very fore-front of the protectionist battle. It would seem as if the high-tariff men really had no body of economical doctrine of their own, and could not maintain a single economical proposition on its merits, or without showing that Englishmen are opposed to it or dislike it, or refute an economical proposition without showing that some Englishman of note has defended it or relied on it. It is not, of course, surprising that attempts are made to capture the Irish vote by advocating things on the ground that they are disagreeable to Englishmen; but that Americans should find it difficult or impossible to frame or revise their own system of taxation without finding out how Englishmen feel on the subject, is, we think, on the whole a most humiliating spectacle. In fact, we cannot recall anything in modern politics quite like it. People often shape, have shaped, and must continue to shape their foreign policy by reference to the aims, opinions, or wishes of foreigners; but domestic taxation has always hitherto been considered a matter on which home opinion was all-sufficient. But taxing one's self to spite foreigners is something absolutely new in the art of government. As a piece of self-immolation it beats hollow biting one's own nose off. Is there nobody among the high-tariff doctors who is able to draft a tax bill and prove its soundness without producing a pocketful of cuttings from English newspapers to show that he has made no mistake?

The Boston *Journal*, that funny old party hack, in the course of an attempt to extenuate the recent forged quotations by maintaining that if the English newspapers to which the quotations have been ascribed, did not say this, they said something like it, declares that "the Democratic charges of 'infamous forgery' in this connection are extremely heated and hasty." But if the writer will reflect on the matter a little, we think he will perceive that there is a marked difference between forgeries and misquotations made during a Presidential canvass for the purpose of influencing votes, and those which he is doubtless in the habit of making himself in off years, when there is no serious business before the country. In this State, for instance, there is no law against spreading false news or forged letters or documents if you do it simply for fun, or in the ordinary course of journalistic business; but if you do it in order to raise the price of any commodity, even peanuts or candy, you go to jail. That is, when the direct consequence of your lying will be to cause your fellow-citizens pecuniary loss, you are punished for it, while if you lie, like "Ananias," simply through excess of animal spirits or to show what a live journalist you are, or in the hope of making a contemporary feel badly, nobody takes any notice of it. So, also, your stories about the things you see in the London *Times* and *Spectator* and *Economist*, and other wicked British sheets, may be anything you please in ordinary years, when they have no direct influence on action. But when you produce them for the express purpose of deceiving people into voting one way instead of another, on a certain day, so as to seriously influence the administration and legislation of your country, you surely will not deny, in calm moments, that when caught, you ought, were the law what it should be, to go to jail, and that the victims of your wiles are excusable in feeling "heated and hasty" towards you.

This topic is almost a ridiculous one for a newspaper intended for adults; and yet the circulation of these silly fibs about the English press and the Cobden Club among workingmen is almost the only thing with which the friends of tariff reform have to contend in this canvass. For economical arguments against the President's position or the Mills bill we look everywhere in vain. There are none in the protectionist newspapers, magazines, or speeches. When you ask them how they would dispose of the surplus, how they know that the tariff raises wages, why wages are higher in free-trade England than protectionist France or Germany, on what the rate of wages depends, they simply run away and shout "Cobden Club," "Free-trader," and "London *Times*." And yet there is no doubt that these mendacious colored cards, which recall the lowest appeals to ignorance and prejudice ever made to a mob in the days of slavery, do work mischief, and may influence the national decision on a great question of financial policy. And the pity of it is that these appeals come from the party of "virtue and temperance"!

We approve of Senator Sherman's resolution directing the Committee on Foreign Relations to examine and report upon the relations of the United States with Great Britain and Canada, with such measures as are expedient to promote friendly commercial and political intercourse between them. We also approve of the plan to give them leave to sit during the recess of Congress. We doubt not that Mr. Sherman's intentions are honorable. He sincerely desires to bring about a commercial union between the United States and Canada as a leading step to political union. He perceives, and has all along perceived, that retaliation, whether of the kind proposed in the act of 1887, or of the kind more recently proposed by the President and passed by the House, will be a hindrance to any kind of union, commercial or political. He stated in a newspaper interview the other day that the House bill ought not to pass the Senate, and that the House Republicans had acted a cowardly part in not making a fight against it. As the bill has been referred to the committee of which he is chairman, it becomes pretty plain that it will *not* become a law before the Presidential election. Probably the Senator's resolution directing the Committee on Foreign Relations to consider the whole subject, with leave to sit during the recess of Congress, is the device agreed upon by Republican Senators to stave off the Retaliation Bill with the least amount of damage to the party.

Under our present tariff, what with the high price of wool, the high price of woollen cloth, and the high price of manufactured clothing, the manufacture of shoddy for the clothing of the poor has become a great and flourishing industry. The sole reason why it flourishes is that good woollen cloth is so dear that it is out of the reach of a large body of poor people. No human being would buy shoddy if he could afford wool. No man would wear a shoddy coat if he could afford a woollen one. No kind of coat becomes shabby and ragged so soon as a shoddy coat. The aim of every friend of his kind to-day, in the United States and in every other country, should be to kill the shoddy manufacture, to make it unprofitable, to banish it from the land, to deliver every American citizen from the humiliating necessity of wearing shoddy, and make every American citizen ashamed to manufacture it. That in this favored land a large body of the people should be clad in it is surely a national disgrace. In spite of all this, however, seventeen firms have signed a circular actually pretending that they have a vested right to clothe the poor American in shoddy whether he likes it or not; to get the Government to stop him on his way to the market to get a good woollen suit, and fine him heavily if he refuses to put on a suit of shoddy. Nay, they will not even let him get cheaper shoddy than theirs. If they catch him going to a European for ten pounds of shoddy, they seize him and fine him one dollar for not buying their shoddy.

There are three points in Gen. Harrison's letter which we think cannot be too earnestly considered. They comprise his belief that it will not be necessary to repeal the internal-revenue taxes in order to preserve intact our protective system, and his recommendations for so reducing the surplus as to make such repeal unnecessary. We place these points side by side with what his recommendations really call for:

HARRISON'S PROPOSALS.	THEIR REAL MEANING.
We are not likely to be called upon, I think, to make a present choice between the surrender of our protective system and the entire repeal of the internal taxes. Such a contingency, in view of the present relation of expenditures to revenue, is remote.	Preservation of the present high tariff, ranging from 30 to 130 per cent. ad valorem, or levying an average tax of 47.10 per cent. on dutiable goods.
The surplus now in the Treasury should be used in the purchase of bonds.	Reduction of the surplus by payment of the public debt in advance of maturity, at premiums ranging from 7 to 29¾ per cent.
The nation, not less than the States, is dependent for prosperity and security upon the intelligence and morality of the people. This common interest very early suggested national aid in the establishment and endowment of schools and colleges in the new States. There is, I believe, a present exigency that calls for still more liberal and direct appropriations in aid of common-school education in the States.	Passage of the Blair bill, taking $77,000,000 from the Treasury.

There is supposed to be a large mercantile interest in New York yearning for increased trade with South America. They made some noise in the campaign of 1884. Mr. Blaine's fervid utterances on that subject when he was Secretary of State, we remember, were frequently quoted at that time. Well, it seems as though we were on the eve of this jubilee, since we learn from the Buenos Ayres *Standard* that Mr. Charles Lix-Kleet, in behalf of the Chamber of Commerce of that city, is putting up two sets of samples of wool produced in the Argentine Republic, suitable for the manufacturers of the United States, one set intended as a gift to President Cleveland and the other for the Argentine Consul at New York, to be by him placed on exhibition. There are sixteen samples, and each sample has a descriptive list attached showing the breed of sheep, the province where grown, and the amount of shrinkage in scouring and preparing it for the mill. All this, the *Standard* says, is in consequence of the passage of the Mills bill in the House, for, although the bill may be thrown out by the Senate, the *Standard* is convinced that wool will be put on the free list before long, and that "Argentine raw wools will be shipped from this port in thousands of bales *as in the old days*, when, with a more liberal tariff, the States filled our roads with her ships, and, in the aggregate of our imports and exports, figured for 20 per cent., while to-day she stands at the bottom of the ladder at 6 per cent." Is not this a dreadful outlook? Has Mr. Lix-Kleet no bowels?

Another infant industry that seems in danger of being extinguished for want of protection is that of milking cows. The Mills bill put "fresh milk" on the free list. The present duty on fresh milk is 10 per cent. It is thus that an infant American industry is protected at the expense of the American infants who drink the milk. Instantly there was a great splutter on the Republican side of the House about the injustice to the American farmer of a measure which proposed to "inundate" the country with foreign fresh milk. Mr. Lyman of Iowa was particularly prompt to repel this "direct attack upon the farmers of my section." Mr. Bacon of New York accordingly took pains to procure from the Treasury Department the statistics of fresh-milk importation, and found that all the milk imported, except a mere trifle, was entered at Detroit and Port Huron, Michigan, and Burlington, Vermont, and that the total importations for the fiscal year 1888 were of the value of only $5,038. As fresh milk is not sent from central Iowa to eastern Michigan, or northern Vermont, Mr. Lyman's constituents must have breathed more freely when they saw the result of Mr. Bacon's researches. Probably Mr. Lyman agreed with Gen. Harrison that it is not the *step* that is to be feared, so much as the direction of it, and that the same principle that would make fresh milk free would, in the end, put Indian corn and salt pork on the free list, to the everlasting ruin of Iowa farmers.

Mr. Theo. Foulk of Westchester, Pa., puts some questions respecting the duty on nickel, saying that there is a story current in Westchester that foreign nickel has driven American nickel out of the market, in consequence of the want of any duty on that article in the existing tariff. The history of tariff legislation on this subject is rather interesting, and is worth recounting. In the general tariff of 1861 (the Morrill tariff) nickel was put on the free list. Previously to that time it had been subject to a duty of 5 per cent. under the clause "metals not otherwise provided for." In 1862, when the Morrill tariff was under revision, a Pennsylvania Congressman (Mr. Thayer, we believe) made the important announcement that a nickel mine had been discovered in this country, and he moved, therefore, that nickel be subjected to a duty of 50 per cent. ad valorem. In other words, since nickel had been discovered in this country, it ought to be made more difficult for American citizens to obtain that metal than it was before. Mr. Morrill of Vermont stoutly opposed this suggestion, saying that nickel was largely used in the manufacture of German silver, and that it was unjust to put such a tax on the raw material of an important industry. Nevertheless, he would consent to a moderate duty. The duty was finally fixed at 10 per cent. While this debate was in progress, a colloquy took place between Thaddeus Stevens and a fellow-Congressman which created a great deal of merriment, but naturally it did not get into the *Congressional Globe*. The latter protested to Mr. Stevens that it would be better and cheaper for the Government to buy this nickel mine outright than to put such a duty on the article as Mr. Thayer proposed. "O," replied the sardonic leader of the House, "*let them buy it the other way.*" That is what they have been doing ever since, but they do not own it yet.

The duty settled upon in the revision of the Morrill tariff in 1862 was 10 per cent. A few years later it was raised to 15 per cent. In 1870 it was raised to 30 cents per pound, and it stood at that rate until 1883, when it was reduced to 15 cents per pound, that being the existing rate. The Mills bill proposes to reduce it to 10 cents per pound. The owner of the nickel mine in question is (or was) Mr. Joseph Wharton of Philadelphia, who wrote a letter a few days ago on the subject of professorships of political economy in American colleges, bewailing the shortsightedness of rich men who give money to institutions of learning without stipulating that they should teach the sound doctrine that the American people should patronize their own nickel mines, etc., etc. Now, the answer to Mr. Wharton is that the American people do not own any nickel mines. He owns them. His argument is, that American colleges should be coerced to teach our ingenuous youth to prevent themselves from buying any nickel but his, and to fine themselves and their neighbors at the rate of fifteen cents per pound if they do — all this in conjunction with other suitable fines, penalties, and forfeitures for the buying of wool, salt, jute bagging, etc. The trouble is, that the colleges will not do what Mr. Wharton wants to have done, even under coercion. Being institutions of science, they are bound to teach science. Protectionism is not science. It is the art of taxing the many for the benefit of the few, and persuading the many that the dollars come back to them through the clouds, or in the night time, or by magic, for nobody has ever been able to tell how the money comes back or to prove that it comes back at all. Politicians may teach this hocus-pocus; colleges will not.

We take much pleasure in informing Mr. James P. Foster, President of the Republican League of the United States, that his celebrated "Fat" Circular has been translated into Danish, and is about to be widely distributed among the Scandinavian portion of our population in various parts of the country. We shall be glad to furnish Mr. Foster with an early copy of the translation, and to be favored with any suggestions which he may make about the idiomatic construction of his famous saying, "These are strong words, and bitter, but they are true." The accomplished translator has had considerable trouble in finding a Danish synonym for the word "cravenal," and also in bringing out clearly in the foreign tongue the full significance of the term "fat"; but he is convinced that he has succeeded fairly well in both cases. Mr. Foster will of course be glad to see these and other features of the translation. We are glad to inform him at this time of this spreading of his fame into other languages, for he is suffering, as all other great men always have done, from the jealousy of his contemporaries. The National Republican Committee, rumor says, are declaring that Foster is a "nuisance," and has what they call the "big-head trouble;" but he must not mind them. It is our unprejudiced opinion that Foster's work in the campaign is far

more useful for good than that of the National Republican Committee.

The striking feature of the election for Governor in Arkansas is the large increase in the opposition vote, without any corresponding decrease in the Democratic vote. Thus, while the Democratic vote is 8,564 in excess of the same vote in 1886, the opposition vote shows a gain of 30,163. The Democratic vote is 1,659 less than it was in 1884, and the opposition vote shows an increase of 28,696. The explanation of this is two fold. The Republicans this year supported the Union-Labor candidate for Governor, putting no ticket of their own into the field, and in 1886 a third candidate, one Wheeler, received 19,169 votes. The changes not thus accounted for are due to Democratic indifference and local faction fights. The Little Rock *Gazette* (Dem.) says of the result: "The time has not come yet in our elections when it is thought that the State ticket cannot take care of itself, with a safe trading margin for the hard-pressed local tickets. We read the signs of the times incorrectly if this election do not prove a decisive turning-point in our politics. There will be more life and vigor and wise management, less personal politics and fewer factional divisions, than before in the last ten years, and our majorities will increase in proportion."

The political situation in this State is rather worse than it was when Tweed was plundering in the city and the Canal Ring was plundering at Albany. We say that it is rather worse, because the Governor of the State at that time was personally an honest man. It has been proved in a public investigation, and is not denied, that this man Hill received $10,000 of the money of the taxpayers of New York city to pay a note which he gave for campaign purposes. If this is not wrong, nothing is wrong. If this act can be condoned by the voters, anything can be condoned. If the taxpayers of the rural districts think that because this money was taken from the taxpayers of the city, and not from them, therefore their money is safe with Mr. Hill in the Governor's chair, they are very green. If they think that society and law and government can be carried on when such transactions are endorsed and ratified at the polls, they are grievously mistaken. For our part, we will not, either directly or indirectly, either actively or passively, contribute to the reëlection of Mr. Hill. We shall advise all Independents and all good citizens of whatever political faith to vote for Warner Miller. We think that the State will give its electoral vote to Cleveland and Thurman in spite of this bad nomination; but whatever may be the consequences, we will not, either by silence or otherwise, join in undermining the foundations of social order by putting Mr. Hill again in the Governor's chair.

We regret to see that there are no signs of the support of Mr. Hewitt by the Republican party organization in case he takes the field as the opponent of an undesirable Tammany candidate. On the contrary, the organs of the Republican Machine are already calling for a straight Republican candidate, on the old pretence that in case of a Democratic split such a candidate might be elected. This is the familiar Machine scheme of securing a basis for a "deal." There is no desire in it for anything else. The advocates of the straight ticket are perfectly well aware that there is not the slightest hope of success. They are well aware, also, that its presence in the field will be a direct help to the success of the Tammany ticket. Yet they will put it forth this year, as they have repeatedly done before, in the hope of thus getting, through "deals" and "dickers," a share in the "spoils." Mr. Roosevelt was brought forward in this way two years ago, with no hope of his success, for, as he himself confessed after election, he only ran to preserve the party organization. To do this, he and his party ran the risk of defeating Mr. Hewitt and electing Mr. George.

Mr. Richard A. Proctor's death is a very tragic and pathetic incident, and shows how little security against infection there is in any district in which yellow fever is prevalent. But we trust it was a bit of reporter's coloring which made the doctors predict his death "within ten or twelve hours" as soon as they saw him, although he was then only in the first stage of the disease; and made it seem as if the main interest of his case afterwards lay in its following the usual course, and that all that was done for him was, to use the language of the *Times's* report, "to watch the case, first in the interest of the public, second in that of the Health Department, and third in that of the eminent patient." There was surely some doctor present, ready and willing to watch the case first in the interest of "the eminent patient," and leave the other order of watching to somebody else. In other words, there was surely some effort made to save Mr. Proctor's life. Yellow fever is not a necessarily fatal disease: the majority of persons attacked by it recover. We feel sure he was not treated simply as an interesting case, and let die in order to verify a diagnosis.

The first meeting of the Judicial Commission in London on Monday brought out in a striking way the oddity of the course the *Times* has been pursuing towards the Parnellites. The charges it has been making against them were definite enough for use in political warfare, and definite enough to stand a libel suit on, but not by any means definite enough to put into a formal indictment. Consequently, when the counsel for the *Times* was called on by the Court to assume the rôle of a prosecutor, and to divide his case into formal specifications, he was quite taken aback, and tried hard to occupy the place of an *amicus curiæ*, assisting the Court with "information" in an "inquisition;" but this the judges would not allow. The order granting to each side full access to the papers and documents of the other side is also very important, and naturally enough each side professes the utmost satisfaction with it, although the *Times* resisted it in the beginning. Which side it will hurt most it is hard to say. The "proofs" of the *Times* are undoubtedly of a very flimsy description, as regards the Irish members of Parliament, however much discredit they may bring on the National League and some of its branches; but, on the other hand, the overhauling of the books and papers of the League may bring to light some discreditable things of which the *Times* has never heard. This contingency, however, would have more importance if the case were to be tried before a jury, which would be more or less influenced by extraneous matter. On men like Judge Hannen it will have no effect at all. What has been established by the proceedings thus far is, that the *Times* must formulate charges and prove them, and that both sides must submit to the Court everything bearing on the investigation, however private and confidential — which means, among other things, that the *Times* must tell where it got the letters ascribed to Parnell.

The Pope is again in serious trouble with the Italian Government. He has sent a circular despatch through his nuncios to the various European governments, describing in strong terms the increasing annoyances and inconveniences of his situation in the Vatican. One of the things which trouble him is neither more nor less than the adoption of a new penal code in Italy, which provides severe penalties for everybody convicted of destroying, or trying even in words to destroy, the territorial integrity of the kingdom. This of course covers the case of all persons advocating publicly the restoration of the temporal power, a class which includes a great many priests and bishops. Moreover, a recent decision of the Italian Council of State makes imperative, in order to give them validity as regards Church property or functions, the registration in the usual manner of all decrees, or orders, or decisions issuing from the Vatican. Failing such registration, the courts are to treat them as null and void. This the Pope treats as a direct blow at the "exterritoriality" which is supposed to have been guaranteed to him. These are positive and definable griefs. There are others which, though not positive, are none the less real. The admission of Italy to the Triple Alliance, and the friendly way in which Austria and Germany treat her, also wounds the Pope, and makes him feel that there is not much real feeling behind the compliments which the Powers lavish on him, and the deference with which his place in the world is spoken of. His recent Encyclical, too, in which he pointed out the snares and fallacies and dangers of modern Liberalism, has somehow fallen very flat. Nobody has paid much attention to it. The newspapers have not even discussed it. Finally, the people of Rome, who have hitherto been supposed faithful to the Papal tradition, have gone and elected for the first time a Municipal Council with a Liberal majority. It is not wonderful that under these circumstances he should begin to talk once more of removing to some place where his purely spiritual character would come out in stronger relief.

"ALMOST A POLITICAL REVOLUTION."

THE complete returns from Maine are now at hand, and an analysis of them will show how much ground there was for Mr. Blaine's claim that the result was "almost a political revolution." We give the figures side by side with those of the September election in 1884:

Governor.	1888.	Governor.	1884.
Burleigh (Rep.)	79,603	Robie (Rep.)	78,912
Putnam (Dem.)	61,108	Redman (Dem.)	59,061
Cushing (Prohib.)	2,971	Eustis (Prohib.)	1,190
Simmons (Labor)	979	Eaton (G'b'k.)	3,234
Total	144,661	Total	142,397

Republican plurality in 1884	19,851
Republican plurality in 1888	18,495
Republican loss on plurality	1,356
Republican increase on total vote of 1884	691
Democratic increase on total vote of 1884	2,047

These figures tell the story so plainly that it is scarcely necessary to comment upon them. The reader will search them in vain for any evidence of Mr. Blaine's "revolution," or for any evidence of his other assertion that "many Democrats turned against the Mills bill." If there were such conversions, there must have been a large Republican defection to offset them. Instead of being "stampeded" by the free-trade cry, the Democrats have more than held their own. They have increased their total vote of four years ago by more than 3 per cent., while the Republicans have increased theirs less than 1 per cent. Whatever this may be evidence of, it is not a sign that the Democratic party is weaker than it was before the tariff-reform issue was raised.

The significance of this result is very great when we consider the peculiar advantages which Maine presented as a field for Republican gains this year. On the fishery issue and the question of free lumber alone, there was reason for thinking that inroads might be made upon the Democratic strength. Mr. Blaine evidently thought so, for he made those questions very prominent in his speeches, all of which were confined almost entirely to them and to the dangers of free trade. The Republicans had the advantage of his personal efforts in their campaign, he bringing to the work all the prestige of his first appearance after a European tour, in which he had observed personally the baleful effects of free trade abroad.

Furthermore, the election was held before the national campaign had been fairly begun, and before there had been anything which could be called an adequate presentation of the Democratic side of the tariff question. The National Democratic Committee sent no speakers into Maine to answer Mr. Blaine's arguments. Almost the only outside Democratic orator who went there was Col. Fellows, and we have never heard him spoken of as a persuasive orator upon economic questions. In addition to Mr. Blaine's personal leadership, the Republicans had the aid of one of the most thoroughly organized political machines in the country, and the skill in the working of it which comes only with long practice. Yet, with all these advantages, they have failed to carry the State by as large a plurality as they had four years ago, though the total vote now is over 2,000 larger than it was then. They have failed, not only to draw away any of the Democratic strength, but to secure more than half of their share of the increased vote.

We are not disposed to insist that this result is a "certain harbinger of victory all along the line in November" for the Democrats, but the figures certainly fail to sustain the *Tribune's* claim that it is such a "harbinger" for the Republicans. Calmly interpreted, it means simply that both parties stand substantially to-day as they stood four years ago—that is, the tariff issue has not perceptibly changed the party lines. There have undoubtedly been changes back and forth, but these have about evenly offset each other. This being the case, the Maine election, so far as it has significance, shows that the advantages in the November election are in favor of the Democrats. Nobody questioned, before Mr. Cleveland's tariff message in December last, that he would be reëlected if renominated. The doubt which has since been felt was due entirely to the inability to ascertain just how much could be accomplished by the free-trade bugaboo. Oregon seemed to indicate that the Democratic strength could be seriously diminished by it. Vermont failed to give such indication, because, whatever the issue, that State is always overwhelmingly Republican. For the first time unmistakable light on the subject comes from Maine. Taken in connection with the fact that there are still nearly two months before election, that those two months will be given up to the most energetic efforts to educate the voters upon the tariff issue, and to dispel whatever may remain of the doubt raised by the Republican misrepresentations and silly "British" forgeries, we think the friends of tariff reform can possess their souls in patience, and await without trepidation the progress of events.

COMFORT FOR THE TIMID.

THE great objection to the Mills bill in the eyes of a good many Republicans is the one which has found such strong expression in Gen. Harrison's letter of acceptance, namely, that, coming from a party more or less favorable in theory to free trade, it would in Democratic hands eventually lead to free trade. In other words, he finds fault with it not so much — to use his own words — on account of the length of the step which the bill makes, as "the direction of it." In this, there is no doubt, he utters what is in the minds of a great many people who are in favor of a moderate tariff reduction, and who do not really believe that the reductions made by the Mills bill are too great either in amount or number. As a matter of fact, these are not so great in amount as those recommended by the Tariff Commission of 1883, composed entirely of protectionists. What such Republicans say to themselves is, that they would not object to such a bill if it had been drafted or carried by known friends of the principle of protection, who in revising the tariff were sincerely anxious to maintain its protective features; but that, coming from men of whom a large proportion are undoubtedly in favor of a tariff for revenue only, and some of whom are ardent advocates of free trade, they fear the revision now proposed would be used to secure further concessions in the same direction, and finally do away with the tariff altogether. They, in short, put the question which British fathers used in the last century to put to young men who were attentive to their daughters without popping the question—"whether their intentions were honorable."

We touched on this point last week when commenting on Gen. Harrison's letter of acceptance, and we return to it because we really think it is keeping on the fence a good many sincere and intelligent Republicans who do not know much about tariff, and have to take even the facts of the present controversy on trust. They hear so much on both sides that they are bewildered; and, while recognizing, as they cannot help doing, that both parties are committed to tariff revision, are afraid to accept revision from the one they know least about and have the poorest opinion of. Now, to these we take leave to point out—with a perfect understanding of their difficulty—that the Mills bill, even if enacted, could only lead to something worse than the Mills bill through an overthrow of popular government. For no matter what its promoters may wish it to be, or seek to make it, it must remain for the people of the United States simply an experiment. It is, in its very nature, a law whose operation must be open to every eye. Everybody will witness its effects in some sphere or other. If it injures the woollen industry to have wool put on the free list, or the canning and roofing and utensil industry to have tin plates put on the free list, the whole country will know it. If it makes people feel cheap to wear cheap clothes, they will surely let it appear in some way. If it lowers wages and shuts up factories and causes even slight general distress, of course the public will perceive it at once, and all progress in the free-trade direction will be peremptorily arrested. The bill will be repealed, and the old duties will be restored, and perhaps even be raised. The Democrats and the Mugwumps will be discredited to an extraordinary degree, and the return of the Republicans to power for a long period made certain. The "British free-traders," too, will hide their diminished heads and trouble us no more.

"Oh, but," it may be said, "we do not want to run the risk of even such slight damage as you describe. We do not wish to make experiments likely to prove hurtful even in a slight degree." Yes, but it must be remembered, in saying all this, we are assuming that the tariff must be revised by somebody, that both parties are pledged to it, and that the revision of one would differ but little from the revision of the other, and that the main question before the country is—Which shall be trusted with revision? All the evil consequences of the Mills revision which we have commented on above, or other consequences of exactly the

same kind, would follow from *any* revision which lowered duties and enlarged the free list, no matter how good the intentions of the revisers might be. In other words, any revision must be an experiment, and if it works badly, of course it would be abandoned.

But it is impossible for the most charitably disposed to resist the suspicion that a great part of the opposition to the Mills bill is due to the belief that the experiment will succeed; that the country will benefit so much by it that it will ask for more of the same—or, in other words, that the Mills additions to the free list will have somewhat the same result as the addition of hides and quinine had.

SOME CHARGES AND SPECIFICATIONS.

We shall to-day mention a few gentlemen who owe the American people and Gen. Harrison, as the friend of "intelligence and morality," some information or explanation on account of sayings and doings in this canvass. First there is

Depew, Chauncey M.—President of the New York Central Railroad, and noted after-dinner speaker. He, with intent to counteract the influence of the President's message, declared, on the authority of "one of the most eminent business men in Holland," that between the years 1884 and 1888 Holland had changed her revenue system from one of protection to free trade, with disastrous results to the trade and industry of the country; the fact being that no such change had occurred, and that Holland had been from long before Mr. Depew's birth, and was at the time of his declaration, the most free-trade country in Europe. All this in the New York *Tribune* of February 26, 1888.

Mr. Depew returned on Thursday from a European tour. Everybody is glad to see him back. We observe that he made some pleasant observations on landing about his experiences in England, and about the deplorable economical condition of Europe generally, but had not a word to say about Holland, and yet Holland must by this time offer a still better illustration than last year of the danger of changing from a protectionist to a free-trade régime, if the story of that "eminent business man" be true. Why did not Mr. Depew look this person up?

Next we have

Blaine, James G.—Greatest Living Statesman, who on his return home said that the "entire savings" of the wage-workers of Great Britain and Ireland were not so great as the deposits "in the savings banks" of Massachusetts of the wage-workers of that State. On being shown that this was a gross blunder, that he had overlooked the postal savings banks in England, to say nothing of the coöperative associations and Friendly and Building Societies, he went to the 'Encyclopædia Britannica'—to which the *Evening Post* referred him—and there discovered, in the article on Savings Banks, that other people than "wage workers" used the British savings banks. Out of this new information he then actually constructed, not a retraction, nor even a fresh blunder, but apparently a positive falsehood, for he gave the classes of depositors he found in the 'Encyclopædia,' but withheld the proportion the depositors of each class bore to the whole, as furnished by the official statistics, and substituted therefor a proportion of his own, which, he said, was furnished him by "a man" in England, which made it as low as 10 per cent.; or one furnished by somebody else, which made it as high as 25 per cent. This he did with the official figures before his eyes, which showed that of 1,188,147 depositors, 935,195 were tradesmen or their assistants, small farmers, clerks, mechanics, and artisans, domestic servants, charwomen, nurses and laundresses, minors (including apprentices), dress-makers, milliners, shop-women, and female artisans, soldiers, sailors, boatmen, fishermen, policemen, letter-carriers, revenue officers, pensioners, railway men and their wives, excluding 138,858 women described only as "married women, widows, and spinsters," a large proportion of whom are doubtless wage-earners also. All this on the 11th of August, in the State of New York, and 24th of August in the State of Maine.

Next we have

Porter, Robert B.—Sometime member of a Commission to report on the tariff, and now editor of the *Press*, the leading protectionist organ in this city, who, with the view of supporting the proposition that low taxation is bad for agriculture, said:

> "In view of this terrible loss of the productive force of England, is it surprising that a Royal Commission recently said:
>
> "'All increased imports of agricultural produce consequent upon the withdrawal of labor from the cultivation of our own soil, the deterioration of its condition, and the diminution of its products, and all additional tonnage of shipping employed in carrying such imports, are indications not of growth, but of the decay of our productive capacity'"—

the fact being that no Royal Commission ever said anything of the kind, and that the silly passage he here quotes is taken, not from the report of the Royal Commission, but from the dissenting remarks of a minority of four out of the twenty-two members, and these notoriously the most obscure and least competent of the whole. All this in the New York *Independent* of September 6, with manifest intent to deceive. Next comes

Rice, Allen Thorndike.—Amateur Boy, and editor of the *North American Review*, who caused or permitted the appearance of a "symposium" on a text furnished by a pretended extract from the London *Times*, the origin of which he had made no attempt to trace, and for the authenticity of which he had no guarantee, and the publication of which, long after such authenticity had been denied, was manifestly intended to prevent the proper and intelligent discussion of American taxation, and substitute therefor ignorant denunciation of a foreign nation, which has no authority, or jurisdiction, or power of legislation in the United States. All this in his monthly newspaper, on or about the 1st of September, 1888.

THE STAMPEDE IN ST. PAUL.

The Stock Exchange had one of its periodical spasms last Thursday, arising from the passing of a dividend by the Milwaukee and St. Paul Railway Company on its common stock and the reduction of the dividend on its preferred stock. The spasm extended to the whole list of active stocks, including many that show a progressive and undoubted gain in earnings, both gross and net. This feature of the convulsion is nothing to surprise us, since it is human nature to "run" when missiles are falling; and, of course, when we run we drop everything which might impede our flight. "Running" on the Stock Exchange means dropping your property in a hurry. When you have run far enough to see that the missiles were not coming your way at all, you can go back and look for your property, but you will sometimes find that the men who have held it for you while you were away want something for their trouble.

It is not the stampede of the market in general that calls for comment, but the stampede of the St. Paul crowd in particular. It was known some days before the meeting of the St. Paul Directors that no dividend on the common stock had been earned, and the indications were sufficiently plain that if one were declared, it could only be paid by borrowing the money. These facts were published by the *Financial Chronicle* of Saturday, September 8. It is true that the last half of the year is always the period of greatest earnings, and that the returns for this period were not precisely known to the public. But all the indications, and especially the rate wars in the West, pointed to some shrinkage in the last half, if not as great as that of the first. To pay fixed charges and the usual dividends in St. Paul requires considerably more than $10,000,000, and it was known to everybody who had occasion to know, that the net earnings would not reach that figure, even if the second half year should turn out as well as the second half of 1887, as possibly it may yet do. There would be, even in this case, a shrinkage equal to a year's dividend on the common stock, *i. e.*, about $1,500,000. But the Street seems to have been buoyed up, in face of the figures accessible, by the belief that the Directors would nevertheless declare the dividend and raise the money to pay it somehow. In other words, the stock was kept up above 70 on the theory that two and two make five instead of four, and it was not until this belief was dashed by a solemn vote of the Directors that the common stock fell five points, and subsequently five more.

The action of the Directors is to be commended, and it would not call for commendation, but would be looked upon as a matter of course, but for the fact that boards of direction often do the very thing that the St. Paul people were expected to do—declare dividends that have not been earned. It is charged that the St. Paul Board has been a sinner in this way aforetime, and has thus fostered a belief that two and two make five in Wall Street, although only four in the public schools. Whether the charge is true or not,

the investing public are to be congratulated that it is not true this time. There is a law in this State which forbids, under heavy penalties, the declaring of dividends not earned; but, like many other laws which look well in print, it is not enforced in any systematic way. If the Stock Exchange would devote some of the superfluous strength which it exhibits now and then in "running," to the enforcement of this law, there would be a healthier tone in the market, and more legitimate business would come to it from the outer world.

The cause of the shrinkage in St. Paul earnings is the same as that which has afflicted the Burlington, the Northwestern, and other roads, which have for their principal field the fan-shaped territory between Chicago on the east and St. Paul, Omaha, and Kansas City on the west. Too much railroad building has been followed by too much giving away of services. So the candle has been burned at both ends. There have been more roads, and consequently more fixed charges, than were necessary, and the rates have been unduly lowered. Some new business has been created, but not nearly enough to recompense the outlay. In this losing game the Burlington and the St. Paul have been the great sinners and great sufferers. It is not for us to apportion the blame, nor is it necessary that it should be apportioned at all, since the punishment keeps pace with it. Unfortunately it does not stop there. The innocent suffer with the guilty. Nor is it easy to say where the guilt lies. Every one of the Northwestern trunk-line managers will tell you that he never built a mile of road beyond his original trunk line that he was not obliged to build. He means by this that, in order to save his own traffic and to head off somebody else who was going to take it away from him, he has been obliged to build all his extensions, one after another. The problem is apparently insoluble. At all events it has not yet been solved, although the ablest men in the country, moved by the strongest of all possible motives, have given their best efforts to it for a great many years. It cannot be said, however, that society at large has been a sufferer from this multiplication of the means of transport. On the contrary it has been a gainer.

The stampede in St. Paul will be less disastrous than it would have been if the Directors had voted for a dividend not earned — that is, for a dividend that would necessitate borrowing, and a consequent enlargement of fixed charges for all future time. The trouble in that case would have been far more serious, and would have impaired public confidence in all railroad management. As the case now stands, each property may rest upon its own merits. The business outlook has not been altered by anything that has taken place inside the St. Paul Board of Directors or inside the Stock Exchange. The only doubtful element in the fall trade—the possible curtailment of the corn crop by frost—has been almost wholly removed. The prospect is, upon the whole, favorable to a large and remunerative trade, and even the St. Paul Road, as its Vice-President says, will have every car and engine called into the highest state of activity.

LOOSE PSYCHICAL RESEARCH.

THE last number of the Proceedings of the English Society for Psychical Research is largely given up to French experimentation, and in particular more than one-half of it (151 pages) is the contribution of M. Charles Richet. It has been objected to the English society that its members are chiefly literary men, and that they are for that reason incapable of forming just ideas as to the nature of evidence. M. Richet is a scientific man, a Professor of Physiology of the Medical Faculty of Paris, and the editor of the *Revue Scientifique;* but, in spite of that, he exhibits a plentiful lack of scientific caution in his reasoning processes. It is a first principle of evidence that if testimony is of a worthless character to begin with, it is not strengthened by the fact that there is a large amount of it to be had. But M. Richet is of a different opinion. "Comprendrait-on," he says, "que tous ces recueils, *Sphinx*, . . . *Light*, *Banner of Light*, etc., ne fûssent remplis que d'impostures et d'illusions?" Most people would very readily comprehend that it is perfectly possible for a large amount of evidence to exist of such a kind that a car-load of it is of exactly the same weight as the smallest assignable quantity. There are plenty of people in the world whose testimony in regard to matters of any intricacy is absolutely without value, and there is no reason why, if it amuses them to do so, they should not spend their money in securing the publication of their worthless opinions to an unlimited extent. The Boston papers have recently contained accounts of the exposure of a "materializing" medium, a Mrs. Cowen, in a corner of whose room was found a trap-door communicating with an adjoining room by means of a trap-door in that room and a hole in a brick partition in the cellar. They publish side by side with the exposure several long articles from the *Banner of Light* describing the extreme rigidity of the tests under which this medium "materialized," and stating that the most sceptical had been convinced that there was no possibility of fraud in her manifestations. It is never safe to take it for granted that pretended evidence is real evidence merely because it has appeared in print. The ordinary man is by habit and education totally unfit for detecting the tricks of skilful impostors, and M. Richet shows very little knowledge of the capabilities of human nature if he "regards it as *impossible* that this immense illusion should prolong itself for nearly a century without there being some truth behind it."

There is another fundamental principle that has escaped the notice of M. Richet. It is that coincidences which appear only after the event are absolutely worthless, except to suggest further investigation. There are hardly any two objects in the world which will not be found to have some quality in common if one allows himself to search among all possible qualities. It is only when the quality is predesignate, that is, when one is in search of that particular quality, that its repeated occurrence is worthy of remark. For instance, Mr. Peirce writes down the numbers representing the ages of the first five poets in a Dictionary of Biography, and, by casting about among all possible mathematical properties, finds several curious ones which they have in common. This is not strange; but if the ages of several other poets, when examined for this particular property, were found to possess it, then one would begin to suspect that there is some law of nature regulating the age at which a poet dies. One of M. Richet's experiments consists in giving a drawing of a globe surmounted by a cross in a sealed envelope to a patient, who thereupon makes a drawing of a chalice. Although there is no resemblance between them, "one will be astonished to see," says M. Richet, that they are both religious figures. But, in fact, hardly any one in his senses will feel the slightest shade of astonishment at this. Two of his subjects are named Alice and Eugénie. Alice predicts, in a state of trance, that one of M. Richet's children will be sick within a fortnight, with a pain *in the right shoulder and the neck*. Three days later, M. Richet goes to Eugénie, who perceives that one of the children is about to be sick with bronchitis and diarrhea. Nothing happens to the children; they remain in perfect health, but Eugénie's mother has an attack of rheumatism, with pain *in the right shoulder and in the neck*. The italics are M. Richet's, but he is mistaken in thinking that such a coincidence as this is deserving of italics.

Under the head of *action à distance*, M. Richet relates that he mistakes some one on the street for a M. Lacassagne, who a few hours later actually appears in his office; and again that he speaks with a friend of his of a certain former teacher whom they had in common, and soon afterwards they meet this teacher on the street. These occurrences strike M. Richet as very marvellous, and he proceeds to calculate the probability of their being due to chance. In doing so, he makes an extraordinary blunder —the same in principle in the two cases— which it may be of interest to point out. He says that he has probably mistaken some one else for M. Lacassagne not more than once in ten years, so that the chance of doing so on a given day may be taken to be one in 3,000. As he has actually met him perhaps once in every two years, the chance of meeting him on a given day may be put at one in 700. "Consequently," says M. Richet, "the probability that this day shall coincide with that on which I thought I saw him is one in 2,100,000" (*i. e.*, 700x3,000). As if it were a bit more improbable that he should see him on a day on which he had mistaken somebody else for him than on any other day! In reality, one in 2,100,000 would be the probability of both mistakenly thinking he saw him and actually seeing him on a day previously fixed upon independently by some third person. Such ignorance of the theory of probability as this article discloses can only be paralleled by M. Richet's former article on the same subject, which appeared some five years ago in the *Revue Philosophique*, and which he says appears to him to have now become "à peu près classique."

It is far from being the case that all of M. Richet's experiments are open to such elementary objections as the ones which we have singled out. Some of them have the appearance of being sufficiently "irreproachable," to use his favorite word. But the things which the promoters of psychical research ask us to believe in are so extraordinary, and so contrary to all sane experience hitherto, that it is absolutely indispensable that whoever describes them to us should be totally free from the erroneous ways of thinking which are common to the vulgar. There is plenty of irresponsible testimony in favor of supernaturalism in existence already, and the only reason that the Society for Psychical Research has gained the ear of a wider audience is, that its experimental work has been conducted after the fashion of scientific work of the best kind, and that it has been commented upon by persons

of thoroughly trained mental powers. The most that can be said for M. Richet's additions to their labors is, that they do not suffice to disprove the existence of subtler forms of force than are now known to exist. His article is in striking contrast to the two admirable papers which the late Edmund Gurney contributed to the same number of the Proceedings.

THE RELATIONS OF FRANCE AND ITALY.

PARIS, September 7, 1888.

THERE is a difficulty between France and Italy, which has been brought to a climax by the question of the Capitulations at Massowah in the Red Sea. But in order better to understand how a technical discussion on the question of the Capitulations can have assumed such vast proportions, it is well to recall the origin of the present misunderstanding between the two countries.

It is well known that before the war of 1870 the Imperial Government of Napoleon had concluded with Italy the so-called September convention. Napoleon III., who had done so much for the liberation of Italy, and who, by his neutral and expectant policy, afterwards allowed the work of unification, had never dared to give Rome as a capital to the new kingdom. Victor Emmanuel remained in Florence, biding his time. He had feelings of great gratitude towards France; he respected the September convention. The events of 1870 changed the situation; France withdrew her troops, and the Italian armies entered Rome, which has ever since remained the capital of Italy.

The Republican Government of France was not disposed to complain of the violation of a treaty signed by Napoleon III. Though it had not yet taken an anti-clerical color, though Gambetta had not yet said, "Le cléricalisme, c'est l'ennemi," the Republic did not feel called upon to defend the temporal power of the Pope. Though the Chamber at Versailles contained many influential members attached to the Catholic cause, no protest was made against the action of the Italian Government; the accomplished facts were accepted, and the Duke Decazes entered into amicable relations with the Quirinal as well as with the Vatican. The Duc de Broglie, who is one of the leaders of the Catholic party in France, did the same, and no serious difficulty arose between the two countries during the days of the Conservative Republic and of the Presidency of Marshal MacMahon.

The relations of France and Italy remained so good that some political schemers revived at times the old dream of an alliance of the Latin races, of France, Italy, and Spain. Such was not the dream of the most important Italian statesmen. The first among them who, with his usual frankness, expressed a preference for the alliance of Italy with the German Powers, especially with Prussia, was Minghetti. This idea soon entered into the Italian mind. Though at times there was a contrary movement, though *Italia irredenta* threatened Austria, it may be said that as soon as Prince Bismarck succeeded in forming a close alliance between the two German empires, it became the object and ambition of Italy to enter into this alliance.

Let us go back to the time of the Treaty of Berlin. Count Corti represented Italy at the green table of the Congress. One evening he dined, not with Prince Bismarck, but with one of his trusty subordinates, who said to Count Corti: "We are trying to give satisfaction to everybody. Austria, your ancient enemy, and now your friend, will receive ample satisfaction; we think it very just that Italy should have some compensation. The Prince Chancellor is of this mind; what should you think of Tunis?" Upon this, Count Corti jumped to his feet and said: "Is the Prince Chancellor so determined to have us go to war with France?" This outburst put an end to the conversation. "If you take it in that way, let us speak no more of it." Tunis, which had been refused in this manner by Count Corti, was offered afterwards to France, and France seized the first opportunity to take it.

Tunis became from that moment the apple of discord between France and Italy. Everything else was forgotten—Magenta, Solferino, became empty words; "the equilibrium in the Mediterranean" replaced them. The Italian press represented Tunis and Bizerta as the new Carthage which threatened Rome. Count Corti became the victim of the rising opposition to France; as soon as Crispi came into power, he dismissed him in the most brutal manner, though Corti had served his country honorably for so many years. Crispi is the true representative of a new policy: he has nothing in common with the statesmen of the old school of Cavour; he is not a man of the North, of Piedmont, even of Tuscany; he has the fiery temper of a Sicilian. He was for a long time a lawyer in Palermo; as a true Sicilian, he looks on the African shore with feelings of envy. He would gladly say, "Delenda est Carthago."

The question of Massowah has embittered him even more than he was already. It seemed at first that nothing was easier for Italy than to take possession of some point on the Red Sea, and to secure a post of observation on what is now the high road of commerce between Asia and Europe. At the time when England tried to take possession of Khartum and to save Gordon, Italy, uninvited by her, volunteered to join her on the Upper Nile. These projects were knocked on the head by the death of Gordon and by the withdrawal of the English troops from the Upper Nile. Italy has ever since remained on her rock of Massowah, fighting unsuccessfully at times against the Negus of Abyssinia; her garrisons have been decimated by disease; she has spent millions of lire without any profit on a barren land, and cannot see the end of her sacrifices. Discontented with fate and with herself, she has become discontented with France; this question of the Capitulations at Massowah seemed to her "the unkindest cut of all."

There are, I am informed, two Frenchmen only at Massowah; there are also forty Greeks, who, in the absence of a Greek Consul, are placed under the protection of the French Consul—for we had a Consul at Massowah, though we hardly knew it, and it is rather unfortunate that we did have one, for, as the Greeks insisted upon keeping the privileges of the Capitulations, the French Consul was bound to extend these privileges to them, and the French Government was bound to stand by its Consul and by the Capitulations. And so arose a question which might have remained academic if the two governments had been amicably disposed, but which rapidly became an important political question, as Signor Crispi found in it an opportunity for a hostile demonstration against France.

All those who have read the notes of Crispi on this question of the Capitulations of Massowah must acknowledge that they were not conceived in the ordinary style of diplomatic documents; they were aggressive and almost insulting. I was so much moved by their tone that I asked one of my old Italian friends if Crispi was, in this circumstance, obeying his own personal feelings only, or was really representing the sentiments of the Italian people. My friend was candid enough to tell me that Crispi could not have spoken differently; that not only he had public opinion with him, but that he was pushed on by public opinion, and could not resist it. He added that Italy was extremely angry with us; that, after we had taken the immense territory of Tunis, Italy raised no serious difficulty about the Capitulations in Tunisia, though there were as many as a thousand Italians living in Tunis; that France ought to have given every facility to the Italian Government at Massowah, instead of increasing her great difficulties. The press of the peninsula had become all the more bitter against the French Government the more these difficulties at Massowah wounded the pride of the Italian nation; and things had come to that pass that if Crispi had not spoken very loudly, he could not have remained in power.

This was said to me at the time when Crispi was on his way to Friedrichsruhe to confer with the Prince Chancellor of Germany. There was much uneasiness felt in France on the subject of this meeting, and it seemed to many that the Italian Premier had gone to his German ally to ask permission to begin the great struggle with France. These fears were exaggerated. Nobody knows exactly what was said at Friederichsruhe, but what we know for certain is, that the triparţite alliance or league concluded between Prussia, Austria, and Italy was essentially formed in the interest of peace, and it does not depend upon Italy to alter its defensive character and make it offensive. Of course, it is difficult at times to draw a precise line between an offensive and a defensive policy, but if it ever became the manifest interest of Prussia, the most powerful of the three allied Powers, to precipitate events, then such a question as that of the Capitulations would not be chosen as a pretext for the commencement of hostilities, since, on such a question, the great Powers are obliged to side technically with the nation that stands by the old treaties. The Porte has already come forward and taken sides against Italy. Russia, England, even Austria, cannot well oppose the doctrine set forth in the memoranda of the French Government.

It is to be hoped that the present difficulty will blow over. What remains, however, and what deserves attention, is the revival of the old feeling in Italy which used to be called misogallism. We can but deplore this. Let us not return to the old days when Gioberti wrote his "Rinnovamento," and judged France with so much injustice and severity; to the days when Leopardi could write these lines:

> "Taccio gli altri nemici e l'altre doglie,
> Ma non la Francia scelerata e nera,
> Per cui presso alle soglie
> Vide la Patria tua l'ultima sera."

France can threaten nobody; she has no intention of offending Italy; she could show by positive documents that the policy of Italy with regard to herself has changed, not only since 1870, but since 1866. Sadowa was the turning point. Italy remembered the old saying of Guicciardini, "Va dove si vince." I read in a despatch of Nigra's, written on the 11th of June, 1866, under Napoleon III., "The military aid of France is no longer desired in Italy." This is perfectly conceivable; we have always admired the proud "Italia farà da se" of Charles Albert; but can we forget that it was followed by Novara? Italy ought to reflect well before tracing the lines of a political programme which would include a systematic and definitive hostility to France. Neutrality would be, for her, the best and the safest policy.

CORSICA AND SAVOY.

PARIS, September 5, 1888.

THE marriage of the Duke of Aosta and the Princess Maria-Letitia Napoleon, in view of the possibility of his surviving both his brother, King Humbert, and his nephew, the Prince of Naples, that fair youth of eighteen, shy and conscious, and in feeble health, may well prove to be to Prince Napoleon the consolation of his old age. His Imperial Highness has gauged well the possible advantages to be derived from this alliance by the family of the Bonapartes; his parental joy need not be diminished if, during the wedding ceremonies at Turin, he should witness a recrudescence of the popularity which attended him in that city after the Italian campaign of 1859, when "Viva Napoleone, il nostro liberatore!" flew from mouth to mouth. After feeling the void around him growing wider and wider, as the people receded from his personality, it will not be disagreeable to Prince Napoleon, by way of a change, to find himself made much of.

Although well-assorted unions between highnesses are viewed by European eyes as much as ever as guarantees for the hopes and aspirations of their partisans, the calculations in this instance are too flagrantly premature. As if to make them less evident, the marriage is represented as one of inclination. Princess Letitia, says a courtly press, declares her aversion to contracts of political interest, citing candidly enough the uncongeniality of her own parents as an example she should regret to imitate. While the plausibility of this statement is somewhat compromised by the twenty years' seniority of the bridegroom, and his unromantic kinship—being her mother's own brother—it may be said that the young Princess, spite of her austere education, could not have been forced into the marriage against her will. She has a dash of her great-uncle in her, and this element is doubtless responsible for the amicable relation that exists between her and her father. She is the only one of his family with whom he is in accord. A friend remarks that one day, after a pretty lively family altercation which ended in defeat for Prince Napoleon, he naïvely ejaculated: "Où donc a-t-elle pris cette tête-là?" A manifestation of her will is evident in a special condition of her marriage imposed by herself, viz., that she shall be at liberty to receive and to visit, as frequently as she desires, her brother Victor, to whom she is devoted.

In appearance Princess Letitia is a thorough Bonaparte. Tall and vigorous, with marvellous black eyes and hair, clear features set well in relief by an ivory-white complexion characteristic of the Bonapartes, she personifies that fine type of young Roman women so admired by artists. In her graceful bearing she recalls her grandmother, Queen Catherine of Würtemberg, the model wife and mother whose exquisite nature all have appreciated since her private correspondence has been published at Stuttgart. Being French, Princess Letitia received a French education at the College of the Nuns of the Adoration of the Sacred Heart at Turin. She speaks German, English, and Italian with great facility, and, like most modern young women, can "make up" a landscape palette. Above all, she is a fine musician; her voice, remarkable in quality, is well cultivated, and will charm the guests of the Palazzo della Cisterna as it has charmed the congregations of the chapel of the nuns, where she sang every Sunday. But instead of the elegant Parisienne as report has represented her, one will be nearer the truth if he fancy Princess Letitia Napoleon clad in a combination garb very little removed in cut and color from the dress of the Carmelites, in whose company she and her mother attended mass every morning. A fanciful legend has also made of her a kind of Diana Vernon, skimming on horseback over the rugged surroundings of Moncalieri—an extremely romantic note, but inexact. Few so-called girlish whims have been indulged, but simple tastes mildly enforced.

Altogether, the life at Moncalieri might have been for its gayety that of two châtelaines of the fourteenth century. The château is an ancient *rendez-vous-de-chasse* situated some sixteen miles from Turin. It has too much the look of barracks to be architecturally beautiful, but it stands in one of those Italian landscapes of which the eye never tires—a peaceful valley bathed by the River Po, the sky meeting a chain of the Alps. All the children of Victor Emmanuel have been brought up in this retreat. Clotilde, Humbert, Amadeus, Maria-Pia played in those vast halls hung with the life-size portraits of the ancestors of the House of Savoy, from Humbert of the white hands down to Charles Albert. When the eldest daughter of the *re galantuomo* left France, after the arrest of her husband in 1872, she was given Moncalieri, and there also her two sons would have been educated if it had not been decided that they should follow the political fortune of their father.

Princess Clotilde sent her children to Italy in the care of one of her ladies of honor in the year 1870, after the proclamation of the republic, and Prince Amadeus came to the frontier to receive them. This incident must remain a curious souvenir in the events of to-day; he was at that time a young man of twenty-five, newly married, and Princess Letitia a baby four years old. The personal reminiscences she left in Paris are therefore very shadowy, but the souvenirs presented of her mother, now Princess Clotilde, are ever-enduring. The always becoming attitude of the daughter of Victor Emmanuel, her dignified departure from the Palais Royal, her retirement at Moncalieri, throw a halo round her, elevating the character of the woman to that of a saint; in her case royalty has been paid the great compliment of being held secondary to virtues.

When this marriage was announced, the ladies of France loyal to the Napoleonic cause felt unwilling to let the occasion pass without a testimonial of their sympathy and fidelity. A subscription was started, and the Committee ordered the present—I was going to say from the Crown jewellers—the old house of Bapst & Falize, who, under a monarchical régime, would by right of succession have the handling of the Crown treasure. While the subscription was still open, a rather curious evolution in thought took place. The etiquette of ordinary beings offering wedding presents to royalty was questioned, as if the circumstance was without precedent since scions of reigning houses have taken to private life in exile. The long list of priceless knick-knacks inscribed under aristocratic and financial names that figured on the occasion of the marriage of the Princess Amélie d'Orléans cannot have been forgotten. It was not then thought that the donors who so satisfactorily indulged their vanity, were guilty of the crime of *lèse-majesté*. But the subscription for the Princess Letitia's gift revealed scruples hitherto overlooked. Some of the ladies—willing enough to untie their purse strings—questioned the decorum of the proceeding, and felt shy of contributing to the splendors of a royal corbeille. The rule of antique monarchy was recalled, when the King never received, nor even loaned, but always gave, to be true to his prestige.

No better example than Amadeus's short reign in Spain is needed to prove how disappointed the constituents of royalty can feel when the rôle of King is not followed to the letter. It was not so much for his love of pleasure that the young King was censured. The Spaniards reproached him with treating too lightly the dignity of his position, with wanting to act like a simple citizen who, embarrassed with a crown, places it under his arm. But Amadeus preferred not reigning to governing violently. Therefore, as he was neither loved nor feared, and in sympathy with none of the parties, he abdicated at the end of two years. After this political episode the Duke of Aosta retired to private life, and his services to his country are limited to the general inspectorship of the cavalry regiments, and playing proxy to his brother the King at all minor state ceremonies. His first wife left him three sons, and one of the largest fortunes in Italy.

It remains to be seen if, in the present union, France will find an advocate who will foster in Italy the realization of the Napoleonic dream—the brotherhood of the two countries; or if M. Thiers's prophetic words, that "Italy's gratitude to France will only last as long as her weakness," will hold good to the end.

LE COCQ DE LAUTREPPE.

THE ISLAND OF CIRCE.

S. FELICE CIRCEO (Island of Circe), August 19, 1888.

YOUR correspondent "E. S." (*Nation*, No. 1205) points out the singularity of Greek history in the interruption of its chain of evidence during the period of Turkish subjection, and the contrast with Italy, where, as he intimates, every ruin and village has its record from the earliest Roman historical times down. In Greece, on the contrary, during the centuries between the decline of the Western Empire and the revival of Neo-Hellenism, there is no history of any importance except Byzantine; and Greece proper under the Byzantine rule is so completely unknown that the existence of the Parthenon was a discovery of modern times, and it has been possible to rediscover Byzantine colonies whose existence had never been suspected, on the ruins of the oldest Greek cities, and even to attribute to them a prehistoric origin—although we begin to find that there was scarcely an ancient site which was not occupied during the latter years of the Byzantine supremacy. This oblivion is not, however, due to the Turkish conquest and slavery, but goes further back, and probably began with the devastations and depopulation of the Slavic invasion and the consequent isolation of Greece proper, while the piracy and ravage of the Crusades and the conquests of Venice, actuated by the most venomous religious rancor, completed a prostration which the Turkish contest only continued. The original population was probably exterminated over the greater part of the actual Greek territory, and of course there was a complete break in tradition. This probably was the case as early as the thirteenth century; for the ruins on the site of Tiryns which Schliemann took for archaic (*i. e.*, Pelasgic), are in fact totally Byzantine, with bricks such as we find in the buildings of the twelfth and thirteenth century, and a mosaic floor of a barbarous kind which could only have been made in the lowest state of an art that came into existence in Greece in the first centuries of the Roman conquest. The Turks only came in with the conquest of Constantinople in the middle of the fifteenth century.

But there is a curious parallel to this break in the Greek historical record in that which takes place in the Italian prehistoric, and which is not less interesting because, instead of written documents and the interruption of them, the only evidence we have is of stone, of which we have yet only partially read the meaning. The earliest traditions of Italian civilization run very closely with the evidence of the constructions which remain from its primitive stages, and we can now even trace the original Umbrian and his successor and colleague the Pelasgian down to the establishment of Umbro-Pelasgic domination in Italy, with a tolerable probability. Then comes the break I allude to, and the traditions so utterly disappear that there is nothing to show with definiteness when the Etruscans came in and the Pelasgi disappeared.

In a letter to the *Nation* from Rieti, I made some references to the documents of the stone age still remaining in that mountain district, which seems to have been the great field of the Pelasgic development in Italy, and of which the fullest agglomeration does not coincide, as was for a long time supposed, with the Etruscan imperial limits, but with the Latin, as we see them defined in the alliances and movements of the Latin tribes in their wars with Rome, and especially in the great league whose defeat settled the question of Roman supremacy. The centre of this league was Sulmo (now Solmona), a city in the very heart of the Abruzzi, and equally removed from the domination of the Etruscan on one side and the Greek on the other. These Latin tribes emerge from the historical and traditional void into which the Pelasgi have gone; of the beginnings of the one and the end of the other we are equally ignorant. But the constructions and other prehistoric documents (of which, and of the way to read which, we are, thanks to the intelligent system of research adopted by the Italian Ministry of Public Instruction, every day learning more), taken in connection with the indications of tradition in the early Greek and Latin writers, show, as the probable solution of the problem, that the mysterious race which founded Italian civilization and left behind it 400 walled cities in central and southern Italy, with not even the shadow of its name, was simply the great Italic stock to which belonged the mass of the populations who, in the epoch of the earliest classical record—*circa* 700–600 B. C.—occupied the country between Etruria and Magna Grecia; and that, though they had been driven down from the north by the Etruscans, and from the south by the Hellenes, they had, in this great natural fortress, maintained their independence and a certain confederation.

I may have, in other communications to the *Nation*, called attention to the fact that whenever, in the earliest classical tradition, Zeus is called in question, it is as the type of Pelasgic civilization; and I am inclined to think that the tradition of the Saturnian epoch in Italy and its seven great cities refers to the same movement, Saturn and Zeus being to a certain extent bound together—the Saturnian cities being the communities of the golden age of Italy to which succeeds the empire of Jupiter (Zeus Pater), who remains the supreme god of the Pelasgic stock in Greece as in Italy, and whose presence in early local tradition is always marked, so far as my own researches go, at least, by the presence of the ruins known as Pelasgic or Cyclopean. It is another allied fact that the greatest part and the finest examples of those remains occur in the provinces once held by the Latin league. They give way to progress in many places, and a later form of construction occurs which might be called Latin, as it is only found in a distinctive state in some of the Latin cities, as at Antium, and, as I mentioned, at Reate, and, across the plain at one edge of which I am writing, at Terracina, the ancient Anxur.

But a more renowned city in the mythical days was Circeum, the city of Circe, to which Ulysses comes in his wanderings, though he evidently had only the vaguest traditions of the country, and was not aware that there was a city. It was then on an island, and the geological record, taken in connection with the traditional, is one of the most interesting combinations of myth and science I know of. The city is noticed as existing during the wars of Rome with the Latin tribes, and even in the social wars; but, except some ruins of imperial character, I have been able to find nothing of the Roman epoch. Taking Circeum as a part of the sub-Latin district in which come also the adjoining Antium and Anxur, one may say that it marks the break between the Pelasgic and Latin in the most emphatic manner; for while at the latter places the Latin masonry is unmistakable, in the former there is nothing which tells of an intermediate state between the Pelasgic and the Roman. Tradition is equally silent as to this period, for we only hear of Italy as known to the Greeks again in the early days of Rome, when the Corinthian vase-painters came to Tarquinia. It may be supposed that there was no history because there were no historians; but why tradition should be so completely silent, is more difficult to explain. I am not going to attempt to explain it here. Circeum is of itself a sufficiently interesting study.

That the island of Circe was at one time an island in fact, is not left to the assertion of Homeric tradition, for the examination of one of the caves on the coast shows that at one time the present coast line was at least thirty feet lower than it is now; and as the plain which connects the mountain with the mainland is largely occupied by the Pontine marshes, which are scarcely above the sea-level, a depression of the district to the distance of little more than half that would make it an island again. The remains of the Pelasgic city are most interesting and important, though so unknown that it has been a long time in dispute where Circeum stood. The modern village of S. Felice Circeo stands on an angle of the old *enceinte;* and on three sides of the present constructions the foundations of the houses which form the exterior defence (as in all the poorer mediæval towns) are based on the original Pelasgic wall, of which, in some parts, as much as six feet in height remains. It is of the rudest type, but is unmistakable. From this level plateau, about 400 feet above the sea, the land rises gently towards the mountain which overhangs it, and the wall may be traced following the elevation until it meets a precipice, on the top of which, at an elevation of 1,000 feet, is the plateau where the citadel is built. It is the usual plan on which the Pelasgic cities were built, but it is rare that they extend over such an amount of land as here. The slope lies exposed to the east, and is in great part, even in its present neglected condition, of remarkable fertility, and so well adapted to fruit culture that in the Middle Ages it was renowned for the variety and quality of its fruits. Of these we now find only the grape, which grows anywhere in Italy; a pear which grows without culture; blackberries, and the modern tomato, the culture of which is the main resource of a miserable and fever-stricken population. Yet the circuit of the ancient walls must be above two miles; and when one looks at the massive work that could only be the result of a highly organized and numerous population, and at the extent of the ancient city, one of so many, it is impossible not to draw the conclusion that ancient Italy was more densely populated than we have conceived.

I have said that the foundations of the ancient walls on which the present village is built are of the rudest form of Pelasgic, or what is generally known as Cyclopean—*i. e.*, of stone unworked in any way; and this is the case with most of the curtain which connected the lower with the upper town or citadel. But the latter is of the most elaborate and perfect polygonal masonry, and a gate still remaining is very similar to the little gate at Mykenæ. A portion of the wall still stands nearly twenty feet high. This town must date far back of the Homeric traditions, and belongs to the period when Æa was an island and the Tyrrhenian sea rolled where now are the Pontine marshes. But in the days of the early conquests of Rome under Tarquin—perhaps before—the Pometian plains were among the most coveted objects of Roman desire, and the principal source of the Roman grain supply. They are never spoken of as the Pometian (Pontine) marshes, and they were fought over and taken and retaken generation after generation; and the details of the operations show that even if there was such a feature as marsh in the Pometian district, it was of slight importance, and did not prevent Pometium from being one of the strongest and wealthiest cities of Latium, so that when Tarquinius Superbus captured it he made a booty of 4,000 talents of gold and silver. The plain is now so near the level of the sea that the drainage of the marshes is practically impossible, and the malaria makes every year new ravages in the diminishing towns around them.

The record, then, is of a redemption from the sea and a resumption going on and perhaps not yet complete, with a corresponding fluctuation of population, through which a city that must have numbered its people by many thousands, is reduced to a corner of its old area and a small fraction of what it once held. And the evidence is, that all over this part of Italy—from Tuscany down to Campania at least—the same diminution has been going on since the Roman Empire. The Pontine plains are said once to have held twenty-three cities where now only miserable fever-stricken villages, half-a-dozen or so, and these diminishing in population, are to be found. Of these old cities Circeum must have been one of the most important; Tarquin is said to have put his own son over it, and the simple fact that its fortifications are not renewed in masonry of a later time is an indication that it was not treated as many of the Latin cities were, for it figures in the wars of Sylla and Marius, and then probably met its destruction. Of the great Pometium we know nothing—not even its site; but of the other cities only Cora seems to have rivalled this in extent and the importance of its works. The gateway is of the most massive workmanship, and it is not at all uncommon to find blocks of stone in the walls ten feet long, and the wall itself was ten feet thick. But the gateway—the only one I could discover—is only five feet wide, and of the same width is all that remains of the main street.

I should not forget to mention that one feature of the ruins of Circeum is a port of which I do not remember any similar construction. It was guarded by two towers not connected with the city in any way that I can discover. There is a basin, now high and dry, opposite them, and this has been made use of in the imperial times, so that it is now impossible to investigate its original character; but it was necessary to the site, as the shore is rocky

and did not permit the drawing up of the ships on the strand, as was the custom in the Homeric age, and still is with craft of the dimensions of those which then ruled the seas.

What may be the origin of the myth of the magic of Circe it is hardly possible even to conjecture, yet I hold that in all cases there is some root for the old superstitions. I can even fancy that in a different condition of the climate, as when the rainfall was much greater than now, as it must have been anciently, the extreme dryness which is now the ruin of Circeum (the summer being quite rainless) might have been a delightful perpetual summer, enchanting to all who entered into its influence, and that an enervating sense of the luxury of existence might have overcome the mariner who fell on these shores. As Reinach has shown that a rational basis for the myth of the lotophagi is to be found in the date fruit, we may conjecture that a similar condition of the Circean existence was the basis of the witchery of Æa.

To those interested in the archæology of the Roman Empire, there is nothing of importance at Circeum itself; but at the other end of the long mountain which was the island of Æa, there is the *piscina* of Lucullus in tolerable preservation and still one of the most important fisheries on the Italian coast. The mediæval town was absolutely destroyed during the wars between Rome and Naples, and rebuilt entirely in the middle of the sixteenth century, so that, except the foundations of the Pelasgic walls, there is nothing older than 1550, and the village is one of the least picturesque one can see in all Italy. W. J. S.

Correspondence.

THE MORAL ISSUE IN TARIFF REFORM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your editorial in the *Nation* of the 13th, treating tariff reform as a moral issue, is timely and to the point. It has thus far been treated by the press generally in a purely selfish way. The argument *ad captandum* has been too much employed, and the appeal to personal interests has savored too much of the Pennsylvania manner of presenting the advantages of so-called protection. In a political campaign where there is real necessity of presenting truth in some tentative form to those who have not been "students of maxims," and among a people who have been taught to despise the political philosopher as a dreamer or theorist, and look to some successful but not unlikely illiterate "practical man" as the fount of knowledge, there may exist good cause for this manner of disregarding the ethics involved; and yet the very general opinion of those who have been working for commercial freedom for years, is to the effect that more success has accompanied an appeal to the moral nature of those interested in the question than any other form of argument. It has been the great secret of Mr. Hurd's addresses. His eloquence is never so convincing as when, abandoning particulars and statistics, he urges the injustice and moral turpitude of the system of spoliation whose misnomer is protection. The theme of his every discourse is Liberty, and he is very free to admit that his greatest success in making tariff-reformers is when speaking on that line. Prof. Perry has for years taught free trade as a social duty, and has ever sought to impress upon the minds of his classes the morality, or want of it, involved in any system of taxation which unjustly deprives one of the full fruits of his labor.

The tariff, if it does anything, works an unnatural distribution. This means an unnatural interference in personal rights, and whatever touches such rights has no right to plead exemption from moral judgments.

Chas. E. Wheeler.

Toledo, O., September 15, 1888.

THE PHILANTHROPY OF PROTECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: How hard it is to get you to put in your paper one word for Protection, I know from the talk of some persons who have always shrunk from even asking you for fair treatment; but Protection is a religion, and, like other religions, aims to benefit not one country (still less one class), but all mankind. You may fail to see the motive that actuates the true protectionist (for there are protectionists falsely so called); but beware how you refuse a hearing to a man whose heart is in the cause.

For just see what has been done by the United States for the world through our efforts. By excluding from other countries our natural products, we have promoted the prosperity of those countries. Details are not to be expected in a newspaper communication; nor, in fact, are they necessary. You have but to open your cyclopædias or geographies or gazetteers to see what marvellous changes have taken place in South America, in Australia, in New Zealand, in Africa, even in Europe. Are you so blinded by your theories and maxims as not to see that it is the *fact* of Protection that has wrought these changes? Just imagine where England would be if the blighting influence of free trade had not been counteracted and even, in some measure, overborne by our exertions in her behalf. It is time to cease calling protectionists selfish. Courageously, cheerfully, exultantly have we devoted our incomes and our earnings to this cause. The world has witnessed no nobler spectacle than that of millions of hard-working men and women putting away from themselves a large share of their substance in furtherance of this sacred purpose. Were we only true to the duty imposed on us, did we but cherish in our hearts this trust which it is ours to maintain, then would we take measures to exclude our productions from foreign countries more rigorously than now. This would diversify their industries. They could make for themselves what they get from us, and quit making what they send us. England would blossom like a garden; and the English manufacturers would have a home-market, a sale for their output at their own doors. If protection benefits us, must it not likewise benefit them? It is the law of action and reaction in the moral world. Strange that a truth so simple, an obvious deduction from a law of nature, should have been overlooked even by protectionists themselves. Andrew Ingraham.

New Bedford, Mass., September 13, 1888.

PROTECTION AND STRIKES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Our protectionists are, indeed, most remarkable beings. The majority of them have perhaps never fully realized how clever they are, and how brilliant is the discovery the world owes to them. It is an infallible system for protecting labor against the injustice of our social organization, which continually threatens the laborer with starvation wages, that calls for our gratitude. Such a system, brought to perfection, would be the final solution of the social question. Its logical outcome is, that if taxation be increased by means of a prohibitory tariff tending to the exclusion of all foreign products, then pauperism will at once disappear, strikes and boycotts be relegated to a dreary past, peace and harmony prevail between laborer and employer; the laborer will have all the work wanted, never lose a day by hard times, nor suffer a reduction of wages; his wife, no longer his competitor, will become his companion and helpmeet, and his children, happily innocent of the fact that an existence has to be struggled for, will flourish within the sacred precincts of a true home.

What a fine prospect to the protected laborer! What a pity that such a theory should be contradicted by stubborn facts! How close to this ideal we approached under the régime of protection will appear from a consideration of the following statistics, compiled from the third annual report of the Commissioner of Labor on "Strikes and Lockouts": Within the six years 1880-1886, in twenty-eight enumerated industries, there were concerned in strikes and lockouts 1,484,026 laborers, with a loss to employers and employees of $94,136,254. Five protected industries alone, viz., boots and shoes, clothing, metals and metallic works, mining, cotton and woollen goods, contribute the following figures to the total: Laborers participating in strikes and lockouts, 715,406, *i. e.*, about 50 per cent. of the total; loss to employers and employees, $49,427,143, more than 50 per cent. This figure does not include the assistance afforded to the striking laborers in these five industries, which amounted to $1,939,375, and represents so much loss and privation to other wage-earners. Out of 6,038 strikes in these five industries, 5,247, or 87 per cent., arose from the question of wages. One cannot estimate the tears, the distress, the starvation, the disturbance of all our industries under the régime of protection implied by these few figures. What a salvation to the laborer is protection! Louis Ka.

September 28, 1888.

THE FORGED ASIATIC TERRACOTTAS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The writer of "Archæologists vs. Experts," in the *Nation* of August 23, states that there are still a number of authorities eager to maintain the authenticity of the Cymæan, Ephesian, etc., terracotta groups. This is not quite the case. There actually exists—setting aside the dealers and the non-professional archæologists—but *one* authority in favor of these celebrated counterfeits; that authority is M. Froehner, who wrote the letter to the *Athenæum* alluded to in your article. I take the opportunity to add that M. Kekulé, the well-known professor of archæology in Bonn, quite recently wrote to me that he had never believed in the authenticity of *any* so-called Asiatic group. From a purely scientific point of view, the question must be considered as solved. Who are the forgers? That is quite another problem, which offers but a slight interest for science.

Truly yours, Salomon Reinach.

Château de St.-Germain-en-Laye, Sept. 4, 1888.

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons add to their series of "Questions of the Day" 'The Relation of the Tariff to Wages: A Short and Simple Catechism,' by David A. Wells; 'The Tariff and its

Evils,' by John H. Allen; and 'American Prisons in the Tenth U. S. Census,' by Frederick A. Wines. They further announce 'Business,' by James Platt, after the 75th English edition; 'Glimpses of the Future,' by David G. Croly; and a rhymed version of the first six books of the 'Aeneid,' by Henry Hamilton.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s autumn announcements include 'The Poetic and Prose Works of John G. Whittier,' in seven volumes, with two etched and three engraved portraits, the poems having been rearranged, classified, and revised by the author, with notes and an appendix consisting of poems heretofore omitted by Mr. Whittier from the successive general collections of his verse; a new biographical series of "American Religious Leaders," as, Jonathan Edwards (by Prof. A. V. G. Allen), Charles Hodge (by President Patton of Princeton), Francis Wayland (by Prof. J. S. Murray), Archbishop Hughes (by John G. Shea), Theodore Parker (by John Fiske), etc.; 'Indiana: a Redemption from Slavery,' by J. P. Dunn, jr., and 'Ohio,' by Rufus King (in the "American Commonwealths" series); 'The Critical Period of American History, 1783-1789,' by John Fiske; 'Young Sir Harry Vane,' by Prof. James K. Hosmer; 'History of the Old South Church, Boston,' by Hamilton A. Hill, in two volumes, illustrated; 'Colonial Times on Buzzard's Bay,' by W. R. Bliss; 'History of Woodstock, Vermont,' by Henry S. Dana; 'The Life of Delia Bacon,' author of the Baconian theory of Shakspere, by her nephew, Theodore Bacon; 'Ancient Rome in the Light of Recent Discoveries,' by Prof. Rodolfo Lanciani, illustrated; 'The Soul of the Far East,' by Percival Lowell; the first Supplement to 'Poole's Index,' January 1, 1882-1887, by W. F. Poole and W. I. Fletcher; 'Flowers and Fruit,' selections from the writings of Harriet Beecher Stowe; 'After Noontide,' selections by Margaret E. White; 'Books and Men,' essays by Agnes Repplier; 'On Horseback, and Mexican Notes,' by Charles Dudley Warner; Björnson's drama, 'Sigurd Slembe,' translated by Wm. M. Payne; Dante's 'Divina Commedia,' metrically translated by John Augustine Wilstach, in two volumes; a holiday edition of Longfellow's 'Courtship of Miles Standish,' with illustrations by Boughton, Merrill, and others; vols. 9 and 10, 'Literary Curiosities' and 'Topography,' in Mr. G. Laurence Gomme's edition of the *Gentleman's Magazine Library*; 'Poetry, Comedy, and Duty,' by Prof. C. C. Everett; 'The Law of Equivalents, in its relations to Political and Social Ethics,' by Edward Payson; 'Realistic Idealism in Philosophy Itself,' by Nathaniel Holmes; 'The Diatessaron of Tatian,' translated from the Arabic by Prof. A. L. Frothingham, jr.; a new edition of Andrews and Stoddard's 'Latin Grammar,' by Prof. Henry Preble; and the following fiction—'The Despot of Broomsedge Cove,' by Charles Egbert Craddock; 'The Guardians'; 'The McVeys,' by Joseph Kirkland; 'Molly Bishop's Family,' by Catherine Owen; 'The Cheezles,' by Lucy Gibbons Morse; 'The Peckster Professorship,' by J. P. Quincy; and 'Our Phil, and Other Stories,' by Katharine Floyd Dana.

Ginn & Co. announce 'The Elements of Plane Analytic Geometry,' by Prof. John D. Runkle. They have also in press a new edition of Lanman's Sanskrit Reader, with the long-delayed notes (which will also be issued by themselves), together with 'The Voices of Children,' a theoretical and practical guide for the training of them, by W. H. Leib.

W. R. Jenkins will publish here Zola's new novel, 'Le Rêve,' vouched for as "suitable for everybody to read," simultaneously with its coming out in Paris; also, an *édition de luxe*, in French, of Hugo's 'Notre Dame de Paris,' with illustrations, in two volumes, printed at the University Press, Cambridge, Mass. A new series of "Classiques Françaises" will be introduced by several of Molière's and Corneille's plays edited with notes by Prof. Schele de Vere.

Fords, Howard & Hulbert have nearly ready 'Sermons from Plymouth Pulpit,' by Henry Ward Beecher, in four volumes; and 'Spirit and Life,' sermons by the Rev. Amory H. Bradford; and in preparation, 'The Human Mystery in Hamlet,' by Martin W. Cook.

The next volume in Freeman's series of "Historic Towns" will be Mr. Montagu Burrows's 'Cinque-Ports.' It will be published both in London and New York by Longmans, Green & Co.

'Poor's Manual of Railroads' (New York: H. V. and H. W. Poor) has reached its majority, the new issue for the current date being the twenty-first in a series whose value it would be superfluous to insist upon. Among the novel features in the contents is the statement of the new railroad construction of 1886-87-88, furnished by the *Engineering News*, together with a colored map of the United States in which the extensive additions to our ever-spreading system are made strikingly manifest to the eye. The miles of line laid in 1887 (12,668) considerably exceeded those of 1882, the most active year previously on record. Kansas was the scene of one-sixth of this construction, and the centre of the greater part. There are several maps of States in groups, exhibiting railroad systems.

Hardly any volume of the series of Browning's Poetical Works in the new edition carefully looked after by the author (Macmillan) is more characteristic than the fifth. It embraces the dramatic romances and the "Christmas-Eve and Easter-Day." Among the former, such poems of passion as "The Glove," "In a Gondola," and "The Statue and the Bust," are mingled with the "Incident of the French Camp," "Waring," "The Pied Piper of Hamlin," etc. From this collection the poet could be as surely inferred as, by the anatomist, the extinct animal from its solitary fossil member.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have, in connection with Douglas of Edinburgh, published a handsome third edition of Sir G. W. Dasent's 'Popular Tales from the Norse,' a work which has been for thirty years before the public. The appendix is made up of so-called "Ananzi [or Spider] Stories" of the West Indies, in which various affinities with Aryan folk-lore are discernible. One of them, which has a parallel in the Norse, can be matched also in the second "Uncle Remus" series.

The same publishers send us their two promised editions of the President's tariff message of December last—one of the few messages that have had the distinction of passing out of the category of public documents into literature, and becoming salable. That illustrated by Mr. Nast is not so effective as it would be if the cartoons had been based upon the message rather than upon the subject of protection. Mr. R. R. Bowker, on the other hand, has much enhanced the weight of the message by his "annotations," in which he has made good use of past utterances of Republican Presidents, commissions, and platforms; and of Secretary Fairchild's Report. His pamphlet forms No. 48 of the "Questions of the Day" series.

Miss Frances E. Willard's 'Woman in the Pulpit' (Boston: D. Lothrop Co.) is a Scriptural argument in favor of the proposition implied in the title. Perhaps it would be more correctly described as a refutation of Scriptural argument against the ordaining and preaching of women. The publishers say that "whatever views one may hold as to the merits of the case, he will find much material for reflection" in this volume. Our own reflection is, that it is calculated to impeach all appeals to the Bible for the determination not only of similar questions, but of any question. Miss Willard gets over certain obstacles in her way by attacking "literal exegesis," and offering in its place what she calls "reasonable exegesis"; that is, she assumes the right to make any text literal or figurative as she pleases. This she calls "playing fast and loose," in the case of her adversaries, who have exercised the same privilege of determining what are and what are not "proof texts." She thinks that exegesis will never be put on a right basis till women have an equal share in it with men. Perhaps not, but her present contribution does not lead us to expect so much as she does from this coöperation. However, she is able to quote several divines on her side on the main question.

The fifth volume of the *Forum* is a stout volume of 700 pages. Its index imperfectly reveals the contents for want of being analytic. We make out that the leading topics of discussion, by writers of greater or less prominence, have been the reduction of the surplus, protection, the Southern question, legislative control of intemperance and of railroads, copyright, the public schools, municipal reform, Romanism, etc. Foreign topics are not numerous—"Scotland of To-day," by Prof. John Stuart Blackie, "Irish Landlordism," by Michael Davitt, and Bishop Chatard's "Temporal Power and the Papacy" being the solitary examples, unless we include Mr. Higginson's "English and American Manners."

The newly issued annual report of the Commissioner of Pensions for the current year is remarkable for a map of the United States, showing (besides other data) the population of each in 1860, the number of volunteers and bounty men, and the number of pensioners. The total of these last on July 1, 1888, for the whole country was 452,557—our standing army. New York's share is almost exactly one-tenth of this number; Ohio and Pennsylvania fall but little behind, and are nearly equal to each other. Indiana, Illinois, and Massachusetts follow in order. The once slaveholding States, loyal and disloyal, foot up one-seventh (68,178), Missouri leading off with 18,955, only some 200 less than her neighbor and former victim, Kansas.

The first number of the third volume of the Papers of the American Historical Association (G. P. Putnam's Sons) contains a report of the proceedings of the Association at Boston and Cambridge in May of last year. The most permanently valuable papers are those by Mr. Justin Winsor on the MS. sources of American history in the conspicuous collections extant, and by Mr. A. B. Hart on the biography of a river and harbor bill. In connection with Dr. H. B. Adams's memorial sketch of Leopold von Ranke, the writer prints for the first time a contribution towards a bibliography of the great historian. Prof. C. W. Bennett tells of the nature and extent of the Ranke library secured for Syracuse University. Of curious interest is Mr. H. C. Lea's communicated extract from the 'Analecta Franciscana,' being a letter from Hispaniola by a missionary of that order in the year 1500, when "a certain admiral, captain, and chief placed there, ill-treating those new men, taking their goods and wives, and capturing their virgin daughters, was sent to Spain in chains and replaced by another." There is a noticeably large proportion of foreign topics in the Proceedings, and a noticeable absence of

American papers on the period subsequent to the Revolution.

Without a prospectus or announcement of any kind, the first number of *University Studies* has been published by the University of Nebraska at Lincoln (July, 1888). It is an excellent beginning. The first paper is "On the Transparency of the Ether," by D. B. Brace; the second, "On the Propriety of Retaining the Eighth Verb-Class in Sanskrit," by A. H. Edgren. The last, by J. A. Fontaine, "On the History of the Auxiliary Verbs in the Romance Languages," is a very learned and serious piece of work, that will well repay study.

Young Hearts is the fresh title selected for a new juvenile monthly launched this month in this city (62 Cedar St.). Typographically, it has been conceived with good judgment.

Vacation being over, the Syracuse *Academy* reappears, in its September issue. Mr. Briggs's amusing paper on "The Harvard Admission Examination in English" is the most noteworthy. The editor awards high praise to President Eliot's paper in the August *Atlantic* on the shortening of school programmes, as "the most important educational document of the year."

The late Michael Heilprin has an affectionate tribute paid to him by the Rev. J. W. Chadwick in the September number of the Boston *Unitarian Review*. The notice contains not a few particulars which we think have not seen the light in other outlines of the life of that lamented scholar.

The September *Portfolio* (Macmillan) gives a large measure of its space to living English artists—at one extreme of years, to James Clarke Hook; at another, to the very promising young sculptor, Harry Bates, several of whose pieces are reproduced with fidelity. Mr. Hamerton gives us his Fourth Conversation on Book Illustration, which (under the title "Technical Necessities") takes a wide range. We learn what "Tone" is in illustration, and how wood-engravings surpass pen-and-ink drawings in this regard; what sort of treatment is appropriate for poetry, what for novels, books of travel, scientific works, etc. Here are some of the dicta—by the "Artist" of the talkers: "The absolutely perfect illustration of a poem in which landscape was mentioned, would be in water-color, with the inconvenience that there could only be a single copy"; by the "Critic": "Mezzotint, which is useless for scientific purposes, is excellent in those books which belong to the category of the Fine Arts"; by the same: "It is in the highest degree remarkable that at a time when etching had fallen into almost complete disrepute as a fine art, it was resorted to by the illustrators of novels merely for the facility of its line and the fidelity with which the line could be printed after the biting."

From the International News Co. we have late issues of *Paris Illustré*, in French, with the announcement that early in October an English edition will begin to appear simultaneously with the French. By reason of its first-rate color-prints, this weekly holds an exceptional position among journals of its class.

It is with not a little surprise that we see America supplying France with dances; but so it is. M. J. Lagus, professor of dancing at Pau, has just put forth a 'Nouveau Guide des Danses françaises et américaines' (Paris: Sauvaitre; New York: Brentano), in which we find explained and exemplified a "Nouveau quadrille américain" and the "boston-valse." In describing the latter, M. Lagus declares that "il est difficile d'arriver à être excellent bostonneur. . . . Un peu de constance et beaucoup de pratique suffiront pour imiter les Américains, qui exécutent cette danse avec une souplesse, une élégance et une grâce vraiment prodigieuses."

'Souvenirs d'un Homme de Lettres' is the title of the sequel of M. Alphonse Daudet's 'Trente Ans de Paris' to be published shortly in French, illustrated in the fashion which has made the Tartarin books doubly delightful.

In a recent mention of Ginn & Co.'s school edition of Franklin's Autobiography, we mistakenly implied that no notice was taken of his anti-slavery endeavors in his latter years. We still think, however, that they did not receive due prominence at the hands of the editor.

—The new circular of the Selden Society again draws attention to the excellent objects which that body has in hand, viz.: (1.) The printing of manuscripts and of new editions and translations of books having an important bearing on English legal history; (2.) The collection of materials for dictionaries of Anglo-French and Law Terms; (3.) The collection of materials for a history of English law. The students of our early law know well the need of these things. The Society has not yet a large membership. Although small, it is one which embodies much learning and distinction, as the circular sufficiently indicates. Of course the work of the Society must depend upon the number of its members, whose annual fees are its sole means of support. Nothing is paid by the Society for salaries, and no liability is incurred by joining it, beyond the annual subscription. Any person whatever may become a member by sending this annual subscription of one guinea, or $5.18 (which falls due on January first of each year), to the General Secretary, Prof. J. B. Thayer of the Harvard Law School, Cambridge, Mass., or to any of the local secretaries. The local secretary for New York is Mr. Alexander Tison, 40 Wall Street. The circular may be had of the same persons. All lawyers may well count it as a debt to their profession to become members of the Selden Society. It makes its appeal also to historical and philological students, and indeed to all lovers of good learning.

—Of the first volume of the Society's publications, 'Select Pleas of the Crown—A. D. 1200–1225,' selected and translated by F. W. Maitland, we spoke in the *Nation* of May 31 last. The second volume will contain selections made by the same accomplished hand from the earliest Manorial Rolls extant, viz., those of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. Of the extremely valuable and interesting details which must lie buried in these unpublished records of local country life and manners, as well as of early custom and law, one may get some impression from the Quo Warranto cases of the time of Edward III., about A. D. 1330, in Keilwey's Reports, where the lords of certain manors were called on to show the extent and kind of jurisdiction which they claimed, and by what right they claimed it. See especially case 14, on page 141, b. In Pike's 'History of Crime,' volume 1, pp. 450, 451, and in the second volume of Palgrave's 'History of the English Commonwealth,' one may also see illustrations of what went on in the small local courts. "The first stages of a criminal prosecution," says the new circular of the Selden Society, "often take place in the local courts; and the pettier offences are punished there, the King's courts hardly as yet interfering with any crime which falls short of felony. The mediæval law as to offences answering to our modern misdemeanors and offences punishable upon summary conviction, must be found in the rolls of the local courts, which were in truth the police courts of the neighborhood. . . . In short, the whole legal life, and much of the social life, of a mediæval village is recorded in one way or another upon the manor rolls." The 'Select Pleas of the Crown' will be continued hereafter. At present it is thought desirable to give variety to the work of the Society by a volume from the Manor Rolls. If the number of subscribers is large enough, more than one volume will be issued in respect of the year's subscription.

—The recently issued April–May number of the *Bulletin du Bibliophile* makes its appearance with a black border in memory of its editor and publisher, Léon Techener, whose death occurred on the 23d of May, after a long and painful illness. A special number of the *Bulletin* is devoted to an appreciative sketch of his life and labors, from the pen of Baron Ernouf, one of his collaborators. The regular number contains the conclusion of a catalogue of the French publications which bear the imprint, well known to bibliophiles, "À Cologne chez Pierre Marteau"; an article by C. M. Briquet on the utility of water-marks from a bibliographical point of view; and an interesting summary of the results of the recent sale of the Baron de la Roche la Carelle's library. The catalogue contained 550 numbers, and the proceeds of the sale were 540,000 francs. An examination of the catalogue shows that the prices obtained were in most cases exceptionally high, even for these days of high prices, and entitle this sale to rank among the most successful ones of recent years. The famous manuscript book of Hours, with the beautiful miniatures attributed to Memling, which sold for 20,800 francs at the Didot sale in 1878, was bought by E. Paillet for 22,250 francs. It is evident that the bindings of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries are still eagerly sought after by collectors; and as the specimens in this collection were in an unusually fine state of preservation the competition was keen. Padeloup and Derome seem to be the favorites; thus, a copy of the 'Offices de la Toussaint' (Paris, 1720.12°) in a magnificent mosaic binding, considered to be the most perfect specimen of Padeloup's work, and bought at the Pichon sale in 1870 for 1,800 francs, brought the astonishing sum of 18,600 francs. A copy of La Fontaine's 'Fables' brought 61 francs at the Nodier sale in 1844, 235 francs at the Pichon sale in 1870, and 805 francs in 1888. One of Derome's bindings was sold in 1837 for 200 francs, in 1869 for 1,450 francs, and in 1888 for 1,880. A fine specimen of Le Gascon's binding, which was bought at Brunet's sale in 1869 for 2,125 francs, sold for 7,150. On the other hand, the infatuation which raged a few years ago for the bindings of Trautz-Bauzonnet seems to have had its day, if this sale affords us any criterion; thus, specimens of his binding which were sold for 3,020 and 1,900 francs at the Pichon sale in 1870 brought only 1,580 and 830 francs in this sale. Another, which sold for 5,000 francs in 1877, brought only 3,055. It is interesting to trace the growth and decline of this rage for his bindings in the history of a specimen of his workmanship, which was sold for 70 francs at the Meon sale in 1804, for 1,800 francs at the Pichon sale in 1870, for 5,900 francs at the Didot sale ten years ago, but which now brings only 2,205 francs. Turning again to the older binders, we find one of Boyet's bindings which was sold at the Pixérécourt sale in 1839 for 260 francs, at the Pichon sale for 1,600, now bringing 3,500 francs.

—The latest number of the *Zeitschrift für deutsches Altertum* (xxxii, pp. 196–334) contains a very searching and scholarly article by Zimmer, on the traces of Germanic (Dano-

Norwegian) influence in Irish heroic legend. We can give only a few points. Irish history may be divided into three periods: the period prior to the conversion to Christianity, down to 400 A. D.—a purely indigenous state, in which the elements of heroic tradition were formed; second, the period of migration and expansion, notably towards Scotland and Wales, down to the end of the seventh century; third, from 684 A. D. on, a period when the Irish were in turn invaded by Anglo-Saxons, Northmans, and Anglo-Normans. Irish heroic tradition, formed in the first of these periods, was reformed under Christian influences in the second, and cast into the final shape in which we now have it in compilations like the 'Lebor na Huidre' and Leinster Book. This *remaniement* was equivalent to an organic process. It is not until the third period that we discover Germanic influences, and these are evidently misunderstood (and therefore distorted) borrowings from a foreign source. They stand out in marked contrast with the native elements of the great Cuchulinn-Medb cycle. Pages 264-289 treat of Germanic loan-words introduced during this period—*e. g.*, *elta*, 'sword-hilt,' palpably the Danish-Norwegian *helt*- before going over to the specific Iceland form, *hjalt*-. But the cream of the essay for a Germanist will be found on pp. 289 324, where Zimmer shows step by step that the Cuchulinn-cycle contains faded but still recognizable traces (*a*) of the "horny" Sigfrid-myth; (*b*) of the children of the "Mist" (*Nibel-ung*); (*c*) of kinship by blood-drinking (a marked Norse trait); (*d*) of Cuchulinn and four antagonists, holding towards one another the position of Sigfried, Hagen, Gunther, Giselher, Gernot; (*e*) of Hagen's elfish nature reflected in Cuchulinn; (*f*) of the *Tarnkappe*, cap (here mantle) of invisibility; (*g*) of the *ægis-hjalm*, helmet of terror. Zimmer infers that the Irish learned from the Vikings the later, Low-German version of the Nibelung story, as now preserved in the 'Thidreks-saga.' The circumstance that the Irish must have known the story *before* 975 A. D. (an allusion to it being found in a poem by Cinaed, who died in that year), is a fresh confirmation of Edzardi's view, that the story migrated in this shape from Lower Germany to Scandinavia prior to the tenth century.

—Zimmer refers more than once to a previous paper by him, in the *Preussische Jahrbücher* for January, 1887, upon the part played by the Irish element in mediæval culture. We should have called our readers' attention long ago to this remarkable paper. It is of an altogether different character from the present, inasmuch as it deals with known facts of ecclesiastical history. Although it does not contain much that is strictly novel, it gives a graphic picture of the successive groups of Irish missionary monks, their labors in France, Italy, Switzerland, and Germany, their strength, their weaknesses. The author's style is clearness itself, his grouping and illumination of cardinal facts and features are masterly. We cannot attempt to condense what is already so concise. We can only express the wish that the paper may be translated into English. Nowhere else will the reader find such a trustworthy statement of what the Irish accomplished for the early middle ages.

—In Chiapas, a Mexican State bordering on Guatemala and traversed by the upper course of the Grijalva River, a language called Chiapaneco is spoken, which, at an earlier period, is known to have sent an offshoot into Central America. At present the area of the Chiapanec language is limited to a few towns, and the knowledge which linguists have had of it has been rather scanty. It was exhibited in several small books composed by Spanish missionaries, two of which were made public by Mr. Alphonse Pinart in 1875; but its grammatic structure was not fully disclosed by them. Mr. Lucien Adam, the Americanist, recently heard of the existence of two treatises written by Fray Ivan Nuñez in 1633, in this language, and, having utilized them, succeeded in obtaining a much more enlarged knowledge of its structural peculiarities than could previously be had. The curious phonetic processes of the initial syllables also receive more light by his investigations, which have been made public under the title 'La Langue chiapanègue.' The substantives of the language are divided into two classes, the first of which is called *tighe*, and comprises all living beings and a few inanimate objects; the second, *ticao*, embraces all other inanimate things. That there is also a grammatical difference between the two is stated further on. The non-possessive state is marked in each substantive by *n*- prefixed, which also occurs in the Otomi dialects further to the northwest. When the noun is in the possessive state in some of the substantives, we find a strange mode of pointing it out independently of the *suffixed* possessive pronoun, by prefixing *nj*-, *nba*-, *ma*-, *njhi*-, and other syllables to the noun standing in the singular, *copa*-, *co*- to the noun in the plural number. In the verbal inflection there is an exclusive and an inclusive form for the first person in the plural, and this also exists in the pronoun. The inflection of the transitive verb differs somewhat from that of the intransitive, and is based upon a difference of the suffixed personal pronouns. Tenses and modes are formed either by temporal prefixes or by particles placed after the verb, and in many instances by auxiliary verbs. Derivative verbs are formed exclusively by prefixion. Although Adam has failed to add a full verbal paradigm to his volume, he has gathered a large number of words into a vocabulary of forty-five pages, and has also parsed and analyzed some of the devotional texts. We regret that none of the Mexican languages has ever been published by means of a scientific alphabet, since the Spanish alphabet, poor in sounds, is unfit to transcribe any of them accurately.

REID'S LIFE OF FORSTER.

Life of the Right Hon. William Edward Forster. By T. Wemyss Reid. 2 vols. London: Chapman & Hall; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

MR. REID has done his work well. His book is not of the first order of biographies, but it is an admirable blending of the private life of a man with sufficient contemporary history to enable us to understand and appreciate his career. As long as the recollections of those events, and the names of the many great and interesting men with whom Forster was associated, remain in the public mind, it will be referred to; and there is much in it that will recommend it to the historian and the searcher after facts to illustrate the annals of our time. For all interested in the history of the abolition movement and the war of 1861-5 so far as it affected British sympathizers, in the struggle for extended education in England, and in late events in Ireland, it has peculiar attractions, and is especially valuable. The story is told "so far as may be in Mr. Forster's own words, in the letters which he addressed to his family and friends, in the diaries which he kept from day to day for a great part of his life. These records speak far more clearly and truthfully than any narrative, however artistic, could do of the character of the man himself." We are given two striking portraits—one from a sketch by Lawrence when Mr. Forster was thirty-three, another (a remarkably characteristic one) from a photograph twenty-three years later, when the cares of the world had marked his countenance. There is a lithograph of the picturesque two-storied thatched cottage where he was born in Dorsetshire, and in the second volume we are shown the interior of his beloved library in his northern home at Wharfeside, in Yorkshire.

William Edward Forster was born in 1818 of the best Quaker blood in England—closely allied to the Gurneys, the Frys, the Buxtons, the Foxes—brought up in the then closely guarded circle of the society distinguished by its costume, speech, and other peculiarities, which, in England, at least, have almost entirely disappeared, and by a philanthropy which has, we hope, now become common to all sects and creeds. We are given a charming picture of the almost cloister-like influences under which the only child was reared in the lovely old home to which the father, William Forster, had brought his bride, Anna Buxton:

"In this modest home husband and wife settled down to a life of quiet happiness, the foundation of which was their mutual devotion to the work to which both had felt themselves to be called [religious ministry]. Poverty of the sordid kind was not permitted to enter their doors, and yet they were very poor, only being able to make both ends meet by the exercise of a rigid economy and self-denial faced with equal courage and contentment by both. Both were very fond of flowers—the wife's preference being, however, for the simple wild flowers of the wayside. . . . It was not, however, in the adornment of their cottage home, in the culture of their innocent natural tastes, that the newly married couple found their chief delight."

They found it in helping their poorer neighbors, and in that work in the ministry to which they felt themselves called. Indeed, Forster may be said to have been born to sympathy with the American slave and with Ireland. His father was, like the whole connection, deeply engaged in the anti-slavery movement. His mother, shortly after her marriage and before his birth, spent three months as a minister in Ireland, and when William was two years old, his father felt called to visit friends in America, where he remained five years. This parting and separation were very bitter to husband and wife.

"My depths have been at times very deep," writes the wife in her first letter to her husband after his departure. "I have felt, indeed; but I must reverently acknowledge that I have been greatly, unexpectedly, supported and comforted again and again, and that in a way so sweet to my feelings. Sometimes I have felt such a cheerful calm I could not doubt where it came from, and then such a lively sense at times that my dearest was only gone for a time, that he is coming back to me. . . . But though this has predominated above expectation, I have indeed had to drink a bitter cup; a very suffering path has this separation been to me, and must I not expect will often be? . . . Our darling boy is finely and truly lovely, so very affectionate in his manner, in such a sweet disposition this last day or two. He puts his hand out when I ask where dear papa is, and says 'Gone.' And when I asked if he loved thee, he answered me, 'Yes.'"

Truly, if those old Quaker conceptions of "calls" and of following "spiritual leadings," often in the very face of reason and sometimes of common sense, brought much suffering and anguish in partings and in trials of all kinds, they brought also well-springs of content and joy in clear-cut conceptions of duty and spiritual guidance.

Under such influences the boy grew up:

"It was of this period of his childhood that Mr. Forster often in after life told with amusement a characteristic anecdote. He was travelling in a coach in the charge of his nurse, when a benevolent old gentleman began to talk to him. 'Where is your papa, my dear?' said his fellow-passenger. 'Papa is preaching in America,' was the reply. 'And where is your mamma?' continued the gentleman. 'Mamma is preaching in Ireland,' was the answer which the astounded stranger received."

They separately paid many visits to both America and Ireland. The father eventually died in Tennessee upon one of these visits—a visit in which his desire for abolition and his yearnings towards his coreligionists in the South were combined. One of the most touching passages in these volumes is the account of Forster's visit late in life to the family with whom his father died, and to his grave.

Young Forster was educated at home. He had not the advantages of the public-school and university training then (more than now) considered essential to great success in life. If he lost in a worldly sense, he gained in others—the spiritual part of his nature was perhaps more developed; he acquired a passionate love for scenery, and a hatred of cruelty to animals and of field sports which rather intensified as years advanced. He was early interested in politics on the Liberal side, and kept a journal. When but twelve he writes regarding a candidate in an election: "Was he to be blamed because the lowest of the mob, who care not on which side they are, have happened to commit excesses on his? Was he to be blamed because that by a few of the true words he had said he had further excited the people? No." Somewhat later, his essays at a private school are suggestive of the future politician: "On the Conduct of England to Uncivilized Nations," "The Advantages to Civilization from Education," "The Causes of the Misery with which Ireland has been and is now Afflicted" (a vigorous indictment of English rule), "The Lawfulness of Rebelling against an Unjust Law."

Under the best and sweetest and wisest influences, the child grew into the lad—the lad into the man. His father's conscientiousness and nervous solicitude regarding his welfare rendered the choice of a business difficult. His uncle, Sir Thomas Fowell Buxton, offered him a place and a certainty of competence in his brewery. This Forster declined from conscientious motives. There were other openings connected with the sale of slave produce where scruples likewise barred a settlement. Finally, at twenty-three, apparently upon borrowed capital, he entered into those partnerships in woolstapling and manufacturing in Bradford which, almost from the first, were successful, and brought him ease and sufficient leisure, and from which he retired a wealthy man some thirty years later. He threw himself with characteristic energy into business and into the public affairs of the town. His character assumed some of the more rugged features we associate with the north of England. He was agitated with all the doubts and interests of a vigorous young mind. He wrote for the *Westminster Review* and other periodicals, and became known in the literary and political world. We are given a delightful and characteristic account of a sojourn which the Carlyles made at his bachelor home. Emerson also visited there.

Mr. Forster's marriage to a daughter of Dr. Arnold of Rugby was a happy one. They had no children; the adoption of an orphaned family of Arnold nephews and nieces gave him much of the affections and interest in life which children of his own would have afforded. His annual Continental tour, extending and lengthening as means and opportunity increased, appear to have been made more with one of his adopted daughters than with his wife. The death of his father and mother perhaps hastened the throwing off the Quakerism which in many respects had ill-suited his vigorous masculine nature. In the burly captain of volunteers going up for a term of musketry instruction at Hyde, we see a striking change from the timid Quaker lad of earlier years. And from Quakerism, and having passed through the religious strivings common to all liberal English thinkers who lived through the Forties, Forster settled down in that apparently sincere acceptance of Christianity as expressed by Episcopalianism, which, in men of his stamp, is a puzzle to so many foreigners. Forster now became a political power in the north of England. His desire to enter Parliament was gratified in 1861. From the first he made his mark. He was just in time to take a decisive stand in the contest then commencing with us. It did not require the appearance of Mr. Cairnes's 'Slave Power,' or the taking of Vicksburg, or the victory at Gettysburg, to induce him to side with the North. From the first his views were clear upon the question at issue. Shortly after his election, lecturing before the Bradford Mechanics' Institute, he said:

"The war arose from the difficulty of solving the problem whether Christian and civilized men should keep numbers of their fellow-creatures in bondage—more particularly when those men were not in a distant country, but living among them in their very homesteads as it were—and keep them as slaves, and treat them as though they were beasts."

His earliest serious interest in public affairs had been when he was called upon to assist his uncle, Sir T. F. Buxton, in arranging for the unfortunate Niger expedition. So his earliest Parliamentary efforts were engaged with Bright and Cobden in the almost forlorn hope of keeping England from openly siding with the Rebellion; and later, in the Cabinet, he was mainly instrumental in preventing the shipwreck of the *Alabama* arbitration. Yet he never abandoned his feelings as an Englishman. He was ready to go to war if Mason and Slidell had not been returned; he was prepared equally to face a future of alienation from the United States if the claims for consequential damages had not been abandoned. His name will always be associated with the English Education Bill of 1870—the carrying through of which was a work any statesman might be proud of—a measure which, at the time of his death, had doubled the number of public schools and trebled the number of scholars in England. It was eminently statesmanlike, eminently what we are accustomed to regard as Anglo-Saxon in its mode of working—based upon no ideal uniform system, but aiming to accomplish the maximum of effect; availing itself as far as possible of old-established systems, with the least possible disturbance to prejudices or vested rights and interests. His refusal to prosecute, while recalling, Gov. Eyre, had earned for him the hostility of many of his philanthropic friends. His measure of education brought him into permanent conflict with many of his old radical associates, who believed he betrayed the cause of progress and enlightenment in refusing to strike a blow through it at the prestige and influence of the clergy. "It was his lot either to be deeply loved or strongly disliked by those with whom he was brought into contact."

Mr. Forster had been all his life interested in Ireland. He paid several sympathetic visits during the famine; he was mainly instrumental in rousing British philanthropic feeling to the gravity of the catastrophe. In 1848 he had written that "the only way to benefit Ireland was to make it a home instead of a prison." He had, after Smith O'Brien's abortive *émeute*, offered an asylum to the father of John Dillon. It was his earnest desire to be numbered among the permanent benefactors of Ireland and her people. He eagerly accepted the Irish Chief Secretaryship as an opportunity to carry into practice his life-long desires. We are not inclined too nicely to apportion the mistakes and want of sympathy that led to his failure in that capacity. Mr. Reid has a simple explanation in the inherent devilment of the Irish leaders and "their dupes." In the cataclysm which long neglect of vital questions had induced, no one in the position of Irish Secretary working through the permanent Castle officials could have succeeded—certainly not Mr. Forster, whose kind motives were encased in a triple English confidence in the capacity of himself and his party to settle the question without regard to the wishes and prejudices of those concerned. Had it been a question affecting Englishmen to the same proportionate extent as Irishmen, Mr. Forster and the Cabinet would have resigned when the "Compensation for Disturbance Bill" was thrown out. The Irish members and people were then in no mood to make it pleasant for any Chief Secretary. They were not always fair to him. His substitution of buckshot for bullets arose from a humane preference for wounding rather than killing; but it was little likely the Irish people would be attracted towards a ruler who discussed in any form the manner in which they should be shot down.

The Irish land question had been made the life-long study of many prominent Irishmen in Ireland who never took any part in national politics. So far as we know, Mr. Forster and the Cabinet to which he belonged approached a settlement without the slightest consultation with such men. In an English struggle of a like character they would never have applied coercion before reform. Subsequent events have proved that it was not altogether sinister motives which induced Mr. Parnell and his friends to advise the Irish farmers to be slow in availing themselves of the Land Act. There was some ground for the Irish people believing that Lord Houghton's dictum, with which Mr. Reid opens one of his chapters, touching the Birmingham Radicals who objected to Forster's success in education ("There is nothing that riles mankind so much as seeing the objects they desire, accomplished by other means than their own"), might be taken home by Mr. Forster himself.

At page 386, vol. ii., Mr. Reid refers to an incident which, after the passage of the Land Act, "added greatly to Forster's anxiety"—the publication, under the authority of the Land Commission, of a pamphlet expounding the advantages of the act, but "in which the suppressed Land League was extolled" (Mr. Fottrell, its author, Solicitor to the Land Commission, lost his appointment of £1,000 a year on the heels of it). A copy of the pamphlet lies before us as we write. We cannot see that the Land League is therein directly extolled. Mr. Fottrell appears to us very naturally and wisely to have endeavored to draw the Irish people to accept the benefits of the act by urging upon them the truth that its principles were the same as those for which Davitt, Parnell, and Dillon contended when they established the Land League. Eight hundred men in prison on his personal fiat, real criminals at large, outrage in full swing, formed a sad conclusion to Mr. Forster's desires for the good of Ireland. There is something pathetic in his clear perception that all hope was at an end of his ever benefiting the land which he in truth loved so well.

With Mr. Gladstone's acceptance of the Kilmainham Treaty, Mr. Forster's official life terminated, and he returned almost with a feeling of relief to social life, his books, his whist-playing, and his travels.

THE GOSPEL OF PROTECTION.

Principles of the Economic Philosophy of Society, Government, and Industry. By Van Buren Denslow, LL.D. Cassell & Co.

In this work the American system of political economy may be said to have attained its most perfect development. Those eminent Philadelphians, Messrs. Elder, Kelley, and Swank, have elaborated portions of the system, and the great Carey undoubtedly conceived it all; but it was reserved for the present author to give it full and rounded completeness. It is true that some of Carey's works apparently exceed this volume in bulk, but we are confident that comparison will show that these 700 closely printed pages contain more assertions and upon a greater variety of topics than are to be found in any 5,000 pages of Carey's. Carey, it must be admitted, sometimes repeated himself. But Dr. Denslow, it will generally be found, when he seems about to repeat himself, skilfully alters his facts. The scope of his book is immense, and he is entitled to proclaim, in the language of *Faust* in the opening of Goethe's play, the encyclopædic character of his studies.

Nor do we think that in the matter of style he will suffer if compared with Carey. There is the same exuberance of expression, the same indifference to the pedantic trammels of logicians, the same frankness in the expression of feeling towards other writers, the same efflorescent invective, the same inimitable humor. What happier combination of refined feeling and tasteful expression can be found than in the allusion to Adam Smith as the "intellectual *valet de chambre* to a nobleman's son"? How the traditionary reputation of the arch free-trader totters under such a blow as this! And what an incomparable mingling of wit and logic is to be found in the following *reductio ad absurdum* of Malthus's law of population:

"The law is, that as the laborer's income expands, his power and tendency to procreate expands at the same rate . . . Hence, if A. T. Stewart married on an income of say $1,000 a year, or say $500 each for himself and wife, the so-called law of Malthus would have required when his income reached $6,000,000 a year that Mrs. Stewart should have borne him 12,000 children. In fact, she did not bear him one. Yet Englishmen like Bonamy Price keep on declaring that the Malthus law has to do with Political Economy, when it is only a form of unconscious humor, designed to enable persons to be most amusing when they imagine they are most authoritative."

It is hardly necessary to say that the hypocritical policy of England is thoroughly exposed by Dr. Denslow. "The Cobden Club adopts as its motto, 'Peace, good will among the nations,' but every sunrise is announced by the reveille of English drums, awakening English soldiers to back with the bayonet some new intrusion on the rights of barbarian races, in order to secure to British factories the profits of selling breech-clouts and wooden gods to some new tribe of heathen, to the prejudice of the local manufacture." India especially has suffered. Before the English conquest, its wealth and prosperity were fabulous. It is now a pauper nation, a burden to those who have fed on its riches. Once it "included, in its population, all ranks and grades of wealth, except the famine-stricken and the suffering." It had "all the appliances of a vast and active interior commerce, engaging the activities and satisfying all the wants of a population larger than that of all Europe." To-day the country "contains virtually a population of 200,000,000 paupers." By a tax of 3,000 per cent. on salt many of these paupers are converted into earth-worms, being compelled by the poverty to which British free trade has reduced them to swallow earth for the sake of the saline particles which it contains.

The fate of Ireland has been almost equally pitiable, and Dr. Denslow succeeds in adding a new and particularly aggravated offence to the long list of English iniquities. It is well known that England taxes imported tobacco very heavily; and to prevent this import duty from causing Irish and Scotch farmers to cultivate tobacco, which, as Dr. Denslow very justly observes, "they could do at an enormous profit, by reason of the duty thus imposed on the foreign article"—the Government makes it a criminal offence to cultivate the plant anywhere in Great Britain. By this suicidal policy, which is fatuously said to take not a penny from the people that does not go to the treasury, the Irish farmer has been robbed of this enormous profit.

"No one can tell how peculiarly the climate of Ireland might have proved to be adapted to the culture of tobacco, if it had been allowed. It might have proved to be as much superior to any other point in the world, for the culture of the leaf, as the Southern States are for the culture of cotton. In that case Ireland could have produced the tobacco crop of the world, and, instead of famine and decline, might have maintained a population of nine to twelve millions of people."

We quote this passage not only as proving the studied injustice of a free-trade government towards its subjects, but also as exhibiting the characteristic tendency of professors of the American system to rely upon facts instead of theories. Nothing can exceed the severity with which Dr. Denslow condemns the use of theories and suppositions by the free-trade writers, and he obviously feels a pride—which could be justified by a hundred passages like that which we have quoted—in the freedom of his own eye from beams of this character. As examples of his facts, we may refer to the statement that Adam Smith says that the profit-maker is a vampire that merely sucks the producer's blood, and maligns capitalists as the crafty purloiners of what they have had no hand in producing; that it is rising profits alone that can ever be the potential cause of rising wages; that the (American) poor usually have more healthy labor and less harassing care, and are more likely to eat well-cooked food, than the rich; that the (English) poor are engrossed with constant cares, and oppressed with half-satisfied wants, fighting their way from day to day, or from meal to meal, in the dull struggle for subsistence; that the doctrine of the balance of trade is true; and that the inventive faculties of English workmen since 1846 are relatively latent.

The cause of this relative latency is, of course, the free-trade policy of England. The abolition of the corn laws diminished the population of Ireland in five years by three-eighths. What is still more striking, the abolition of the corn laws, although it destroyed the profits of the farmers and put a stop to the cultivation of corn upon vast areas, can hardly be admitted to have reduced the price at all. "The average for the five years preceding 1846 was 54s. 11 2-5d., in 1846 it was 54s. 8d., and for the eleven years following 1846 it was 55s. 5¼d., or 8d. higher for the eleven years after the repeal than for the five years before it." With great deference to Dr. Denslow's authority, we yet find it somewhat difficult to reconcile this fact with the fact stated a few lines before, that the average price "for the eleven years 1847 to 1857, inclusive, was 47s. 3d." It seems to be an error of judgment to bring these facts into such close juxtaposition. Doubtless each is true for its own particular use, for the masters of the American system fully understand that truth presents itself in many different aspects, and that these aspects must be selected from with reference to the end in view; but the arrangement chosen by Dr. Denslow might be criticised by an "interested vitriol-thrower"—the term by which he racily designates the hostile reviewer—as not the happiest for his argument.

Lest this criticism should seem unduly severe, we hasten to point out an instance where the disposition of opposite phases of fact is arranged with admirable judgment. In reply to the malicious attempt of the free-traders to stir up strife between workmen and masters by suggesting that if the tariff is to benefit labor, duties should be levied, not upon imported goods, but upon imported laborers, Dr. Denslow states the following conclusive facts:

"In excluding immigrants by wholesale without selection, each industry would be excluding its customers in a larger degree than its competitors. Suppose that, to benefit the wages of shoemakers, we exclude all immigrants. An analysis of those who would come shows that only one in fifty-eight of the immigrants who would come would make shoes. But one in fifty-eight of our entire population makes shoes. Therefore the shoemakers would have shut out fifty-seven customers in order to shut out one competitor. But the fifty-seven customers whom they would have shut out would have added as much to the demand as the one excluded shoemaker would have contributed towards the supply."

Now, we find over 100 pages away from this, in a footnote and in fine print, the fact stated that one shoemaker, working in a boot and shoe factory, furnishes 1,000 men, or more than 1,000 women, with all the boots and shoes they require in a year. Had these facts been stated in close connection, they would obviously have tended to confuse the argument. But as they are stated, it is highly improbable that any one who reads the first will recall it when he reaches the second. In fact, the present generation of readers has become so superficial and fastidious that most of them will probably skip the footnotes altogether, and may even find portions of the text too much for their enfeebled powers of assimilation.

We pass by with great reluctance Dr. Denslow's proof that a man may enrich himself by maintaining a large number of household servants, and many other delightful demonstrations. But we cannot omit all reference to his original treatment of the subject of taxation. It is the peculiarity of taxes that they cannot be proved to be a burden to any one, while their beneficial results can be easily seen. "Neither the statesman nor the citizen, in fact, cares or needs to know who pays the tax." The question is "a mere philosophical and metaphysical subtlety." Thus, if the sale of liquor be taxed,

"a half or a third of the persons that would else engage in it go out of it, thus enlarging the ratio of customers to those that remain, and hence removing from them the tax. . . . The customer will declare that he is not taxed, as he gets his goods of as good quality and at as low a price as before, but from fewer merchants. The persons who go out of the business cannot be said to pay the tax, since they go into other kinds of business and are not in the line from whence the tax comes. The liquor-seller who remains certainly does not pay it, as the increase of custom resulting from driving his competitors out of the business has reimbursed him."

These truths apply to taxes on land and other taxes, but during the present political campaign they are of peculiar interest as affecting the question of the whiskey tax. As it does not raise the price to the consumer it cannot reduce the consumption, so that the Republicans are justified in abolishing it. On the other hand, as it is burdensome to no one and very productive of revenue, the Democrats are justified in retaining it. "The bearings of this observation lays in the application on it." Or, as Dr. Denslow remarks with as much wisdom as scholarship, "*omnium vivum ex ovo* finds its complement in *omnium ovum ex vivo*."

Upon the whole, we can sincerely commend this volume to our readers as containing the very best exposition of protectionism, its theory and its facts, its animus and its methods, that is now in existence or that is likely to be hereafter produced. The passage with which we must conclude our quotations, might well constitute the platform of a protection party and be taught in the political catechism of young Americans:

"Protection is the mountain. It is eternal. Free trade is the mirage. If it advances, it dissolves. It can only make with protection the same kind of an issue as the non-existing and impossible makes with the universal, natural, and inevitable. It is a fight between something and nothing. Protection is an economy; free trade is a give-away, a waste. Protection is constructive; free trade is destructive. . . . Protection investigates, consults, harmonizes, unites. Free trade disintegrates, divides, slanders, besmirches, and disorganizes. Protection collects facts. Free trade is oracular, pompous, and issues dogmas."

SWEET'S HISTORY OF ENGLISH SOUNDS.

A History of English Sounds. By Henry Sweet. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1888.

In the whole domain of philology there is probably no more discouraging subject than the history of English sound-change. If we consider the modern language, we encounter a multitude of unexplored dialects, scattered over all quarters of the globe, and characterized by vowel shades too numerous to classify and too delicate to define; if we turn to the origins, we find two utterly different elements, one Germanic, the other French—the pronunciation of the one to a great extent uncertain, that of the other still more doubtful. No wonder, then, that while all other branches of linguistic study were flourishing, English historical phonology was long an almost unknown science. So it remained until Ellis began, some twenty years ago, to publish his 'Early English Pronunciation,' a work which of itself places English philology almost on a level with that of other nations.

Ellis's great production is, then, and doubtless always will be our storehouse of information for sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth-century sounds. Still, as is usually the case with books which create a science, it does not entirely meet the needs of any class of readers: for the general student it is too bulky and not sufficiently straightforward, while for the specialist it is scarcely full or trustworthy enough in its examination of the origin and earliest phases of English. In these and some other respects Sweet's 'History of English Sounds,' though largely but an outgrowth of 'Early English Pronunciation,' is a decided improvement. It is remarkably concise, the reading matter occupying only 279 pages; its arrangement is historical, and the earlier stages of the language are satisfactorily treated. Sweet is a man eminently fitted for such work: as a phonetician he has no superior; he has studied living English sounds with more success than any one else; he is justly celebrated as an Anglo-Saxon and Middle English scholar; his wide acquaintance with modern tongues gives him unusual facilities for making comparisons; he attaches due importance to the results of recent scientific research.

Although this 'History of English Sounds' follows the same general plan as the author's earlier work, published among the Transactions of the Philological Society for 1873-4, it is essentially a new book. Under the title 'English Sounds,' the author apparently includes only sounds of Germanic origin; the French element of our language, which received no systematic treatment from Ellis, being scarcely mentioned at all by Sweet.* The chapter on Middle English orthography contains, however, some excellent remarks on Old French pronunciation and spelling. The volume begins with a very concise chapter on phonetics—a statement so brief as to be unintelligible to those not already familiar with Sweet's system. For accurate notation the revised Visible Speech characters are used. Bell's vowel signs, which remain intact, are easy to remember, but the consonant system, the unity of which has been disturbed by necessary changes and additions, requires frequent reference to the table on p. 6. It would, by the way, be well if room could be made in this table for the symbols representing the rounded back open consonants. The numerous diacritics are, at first, especially confusing. Still, this alphabet is certainly the best yet devised for the purpose; it is simpler and more exact than Ellis's Palæotype or Glossotype. Sweet, moreover, uses the familiar Broad Romic characters wherever he finds it possible.

After the summary of the principal facts of phonetics, we have a much longer description of the general tendencies of sound-change. Here the author utilizes to a considerable extent Paul's 'Principien der Sprachgeschichte' and Sievers's 'Phonetik.' He divides sound-mutations into *internal isolative*, *internal combinative*, *acoustic*, and *external* changes. This whole matter of the universal principles of sound-change is extremely uncertain and perplexing. The subject of internal isolative changes is an especially delicate one; and although Sweet handles it with great caution, he cites some examples for which specialists in the various departments would perhaps account by other principles, as, for instance, the change from Latin *teneo*, *valeam* to Italian *tengo*, *valga*. A synopsis of the entire treatise is given on pp. 402-3. Next come very short chapters on the "Origin of Speech-Sounds" and the "Origin of Dialects," the second of which, although it contains nothing absolutely new, is well worth reading. The important subject of sound representation is treated at greater length.

The actual history of English sounds begins with a study (written before the appearance of Brugmann's 'Grundriss') of Indo-European, for which the author uses the less clumsy name *Arian*. In this chapter Keltic is not touched upon at all, and in the exposition of the vowels only Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, and Germanic are cited. The Germanic sounds and the Runes are next taken up, the main points being clearly and briefly stated. In the examination of Runes, Sweet, although his chief authority is Wimmer, favors the theory of their Greek origin. Then we pass on to Old English, which covers some thirty-five pages. Here Sievers is the principal authority followed. Scandinavian requires a special chapter, after which the author traces the mutations of English sounds through Middle English, Modern English (for this Sweet relies mainly on Ellis), and Living English. Throughout the Old and Middle English periods the numerous dialects, with their varied and rapidly changing phonetic tendencies, render a concise statement of the laws of sound-change excessively hard to write and almost equally difficult to follow. In Modern and Living English, matters are simplified by the development of a national language. This standard English was originally the London dialect, which was itself principally East Midland. About the beginning of the eighteenth century, spelling became fixed, and before long it began to exercise a decided influence on the pronunciation. It has not, however, greatly impeded phonetic growth: many important changes are even now going on. In Living English the most striking feature is the power of stress, which alters or destroys unaccented syllables, and develops double forms of those words that are sometimes accented and sometimes unemphatic.

At the back of the book there are several lists and tables. The "First Word-List"—a most valuable contribution to science—contains the Old-English, Middle-English, and present forms of most Anglo-Saxon and Scandinavian words that have been preserved in the language. As these words are arranged not alphabetically but according to the vowels they contain, an alphabetical index is provided. The "Second Word-List" contains modern words in both phonetic and conventional spelling, compared with the Anglo-Saxon originals. Special tables give the various forms of English letters; a comparison of the vowels in Old English, Middle English, and Living English; schemes of the vowels in Old and Middle-English dialects; a comparison of the vowels in late Middle English, the first, second, and third periods of Modern English, and Living English. A list on pp. 265-6 shows the vowel-changes produced in Modern and Living English by a following *r*. These tables are a great help to the reader; several more would be acceptable.

The text is surprisingly free from errors. To the very short list of "Errata" may be added the following: § 121, last line, for *long* read *short*; p. 38, l. 2, for *before* read *after*; p. 63, l. 6, for *what* read *that*; p. 68, third line from the bottom, for *become* read *becomes*; p. 191, l. 2, for *lead* read *led*; § 926, l. 1, for *after* read *before*. In the list of contractions, on pp. 408-9, should be inserted *nl=namely*.

"The most serious defect of the book," says Sweet in his preface, "is that I have not been able to make any general use of the modern English and Scotch dialects, which (with a few brilliant exceptions) have been treated in such a way as to make them worse than useless for purposes of historical philology. American English and Irish English are equally important and equally inaccessible at present." The various American vowel-systems, the modification of vowels before *r*, the fall of *r* not followed by a vowel in some American dialects and its retention (or restoration) in others, the pronunciation of *h* and *wh*, are all highly interesting and important subjects for research. Prof. Primer has made a beginning in his study of "Charleston Provincialisms" (*Phonetische Studien*, I., 3). Now that philologists are directing their attention more and more to living speech, now that modern language-teachers in this country are becoming interested in phonetics (as is shown by the recent formation of a Phonetic Section in the Modern Language

* It has been recently studied by Behrens ('Beiträge zur Geschichte der französischen Sprache in England.' I. Heilbronn. 1886). A course on "The French Element in English" is among the announcements for the coming year at Harvard College.

Association), we may hope that when the time comes for a new edition of Sweet's work our American dialects will no longer be wholly "inaccessible."

Missouri; A Bone of Contention. By Lucien Carr. [American Commonwealths Series.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888. 12mo, pp. 377.

Mr. Carr well describes Missouri as a bone of contention, for her position long made her the debatable ground between dissimilar civilizations. In the beginning, when the Mississippi was sought mainly as the pathway to the rich fur trade of the Northwest, her situation by the meeting places of the Missouri and the Ohio with the Mississippi was so favorable that a little group of French settlements sprang up very early, and speedily became a prosperous farming community, characterized by a gentle Arcadian simplicity of nature unchanged until the restless westward movement of the English from the Atlantic colonies reached and revolutionized it. Mr. Carr draws a pleasant picture of those early days. The farmers, and there were none but farmers there, made no pretence to learning, and they had no more use for shops than for books. The fertile soil supplied nearly all their needs. What few other goods they required, some richer tillers of the soil kept packed away in chests in their houses, and anything more that they wanted they could send for to New Orleans or to Philadelphia or Montreal, the next time that a boat began the long and dangerous journey. They were indolent enough, and had no more care for modern progress than they had for Puritan zeal for religion, but they were happy, hospitable, and honest. The pleasure-loving tastes natural to their Gallic temperament were fostered by their prosperity and by their gregarious habit of clustering in villages, and probably there never was a happier community in this country. They had plenty of games and sports, and did not grumble because they had no spinning-wheels or churns. They had no enemies; even the Indians whom they dispossessed could not get up a serious quarrel with them. The nearest thing to a war ended by the disgusted redmen coming to Gen. Trudeau and telling him with delicious frankness:

"We have come to offer you peace. We have been at war with you many moons, and what have we done? Nothing. Our warriors have tried many means to meet yours in battle, but you will not. You dare not fight us. You are a parcel of old women. What can be done with such a people but make peace, since you will not fight? I come therefore to offer you peace, and to bury the hatchet, to brighten the chain, and to again open the way between us."

This idyllic state of things had to come to an end when the Anglo-Saxons arrived; and the great river highway was too great a prize to be long overlooked. But the change in civilization was peaceful, and at first brought rapid growth and wealth; though there soon came a disastrous flurry of speculation, and before long began the long struggle over slavery between the different civilizations of the North and South, the quickly broken compromise, and at last the culmination in civil war. Here again the geographical situation of Missouri, as a wedge entering a vital part of the North, made her one of the first fields of battle, and determined her final possession by that party to which her agricultural character as a corn and not a cotton State inclined her, in spite of the predilection from her Southern ancestry.

Mr. Carr tells the story with a decided prepossession for the Southern party, which generally is no defect, though once or twice it carries him too far. It is too severe a stretch to speak of the shameful mob attack on Lovejoy as justifiable under the natural right of self-defence, or of the seizure of United States property as sanctioned by States' Rights; and the miserable part played by Missouri in the Kansas struggle is far too leniently treated. Still, there is an evident intention to be fair, and to give the facts on which judgment is to be founded.

It is a point on which there is room for a good deal of doubt, whether Missouri would have thrown her lot in with the South if less vigorous measures had been taken by the Federals at the beginning of the war. Her sober reason and her business interests inclined her to the North, but her Southern blood was so inflammable that a straw might have turned the scale. It would not have taken much in 1861 to kindle the mob fury which had burned so hotly against the Mormons and against their Kansas neighbors. But it is well enough to give Missouri the benefit of the doubt. Meanwhile, Northern immigration has changed her character, and given a very far away look to the old pugnacity.

Cæsar's Army: A Study of the Military Art of the Romans in the Last Days of the Republic. By Harry Pratt Judson. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1888. 12mo, pp. 127.

It was a good idea of Prof. Judson's to call his book 'Cæsar's Army,' and aim to give a description of the Roman military system just as it was in the closing years of the Republic, without consideration of the steps by which it was brought to this condition, or, on the other hand, of its later fortunes. There is no more fertile source of misunderstanding in Roman antiquities—whether civil or military—than the habit of confounding different periods, and associating with the age of Cicero and Cæsar institutions that had been long outgrown in their time. We do not doubt that most students who have given any attention to the subject at all have a vague notion that Cæsar's legions, like those of Scipio, were made up of *hastati*, *principes*, and *triarii*. The student of the volume before us will be preserved from that misapprehension. At the same time, we think the book could be made more useful, without sacrificing this merit, by an introduction, which should give a brief statement of the military system as it was in the time of the war with Hannibal, and an appendix which should describe the principal changes under the Empire.

This volume contains the excellent maps and plans adapted by Prof. Judson from Napoleon's 'Life of Cæsar' for Allen and Greenough's edition of Cæsar's 'Gallic War,' and many of the illustrations in that work. The substance, however, while, of course, identical in many points with the notes of that edition, is, as a whole, entirely independent of them. It is a complete and systematic treatise upon the Roman military system in the last century of the Republic, based principally upon Rüstow and Göler, and with many helpful illustrations from modern warfare and judicious discussions of the theories presented. We find occasional infelicities in statement or expression, such as (of a particular method of command, p. 7), "Only the solidity and uniformity of the Roman array made it possible for them"—where "them" has no antecedent. Again, it is misleading to say (p. 6) that each maniple was divided into two centuries, just as each cohort was divided into three maniples. The student certainly would understand that the maniple and century were divisions of the same character, if of different grade; but he is told directly after that the maniple corresponded to the modern company, while the century corresponded to the platoon, being a temporary and shifting division. We cannot accept the argument, on page 14, that the maniples at this period had no standards, these having been superseded by the standard of the cohort. Many scholars, indeed, are of opinion that the *cohort* never had a standard of its own—a view precisely the opposite to that here presented. It seems to us, however, that the introduction by Marius of the standard for legion and cohort would not necessarily supersede the older system, but that the new would more likely be added to the old. The examples given by Mr. Judson certainly do not prove his point.

Trois Empereurs d'Allemagne: Guillaume Ier, Frédéric III., Guillaume II. Par Ernest Lavisse. Paris: Armand Colin et Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern. 1888. 12mo, pp. 295.

Prof. Lavisse has collected in this volume four articles which first appeared in the *Journal des Débats* and the *Revue Bleue*. They are of various degrees of merit. The first chapter, dealing with the Emperor William I., is nothing more nor less than a newspaper article, bristling with turgid rhetoric and setting forth well known and undisputed facts with the excited manner of one who is enriching mankind with some startling and important discovery. The second and third chapters, concerned with Frederick, are less sensational in tone, but the instinct of the penny-a-liner betrays itself when, out of less than a hundred pages set apart to relating Frederick's career, the author expends ten in describing the wedding of the Prince to the Princess Victoria, and ekes out his tale of bricks by translating a portion of the Church of England marriage service. The fourth chapter, having the present Emperor for its subject, and written after his accession on the 15th of June of this year, is really the only part of the book that has value enough to warrant reprinting it. Such value as it has, it owes to the circumstance that comparatively little has as yet been printed in permanent form concerning William II., so that the author is one of the first-comers with useful information about the education and early years of the young ruler. It is due to Prof. Lavisse to note that he possesses the merit, rare in Frenchmen, of writing on German affairs without rancor or chauvinism, and has taken pains to obtain correct information. His countrymen may read his book with profit.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, H. B. Papers of the American Historical Association. Vol. III., No. 1. Report of Proceedings of the Association, 1887. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.

Ashley, W. J. An Introduction to English Economic History and Theory. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.

Balg, D. G. H. A Comparative Glossary of the Gothic Language, with Especial Reference to English and German. Part 4. B. Westermann & Co.

Barr, Amelia E. Remember the Alamo. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.

Baxley, I. R. The Prophet, and Other Poems. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.

Benjamin, L. Why Was It? Belford, Clarke & Co.

Bierbower, A. The Virtues and their Reasons: A System of Ethics for Schools. Chicago: George Sherwood & Co.

Bigelow, J. Emmanuel Swedenborg. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.

Brackett, Anna C., and Eliot, Ida M. The Silver Treasury: holiday edition of Poetry for Home and School. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.25.

Browning, Elizabeth Barrett. Romances, Lyrics, and Sonnets. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.

Browning, R. Poetical Works. Vol. V. Dramatic Romances. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.

Burnett, Frances Hodgson; Editha's Burglar: A Story for Children. Boston: Jordan, Marsh & Co.

Champney, Lizzie W. Howling Wolf and His Trick Pony. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.

Cobb, S., jr. The Gunmaker of Moscow. Cassell & Co. 80 cents.

Cox, Maria McIntosh. Raymond Kershaw: A Story of Deserved Success. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.

Crake, A. D. Brian Fitz-Count: a Story of Wallingford Castle and Dorchester Abbey. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1.

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LESTER WALLACK'S MEMORIES OF THE LAST FIFTY YEARS. Being the first of three papers which will appear in successive numbers, covering Mr. Wallack's career as an actor and manager. The present article describes his first appearance on the stage, and his early theatrical experiences, with many anecdotes of the famous actors with whom he came in contact. The illustrations are more than usually interesting, especially a full-page engraving from the last photograph ever made of Mr. Wallack.

PROBLEMS IN AMERICAN POLITICS, by Hon. HUGH MCCULLOCH, ex-Secretary of the Treasury under Lincoln, Johnson, and Arthur, discusses topics which are uppermost in the attention of the public at this time. Among the subjects treated by him are, the Tariff, American Shipping, Immigration, and the Land Laws.

THE RAILROAD IN ITS BUSINESS RELATIONS, by PROF. ARTHUR T. HADLEY of Yale University, is the fifth paper of the popular Railroad Series which has already been so successful. This article concerns the relations of the railroads to the public, as travellers, shippers, and stockholders. It is simple, untechnical, and interesting. The illustrations include portraits of George Stephenson, Commodore Vanderbilt, Thomas A. Scott, John W. Garrett, J. Edgar Thompson, Commissioner Albert Fink, Charles Francis Adams, and Judge Thomas M. Cooley.

THE TEMPLES OF EGYPT, by Mr. EDWARD WILSON, is a delightful paper most richly illustrated. Among them are five full-page illustrations from the author's photographs.

ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON'S regular paper in the Magazine is this month entitled "Contributions to the History of Fife: Random Memories."

BEHIND THE SCENES OF AN OPERA-HOUSE, is a clever account by GUSTAVE KOBBÉ of the stage of the modern opera-house, showing the devices used to simulate nature, and the wonderful effects accomplished by the ingenious workers behind the curtain. The article is fully illustrated.

CHARITY; A Story, by H. H. BOYESEN, illustrated by pen drawings by Charles H. Stephens.

POEMS, by L. FRANK TOOKER, C. P. CRANCH, and ELIZABETH FAIRCHILD; the serial, "First Harvests," by F. J. STIMSON.

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The Week.

THE final outcome of the Chinese Treaty trouble is a fresh illustration of the President's luck. The very day he found himself confronted by the question what to do with the Exclusion Bill passed by Congress, the news came that the Chinese Government had definitively refused to ratify the treaty. This refusal is entirely justified by the facts. China did ratify the treaty as originally negotiated. The Senate put amendments into it expressly designed to secure its final rejection by the Chinese, and thus put the President "in a hole." It was almost certain that this design would succeed, but Congress would not wait to see whether it succeeded or not. They actually went to work before hearing from China to legislate as if the treaty had been already rejected by China, and the bill passed and was in the President's hands before China had been heard from. He consequently was on the point of having to choose between vetoing a bill for which there is an undoubted popular demand, and becoming the instrument of offering an insult to a friendly Power such as has not been heard of in the intercourse of civilized nations since the Middle Ages, except as a preliminary to war. It is only the Barbary States of North Africa which have in our day ever treated a friendly Government as Congress proposed to treat China. The rejection of the treaty by China has delivered the President from this dilemma, but it has not saved the country from the discredit of the whole affair.

On Wednesday week Gen. Harrison gave a more precise exposition of his views regarding the surplus than he gave in his letter of acceptance. Apparently, he looks upon the revenue as a fixed sum, instead of an elastic quantity, so that if the income should be reduced below the expenditure until the present surplus is worked off, it would be necessary to increase the taxes a few years hence in order to make both ends meet. This would not be a dreadful thing to do. It would be much better than to go on collecting more money than is needful, since the existence of a surplus is a moving cause of profligate expenditure and personal corruption. What the country most needs now is a *deficit*, as an enforcement to economy. But we must remind Mr. Harrison that the revenue is a progressively increasing sum, even on a given scale of taxation. It increases with the growth of population, and still more with the increase of wealth. All our taxes being taxes on consumption, the national income grows with the number of consumers and also with their means. Hence the dilemma that he presents to the Democratic party is altogether fantastic and imaginary.

"If a Government bond *at the market premium* is a good investment for a capitalist who is free to use his money as he pleases, can it be bad finance for the Government, having money that it cannot use in any other way, to use it in buying up its bonds?" says Gen. Harrison. The gist of his argument is embraced in this sentence, and the chief blunder is here also. It consists in assuming that "the market premium" is an investment premium as to which capitalists and the Government stand on an equality, just as they would in respect of railroad bonds, bank shares, mining shares, Western Union Telegraph stock, and the whole list of securities offered for sale. The fact is, that the market premium is made by the Government's purchases. It is no longer an investment premium. The bond market is cornered. Everybody in Wall Street knows this. The situation is such that it must be cornered. The inducement to corner it is overwhelmingly strong. There being one buyer whose means are unlimited and whose necessities are absolute, and there being a political party, with Gen. Harrison at its head, preventing curtailment of the revenue, and urging bond purchases to get rid of the surplus, all the conditions of a corner and a "squeeze" are pat to the hand of the bond speculators. That is the situation to-day, and what has been the result? The premium on the 4 per cent. bonds has marched steadily upward from 125 or 126 to 130, at which price $3,000,000 have just been taken to avoid a pinch in the money market and to avert a crisis. Upwards of $16,000,000 of *surplus* came into the Treasury in the single month of August. The enormous sum of nearly $10,000,000 has been disbursed by the Government in *premiums* since the 30th of June, 1887.

Gen. Harrison, in a speech at Indianapolis last Saturday, entertained his hearers with some extracts from an English book entitled 'The American Union,' written by a man named Spence, published twenty-six years ago, which he considered of great importance to the citizens of the United States at the present time. It appears that Spence in 1862 took a very unfavorable view of the North in our civil war, and wanted the South to succeed, because the South was for free trade. "I have read those extracts," said Gen. Harrison, "because they seemed to me very suggestive and very instructive. The South offered free trade to Europe in exchange for an expected recognition of their independence by England and France. The offer was very attractive and persuasive to the ruling classes of England. They took Confederate bonds and sent out armed cruisers to prey upon our commerce. They dallied with Southern agents, fed them upon illusive hopes, and thus encouraged the South to protract a hopeless struggle." All this is very sad stuff for a sober-minded man in this present year of grace. Mr. James Spence was an utterly insignificant person, a Liverpool cotton broker, we believe. While he was blowing his pig's whistle, such English free-traders as Bright, Cobden, Mill, and Cairnes were energetically upholding the cause of the North by tongue and pen; and while rich Liverpool cotton brokers were aiding in fitting out Confederate cruisers, the suffering cotton spinners of Lancashire were holding meetings and passing resolutions of sympathy with the cause of the Union. But Gen. Harrison has no recollection of the really great men of England in that crisis, or of the heroic operatives who sided with the North. Nor does he give any heed to the Queen and the Prince Consort, who forbade any concession to Louis Napoleon's scheme for recognizing the Confederacy. He only sees a forgotten book by a forgotten author named Spence.

In spite of the caustic appeals which have been made to Mr. Herbert Radclyffe, Secretary of the Home Market Club of Boston, to induce him to stop the further circulation of the familiar forged extracts from the English papers, he was at last accounts still sending them out by the ton, and was maintaining, in all his replies to remonstrances, that free wool or any other modification of the present tariff meant "ruin" in the interest of British free trade. Yet in a speech which this same Mr. Radclyffe made, no longer ago than 1878, he set forth with great force and truth the benefits which would accrue to this country could our manufacturers get their raw material free. We have seldom seen the case stated more concisely than Mr. Radclyffe put it in this speech: "Whatever tax is upon wool must go upon the goods, must restrict the market for such goods, and must reduce the profit. . . . Give the wool manufacturer his wool at as low a cost as possible, and he will sell his goods at a profit. It will undoubtedly improve his business. Take any manufacturing business, I don't care whether it consumes wool or iron or steel or lumber—whatever the manufacturer uses as a raw material he needs to obtain at as low a rate as possible." Finally, Mr. Radclyffe gives us a British view which sums up the whole matter: "England tried this matter of *false protection by a tax on raw material*. She protected her manufacturers, and placed a high duty on raw materials; but England saw there was no profit in that, and accordingly the protection was reduced upon the manufactured goods and taken off entirely from the raw material, and *at once the manufacturing interests of Great Britain brightened, and it will be so in this country whenever that is done here.*" Now will Mr. Radclyffe publish this speech on a card, illuminate it with a British flag, and circulate that as widely as he has his forgeries and lies?

Mr. Woodburn, Congressman from Nevada, was moved by the success of Congressman Butterworth's experiment to remember

something that he saw in the London *Times* a few years since. This is his recollection, produced in a speech made May 5, 1888:

"A few years since the following paragraph appeared in the London *Times:*

"'A subscription was recently opened to raise funds to circulate free-trade tracts in foreign countries. About £40,000 ($200,000) was subscribed. Some of these tracts are to be printed in New York for circulation in the United States. In addition to the above, $47,000 was subscribed by foreign bankers and importers of this city whose names are in our possession.'"

We need hardly say that this is a lie, and the presumption is that it was invented by Mr. Woodburn. It bears almost every mark of Woodburn, and not one of the London *Times*. No such subscription was ever "opened," and the London *Times* could therefore have made no such announcement unless it desired to court shame and humiliation. The "paragraph" was undoubtedly concocted in Nevada, or thereabouts. The wonder is the Home Market Club has not got hold of it by this time, and we respectfully call their attention to it as a robust and hardy lie suited to poor and squalid neighborhoods.

Six of the professors of the Wesleyan University at Middletown, Ct., most, if not all of whom have been Republicans, have announced their intention of voting for Cleveland this time. We believe the right of professors at universities to vote any ticket but the Republican has long been questioned by high-tariff doctors, because professors, being "theorists" merely, and unacquainted with practical business, are unfit to change their party allegiance; because it is wicked to vote any but the Republican ticket, and therefore a pernicious example to the youths they have in charge; and because it is ungrateful to the various high-tariff men and manufacturers who have at various times given donations to universities or founded them. The conduct of these Wesleyan professors will therefore cause pain and horror in many a counting-room, and will cause many a "clear-headed business man" to ask himself: "What is the use of colleges, anyhow?" We can suggest no remedy except a university test, like the subscription to the Thirty-nine Articles which used to be exacted at Oxford and Cambridge. Give no professorship to any man who is not prepared to sign adhesion to the present tariff and promise to teach it in his lecture-room and in his own family, without criticism or revision.

A remarkable case of political blackmail and blackguardism is the letter addressed to Mr. Thos. M. Osborne, a manufacturer of agricultural implements in Auburn, N. Y., by one Robinson, editor of the Indianapolis *Reporter*. Robinson takes leave to tell Mr. Osborne that he has been informed that he (Osborne) "a former Republican," intends to vote for Cleveland, and that if this is the fact he shall expose him (Osborne) to the farmers of the West as an enemy of American industry and a friend of the British, and all that—meaning, of course, to start a boycott on his trade. He adds that he is informed that Mr. Osborne is the only manufacturer of agricultural implements in the country who holds this unpatriotic position. Therefore he intends to make an example of him. It will be well for Robinson to keep out of the jurisdiction of this State after writing such a letter, because he is liable to be indicted under the boycotting law. Aside from the gross impertinence and blackguardism of the performance, the political economy of Robinson's letter is most wonderful. He assumes that the agricultural classes of the United States, who sell their staple products at Liverpool prices less the cost of transportation, and buy their supplies and tools subject to a tariff tax of 47 per cent., are the real beneficiaries of the tariff, and that they will be so outraged by the goings on of Mr. Osborne that they will stop buying his machines at a word from Robinson of Indianapolis. Why have not the farmers of the West long since boycotted the McCormick Works at Chicago and the Aultman & Taylor Works at Mansfield, O., two nurseries of free trade far exceeding in importance those of Mr. Osborne at Auburn, N. Y.?

Amid the chorus of lamentation about the destructive effects of the Mills bill, which the Republicans say they will not allow to pass, it is pleasant to note that the Dr. Jaeger Sanitary Woollen Co., whose goods are made in Stuttgart, Germany, we believe, announce in a circular that, "*mindful of the possibilities of tariff legislation during the coming year,*" they have decided to make *a general reduction of 25 per cent.* immediately from their present catalogue prices. These goods are both popular and costly. The duty on them is 10 cents per pound and 35 per cent. ad valorem, the whole being equivalent to 62 per cent. ad valorem. A voluntary reduction of 25 per cent., in advance of any tariff change, will be welcomed by a great many people, and will not be looked upon as destructive of any American industry, since this class of goods is not made in the United States. Glancing at the names of the benevolent directors of the Jaeger Sanitary Woollen Company, the first one on the list, we observe, is that of the Hon. S. V. White, Republican Congressman from Brooklyn. What will Mr. White have to say for himself when interrogated about this circular, which anticipates tariff legislation in the direction of lower duties "during the coming year," and puts down prices 25 per cent. in consequence thereof? Why is Mr. White lending his countenance to this foreign concern anyway?

A correspondent, writing on the subject of steel rails, argues as follows:

"If I can understand figures at all, when we pay $32.50 per ton to our own mills, Uncle Sam has the rails *and* the $32.50 also. Can you say nay? When we send $22.50 abroad, we only have the rails. Can you say nay?"

Of course this logic ought to hold good as to *any* variation of prices between the two countries and as to any articles; as, for example, if the foreign price were one cent per ton and the American price $1,000 per ton, or if, the article being tea, the foreigner charged 25 cents per pound and the American producer $25 per pound. Or again, if the foreigner gives us a hundred tons of rails for nothing, we have in that case 100 tons plus $3,250. If we buy the same from Mr. Carnegie, we have the same result, viz.: 100 tons of rails plus $3,250. So we reach the conclusion that the heaping of gifts upon us would add nothing to our wealth. Do you say that the case is not a supposable one? Then take an actual one. After the great Chicago fire a number of British authors and publishers sent several hundreds of volumes of books to that city to form the nucleus of a new public library. These were worth, we will say, $10,000. Now, if the city of Chicago had ordered those books from American publishers, the country would have had the books plus the $10,000. But that is exactly what the country had after the English books came. The city of Chicago had her own $10,000 plus the books. So you see that there must be some fault in your argument, as otherwise it was no advantage to the country, as a whole, to receive this present of books, and it would be none if a similar present had been made to every town in the United States, or to every individual, for that matter. The fault in the argument lies in assuming that the American rail-maker, or the tea-grower, or the book-publisher, would have been idle and doing nothing to add to his own wealth, and thereby to the country's wealth, if he did not have a law compelling the public to pay him more for his goods than they are worth in a free market. We have heard the boast made, and we believe it to be a fact, that Mr. Carnegie can make steel rails in Pennsylvania cheaper than any *other* Englishman or Scotchman can make them in any other part of the world. Another defect of our correspondent's argument, by the way, is, that it holds equally good whether Mr. Carnegie can make rails at a profit at $22.50 per ton or not, and that it is equally valid, as regards the national wealth, if he charges $50 per ton for what costs him only $22.50. We might say much more, but it is always best to leave something to the pupil's ingenuity and original powers.

The need of an educational bill in the United States Senate is rather forcibly illustrated by some remarks made by Senator Blair of New Hampshire the other day on the Copper Trust. Senator Platt of Connecticut had introduced a resolution to investigate this Trust, the chief seat of whose operations is in Paris. Mr. Blair thought that this was a fitting occasion to show that the tariff might be employed to circumvent the Trust. So he said:

"The foreign syndicate controlling the production of the entire world, of course, would furnish the only purchaser of the production of the United States; but if in some way the operations of the foreign syndicate could be excluded from the United States, the United States producer would have the market of the United States; and in controlling the market of the United States he might find the natural employment of his capital and his labor in the production, in this instance, of copper. But if the foreign syndicate is beyond the legislative control of the United States, he is left at liberty to contract with

the American producer, and the American producer is forced to contract with him in order to find a market, because the foreign syndicate may undersell the American producer, unless he chooses to sell to the foreign syndicate, and thus ruin the American producer unless the American producer of copper finds his protection against that foreign competitor by the protective tariff."

In other words, the Calumet and Hecla Mine is compelled to deliver all its copper to the foreign syndicate, not because the syndicate have put the price up to a very high figure, but because they *might* put it down to a very low figure and "undersell the American producer." This calamity, in Mr. Blair's opinion, could be prevented by the protective tariff. This beats Mr. Evarts's exposition of the wool tariff hollow. We do not wonder that Senator Platt declined to be led into such a wilderness by the author of the Blair Educational Bill.

Several inquiries have been addressed to us apropos of Mr. Blaine's official exposition of wages in cotton manufacturing in England and the United States. Some people want to know why we do not compete with England in the cotton-goods trade of the world, if we pay no higher wages than she does and have the raw material free of duty. Others want to know why, under these conditions, England actually sends cotton goods to the United States, and sells them in our market at a profit. An answer to the latter inquiry can be found by examining the trade returns. Cotton goods are of almost infinite variety, and some kinds are not produced in this country at all. For example, out of a total of about $30,000,000 of such importations, laces, braids, cords, trimmings, and insertings count for upwards of $6,000,000, or one-fifth of the whole, hosiery $8,500,000, velvets, velveteens, velvet bindings, ribbons, and vestings about $2,000,000; cotton yarn valued at over eighty cents per pound, $1,000,000. The largest division of cotton-goods importation consists of the articles "not otherwise provided for" in the tariff schedules, upwards of $9,000,000. Thus all of our cotton importations except a trifle are accounted for by articles which do not come into competition with our own manufactures, because they are either not made here at all or are made in insufficient quantity. It is worth remarking that in the "tariff reduction" swindle of 1883 the duty on these finer grades of cotton goods was *raised* from 35 per cent. to 40 per cent. ad valorem.

Turning to the other branch of the inquiry, we remark, first, that we exported in the year 1887 cotton manufactures to the value of $14,929,342. Therefore we do compete with other countries to that extent. Our exportation of cotton goods was one-half as great as our exports of tobacco, two-thirds as great as our exportation of wood and manufactures of wood, more than twice as large as our exports of leather and manufactures of leather, and four times as large as our exports of copper, all of which may be called indigenous industries. Why do we not export more? One reason is that we have not the requisite number of mills to supply fully the home demand. We draw this inference from the fact that new and very large cotton mills are now in course of erection, in spite of the Mills bill and all that that implies, three such being well under way at Fall River alone and a fourth just beginning. Another reason is that cotton machinery is taxed 45 per cent., structural iron 100 per cent. or more, and chemicals, except bleaching powder, 25 per cent. Another reason undoubtedly is that when we went back to high tariffs in 1861, and subsequently, we allowed Great Britain to get the start of us in the cotton-goods trade of the world to such a degree that she now has possession of the principal markets, and everybody knows that mere possession amounts to a great deal. One thing is certain—it is *not* high wages that prevents us from competing with England in cotton manufacturing. We have Mr. Blaine's authority for that statement, and there, for once, Mr. Blaine is right.

There is no doubt that the pressure on President Cleveland to get him to write a letter endorsing Hill's nomination has been actively begun. The emissaries are already on the road. There is serious alarm among Hill's followers touching the effect on his candidacy of the sober second thought of the public, and they are anxiously looking about for the means of counteracting the increasing public disgust. The only thing that could possibly do them any good would be a letter from the President. That it *would* do them any good, however, we refuse to believe. On the contrary, we think it would involve both tickets in common ruin. If Hill is to be elected, it must be on his own character and record. There are very few who know the man, and object to voting for him because they know him, who could be induced to swallow their scruples by anything the President could say about him. On the contrary, we believe any such attempt to cure Hill would aggravate him. The only man in the world who could help Hill would be a man who should prove that he is pure, incorruptible, straightforward, truthful. If any such person appears before the election, he will make Hill's endorsement by everybody else superfluous. In his absence, Hill is a pitiful creature.

Mayor Hewitt's talk on Thursday touching his relations to Tammany was very interesting reading. It appears that Tammany furnished him with lists of people it wished appointed to office, and he failed to satisfy it. He did give Tammany men some offices, however, though not those they desired. His description of Mr. Richard Croker as a man who thinks politics means public office, while he (Mr. Hewitt) thinks it means good government, is singularly correct, but adds nothing to the public knowledge of Mr. Croker. Mr. Hewitt's account of John Kelly as "an honest man under whose control Tammany was a power for good government" is, however, enough to take one's breath away. All researches ever made into Kelly's moral or political condition showed him to be a thoroughly corrupt demagogue or boss, who seemed honest simply by contrast, because he succeeded Tweed. The most important point in Mr. Hewitt's talk is, however, his pledge that if Tammany puts up an unfit man for the Mayoralty, he will allow himself to be run against him.

A very pungent letter from the late Roscoe Conkling about Mr. James G. Blaine, written twenty-two years ago, has been given to the public in the Ithaca *Democrat* by Mr. Peter B. Crandall, with comments and explanations of his own. It is but a specimen of the additional revelations about the "Greatest Living Statesman" with which we should have been deluged had his party been so unlucky as to have his nomination forced on them. There were large stores of such things kept, one may say, in bond, ready to be thrown on the market in case he again offered himself for the suffrages of the nation. Mr. Crandall, now a man of eighty and a Republican from the beginning, finds even Blaine's prominence in the canvass more than he can bear; but most other depositaries of the Blaine record would have been more patient, and have waited till he actually began to run for the Presidency. Had this occurred, instead of the decent, rational, and instructive canvass now going on, and which is, barring the forged quotations, a credit to the country, we should all have been kept busy for three months examining the question whether on such a day the Republican candidate lied, whether on another day he cheated, and whether on another he took a bribe. In view of these things we must all, of every party, give thanks to the Republican Convention for Gen. Harrison. He is not a great man, and his attainments in some fields are small, but there is no need to discuss his personal character, which is in all respects worthy of the great place to which he aspires; and the same remark may be made of Mr. Morton. Consequently we all have time for the discussion of political opinions or ideas, to the immense benefit of the country. No matter how the election goes in November, the gain to the American people from the controversy now raging over the tariff will be great and permanent.

The official figures from the Maine election appear to be saturated with a malicious determination to contradict all the statements made by Mr. Blaine on the evening of election day. We have shown how completely they have disproved his statements that the result was "almost a political revolution," and that "many Democrats turned against the Mills bill." There is one other assertion which remains to be disposed of, and the official figures of the Prohibition vote attend to that. Mr. Blaine closed his despatch to Gen. Harrison with this sentence: "The Prohibition vote falls off everywhere." The official returns give the total Prohibition vote as 3,151, against 1,190 in the September election of 1884, a gain of 1,961, or about 150 per cent.

THE HISTORY OF THE TARIFF.

THE general considerations which bear upon the question of tariff revision are likely to become pretty familiar to a large proportion of our citizens during the present canvass. Even the arguments that concern special phases of the subject, such as the tariff on wool and woollens, on lumber and salt, will be well understood by thousands to whom economic questions were very foreign a few months ago. It would be a great acquisition to the cause of reform if an equal number of citizens could be made acquainted with the facts of our tariff history; for nothing could more effectively shake the trust of a plain man in the soundness of our present system than a knowledge of the devious ways—sometimes haphazard, sometimes tricky—by which our tariff laws have arrived at their present state. Prof. Taussig of Harvard University has put this knowledge within the reach of the general public in his volume on 'The Tariff History of the United States.'

The portion of this history which is of chief interest at this juncture is that which covers the period from 1857 to the present time. How recent is the doctrine which was embodied in the Chicago platform, and which has gradually hardened into its present state through the constantly bolder and bolder demands of the protected interests, may be seen from a few extracts relating to the situation just before the war:

"The country accepted the tariff acts of 1846 and 1857, and was satisfied with them. Except in the years immediately following the passage of the former act, when there was some attempt to induce a return to a more rigid protective system, agitation on the tariff ceased almost entirely. There is no doubt that the period from 1846 to 1860 was a time of great material prosperity—interrupted, but not checked, by the crisis of 1857. It would be going too far to assert that this general prosperity was due chiefly to the liberal character of the tariff. Other causes exercised a great and perhaps a predominant influence. But the moderate tariff undoubtedly was one of the elements that contributed to the general welfare. It may be well to add that prosperity was not confined to any part of the country, or to any branches of industry. Manufactures in general continued to flourish; and the reduction of duties which was made in 1857 had the consent and approbation of the main body of manufacturers."

In all this, Prof. Taussig agrees with Mr. Blaine's history of the same period. It sounds strange enough, in these days, to be told that the lowest tariff we have had for seventy years "had the consent and approbation of the main body of manufacturers." But if one were at all disposed to doubt the accuracy of this statement, his doubts would probably disappear on reading some of the citations from Republican Congressmen concerning the tariff of 1861. Senator Sherman said in a speech in Congress while the bill enacting this tariff was pending: "The manufacturers have asked over and over again to be let alone. The tariff of 1857 is the manufacturers' bill." And Prof. Taussig quotes Mr. Morrill himself, the author of the bill, as saying in late years that the tariff of 1861 "was not asked for, and but coldly welcomed by manufacturers, who always (and justly) fear instability." Finally, we may quote a sentence from a speech by Mr. Rice of Massachusetts, as showing that in 1860 a man could be a protectionist without advocating the highest rates of duty that any interested party might have the effrontery to demand. "The manufacturer," said Mr. Rice, "asks no additional protection. He has learned, among other things, that the greatest evil, next to a ruinous competition from foreign sources, is an excessive protection, which stimulates a like ruinous and irresponsible competition at home."

Nothing in Prof. Taussig's book is more interesting than the history of the gradual change in the spirit of the manufacturers in their demands for protection and of Congress in its attitude towards them. Under the tremendous needs of the national Treasury during the war, no one was disposed to criticise the means by which revenue was made to flow into the nation's coffers. Protective taxation was laid without discrimination and without stint on everything that any interested party desired to have protected. The tariff bill of 1864, which gave us the high war tariff under which, in regard to the great protected industries, we are in the main still living, was introduced in the House June 2 and passed June 4; in the Senate two days were given to its consideration. "The necessity of the situation," says Prof. Taussig, "the critical state of the country, the urgent need of revenue, may have justified this haste, which, it is safe to say, is unexampled in the history of civilized countries. But surely there can be no excuse for making a measure passed in this manner and under these circumstances the foundation of the permanent economic policy of an enlightened people." Concerning the effect of the habits engendered by the legislation of the war upon the tone of public opinion respecting the tariff, and upon the boldness of interested suitors for protection, we cannot do better than to quote Prof. Taussig again:

"Every domestic producer who came before Congress got what he wanted in the way of duties. Protection ran riot; and this, moreover, not merely for the time being. The whole tone of the public mind towards the question of import duties became distorted. Not only during the war, but for several years after it, all feeling of opposition to high import duties almost entirely disappeared. The habit of putting on as high rates as any one asked had become so strong that it could hardly be shaken off; and even after the war, almost any increase of duties demanded by domestic producers was readily made. . . . The line between public duty and private interests was often lost sight of by legislators. . . . When more enlightened and unselfish views began to make their way, and protests were made against the abuses and excessive duties of the war period, these had obtained, as we shall see, too strong a hold to be easily shaken off."

Even more striking than the history of the rise of the high-protection system during the war is that of the increase of some of the most important protective duties after the war. Prof. Taussig singles out, as illustrations of this, the duties on wool and woollens, on steel rails, and on copper. We cannot do justice to these points without going into greater detail than is here practicable. No one can read the story of these duties, told with the conspicuous fairness and lucidity that mark the whole of Prof. Taussig's work, without feeling how idle is the expectation—if, indeed, any indulge it—of anything like rational reform of the tariff system at the hands of those who have been instrumental in making it what it is, or with the consent of those whose fortunes have been built up by its most onerous provisions.

A point which ought not to be forgotten by those who make comparisons between the present rates of duty and those which prevailed during the war, is, that at that time there were heavy internal-revenue taxes on nearly everything we manufactured, and that the rates of duty were distinctly made with a view to compensating for these internal taxes and affording the manufacturer protection besides. No one supposed for a moment that the internal-revenue taxes would be abolished and the protective duties based upon them remain as high as ever. Yet such has been the case. Not only has the war system of protection been left substantially intact; it has, at many points—as in the instances of wool and woollens, copper, and steel rails—been explicitly raised; and in a vast range of cases protection has been virtually increased through the abolition of the internal-revenue taxes. When certain duties were avowedly made to cover and compensate for internal taxation, nothing could be plainer than the implied promise that when that taxation was removed, a corresponding reduction would be made in the duty; but that promise has been completely forgotten. Until the present canvass we had from the Republican party plenty of promises, of a more or less definite character, of tariff reform "within the party." Now the sound of these has nearly died out, and our tariff history has at last reached a crisis in which the contending parties are not protectionists and free-traders, but, on the one hand, those who openly declare that every stone of the incongruous pile which has been built up by protectionists shall be held sacred, and on the other, those who ask the people to resume the exercise of their right to the control of their own taxation.

"DISPUTED QUOTATIONS."

THE Boston *Journal* finds a variety of reasons for holding on to the forged quotations from the English press that have been sent so widely over the country by the "party of moral ideas." The very heading of the *Journal's* article, viz., "As to Certain *Disputed* Quotations," shows the frame of mind in which the subject is taken up—the fact being that the quotations are not "disputed" at all, but are notorious forgeries which nobody now pretends are anything but forgeries. The *Journal* first travels solemnly over the ground taken by the Boston *Advertiser* the other day, that if these quotations are not exactly authentic, they nevertheless express the opinions entertained by the editors. The *Journal* has a new way of putting this fine conceit. It says, "There is nothing intrinsically improbable in the attributing of this phrase to the London *Times*." No, there is nothing intrinsically improbable in *your* attributing it to the London *Times*, even after the *Times* has disavowed it and declared that it never entertained that opinion at all.

But the *Journal* has many excuses besides this. It thinks it altogether likely that this phrase did appear in the London *Times*, although it cannot be found, because "the effort of hunting through the files of such a paper as the London *Times* for a three-line extract would be rather arduous." "The most that can be said," it continues, "is, that no one has found the *date* of the paper containing these words; but it does not follow that the quotation is a forgery." Becoming emboldened by the thought that it is only "the date" that is wanting, it goes on to quote what Congressman Butterworth said. Butterworth having said, not that the London *Times said* so and so, but that he read so and so *in* the *Times*, "a few years ago," the *Journal* advances still a new idea, viz.: "We have been told by some one who professes to know, that the words formed a part of a speech which was reported in the *Times*. We do not vouch for this explanation, but it at least is consistent with the London *Times's* disclaimer of the words, and also with Congressman Butterworth's recollection of reading them in the *Times*." Having given all these reasons for holding on, or not quite letting go, the *Journal* says that it "does not regard the point as of much consequence anyway." Of course not. It is of no consequence to you whether you tell lies or not. But it is of some consequence to the public who read your newspaper.

Now, we have an answer to all your pleas, one after the other. If you think that the "disputed quotation" from the London *Times* contained nothing intrinsically improbable as an expression of the opinions of that paper, you ought to have printed it in this way:

"The only time that England can use an Irishman is when he emigrates to America and votes for free trade."—*Intrinsically Probable Opinion of the London Times.*

If you think it likely that this phrase did appear in the London *Times*, although it cannot now be found, you ought to have printed it thus:

"The only time that England can use an Irishman is when he emigrates to America and votes for free trade."—*London Times, but no copy of the paper can be found.*

If you think that the most that can be said on the other side is, that no one has found "the date" of the paper, you ought to have printed it in this way:

"The only time that England can use an Irishman is when he emigrates to America and votes for free trade."—*London Times, date missing.*

If you believed that the phrase in question was not in an editorial of the *Times*, but in a speech printed by that paper, you should have printed in it this way:

"The only time that England can use an Irishman is when he emigrates to America and votes for free trade."—*Speech printed in London Times, author and date unknown.*

Finally, if you were following Congressman Butterworth and had no other authority than himself, why did you not use the words that he used? Butterworth said:

"A few years ago I read in the London *Times* these words, in speaking of the Irish people: 'The only time that England can use *the Celt* is when he emigrates to America and votes for free trade.'"

Substituting "an Irishman" for "the Celt" was a forgery upon a forgery. It looks like a small matter, but it is really important, because most people know that the London *Times* does not use slang in its editorials. Consequently, the word "Celt" employed in the pretended quotation would have cast doubt upon the whole thing. It would have started inquiry and led to early exposure of the forgery. The Celts are not confined to Ireland. They include also the Scottish, Welsh, Cornish, and Armoric peoples. If a newspaper of the standing of the London *Times* should use the phrase in question, it would be equivalent to saying, "The only time that England can use an Irishman, Scotchman, Welshman, Cornishman, or Channel Islander is when he emigrates to America and votes for free trade." This would not have answered the purposes of the Republican campaign at all; hence the ingenious variation of the language used by Congressman Butterworth.

The brazenness of the Republican committees who continue to circulate these lies after their falsity is proved and acknowledged, and of Republican newspapers like the Boston *Journal* and *Advertiser*, that find excuses for the conduct of the committees like those here recited, does not seem so surprising when we recall the demoralization of the Blaine campaign four years ago. Any newspaper or committee or party that went through that Serbonian bog of lies and quibbles to explain the Mulligan letters, and to reconcile them with an honorable standard of public life, would be well schooled for false quotations from the English press, or false tables of wages, or any other immoral practice that might promise to gain the votes of ignorant people.

ELECTORAL FORGERIES.

We believe there never has, before now, been a canvass in a free country in which the appeals to the voters on one side consisted almost wholly of extracts from foreign newspapers. The Republican canvass this year, in fact, produces little else. Nearly all the cards and handbills which are issued by the hundred thousand from the committee and club-rooms, tell the voter not what American statesmen, or orators, or economists say, but what the London *Times* and *Economist* and *Spectator* and Manchester *Guardian* say. In ordinary times the comments of these newspapers on American affairs are apt to be served up for popular derision on account of their blunders and ineptness touching everything American. But within the past three months they have been cited far and wide as infallible guides for American electors in casting their votes, almost to the total exclusion of all American authorities.

So great, too, is the reliance placed on them by the managers of the Republican canvass that, although there never has been any question that all the leading English journals advocate free trade, and although there need not be the least difficulty in finding passages in their columns illustrative of this advocacy, the Republicans have been actually relying mainly on extracts either forged or garbled, which we have been freely exposing during the past few weeks. The tenacity with which the clubs and committees cling to them in spite of the exposure, the fury and bitterness with which the newspapers receive all requests to withdraw them or apologize, and the equivocation and quibbling by which it is sought to conceal or explain them away, form, we think, one of the most repulsive spectacles ever witnessed in a political contest, even in times of more corruption and excitement than the present. We advise any of our readers who wishes to estimate for himself the importance of these citations (both genuine and forged) to Gen. Harrison's supporters, to examine the arguments in any Republican newspaper which he is in the habit of seeing, or go to the Republican committee-room and look over the documents which they are circulating, and mark off from them the passages which either quote or profess to quote English newspapers, and he will be amazed to see how small and slight a thing the residuum is. The party, in fact, has become intellectually as well as morally such a rump that when it tries to argue, it steals, in spite of itself.

We suggested some time ago, in view of the large part which the forgeries are playing in the canvass, and of the importance evidently attached to them as instruments of persuasion, that the use of forgery or fraudulent quotation during a canvass with intent to deceive voters, should be subjected to the same penalties as bribery or personation. The *Boston Herald* questioned the practicability of anything of the sort, but did not say on what ground. But the idea, we think, finds general favor among all those who care for electoral purity, and we think it occurs to everybody who comes across the forgeries, and sees the mischief they are doing among the less intelligent voters. Mr. George, a hotel proprietor in New Hampshire, when acknowledging the receipt of a bundle of them from the now notorious Radclyffe of the Boston Home Market Club, the other day said:

"I acknowledge receipt from you of a package of protection documents for distribution; also a circular letter informing me that they are not generally called for in New Hampshire, and asking that I put them where they will help 'the cause.' As the documents in question contain a series of forged quotations and other equally reliable information for the faithful, and as I must decline to be an instrument of the Home Market Club in giving circulation to such matters, I have consigned the lot to the flames. I trust if there is not already a law on the statute-books of Massachusetts covering such crimes against good morals, that the next Legislature will enact such measure or measures as will be necessary to protect society."

Our State law on forgery apparently does not touch the offence, because the forgery must have in view some sort of fraud against property. But an amendment covering an attempt to deceive a voter by forgery, or fraudulent quotation, would be very simple. The matter attracted a good deal of attention in 1880, apropos of the Morey letter, which became the subject of a criminal prosecution. That was a letter

purporting to have been written by Gen. Garfield, containing views about labor which were well calculated to cause him the loss of votes, and, consequently, of the Presidency, but would not necessarily have been at all discreditable or injurious under other circumstances. Now it was found, when the writer was caught, that the only way of proceeding against him criminally was by indictment for libel. That this was a serious defect in the law was fully recognized by Judge Noah Davis in his decision of November 14, 1880, holding the forger Philp for trial. He said:

"Had the subject of the forgery in this case been instruments purporting to be obligations of Gen. Garfield, and he publicly declared them to be forgeries, who could thereafter send them forth, and circulate them throughout the commonwealth, with his representation of genuineness, without incurring the penalties of the law? *The difference is purely statutory, and in a moral forum wholly vanishes.* . . . But it is altogether a forgery, perpetrated by some person or body of persons *for the purpose of deceiving the people and defrauding them* and Gen. Garfield of their votes."

"It must be the wish of all honorable minds that this case will lead not only to discovery and exposure of the guilty, but *to the enactment of laws which will prevent or severely punish offences of this character.* Whoever be the guilty in this case, right-thinking men everywhere must look upon the act as an appalling crime, wholly at war with the safety and sanctity of popular government. Fortunately no committee and no body of men hold in their hands the conscience of the people, and no party fealty is strong enough to intercept the sentence of condemnation which honest men of all parties must pronounce upon such guilt."

Moreover, the District Attorney, Bell, laid it down, that the circulation by the Democratic Committee of a forged letter "with the view of injuring Gen. Garfield in the estimation of a portion of the voters of the country while he was running for an honorable office," made them "liable to prosecution for criminal libel." Of course this exactly covers the intent of the Republican Committee and others in circulating the forged extracts from the English papers. They are designed to injure Mr. Cleveland in the estimation of a portion of the voters, and to induce them to vote against him. Throughout the proceedings there was no attempt made to show that the opinions attributed to Gen. Garfield would disgrace him as a man. They were held to be libellous simply because they damaged him as a candidate.

Of course, it may be said that it would not be possible to follow up and punish all the lies or misrepresentations made in the course of an exciting canvass. But we do not propose anything so laborious and probably so futile. We simply propose to have the law of forgery applied to printed or lithographed documents published and circulated with the design of changing votes. To make such application efficacious, we should adopt section 18 of the English Parliamentary Elections Act, which requires that "every bill, placard, and poster having reference to an election shall bear on its face the name and address of the printer and publisher." If we had this change in the law now, either many tons of campaign literature now in circulation would never have seen the light, or Thurber, Radclyffe, and scores of others would be under bonds awaiting trial, or fugitives from justice.

PARTY CHANGES.

As the campaign progresses, evidence accumulates that a great transformation in the membership of parties is in progress. Everywhere one hears of men who either have been Republicans, or would naturally, from their environment, have become Republicans, who will vote the Democratic ticket, and of former Democrats who will support Harrison. The New Haven *News* recently sent letters of inquiry as to the drift of opinion to men of both political parties in Connecticut, and it says of the result: "Each Republican who replied writes of many changes from the Democratic party, and each Democrat knows of many changes from the Republican party. There were no exceptions to this rule in the letters received." The ground for these changes in almost every instance is the attitude of the two parties regarding the issue of tariff reform.

It is exceedingly difficult to form a conclusion as to the effect of this transformation in membership upon the relative proportions of the two parties in any State. One of the correspondents of the New Haven paper remarks with much force· "We all naturally find what we seek; and I think an idea of the drift of opinion gained by comparing the views of different observers will prove nothing except the point of view of a majority of the observers." Moreover, a great many of the changes cannot be detected, since the voters who are changing do not care to advertise the matter.

Some light, however, is cast upon this question by the result of the Maine election. For weeks the leading Republican papers in that State, like the Portland *Press*, Lewiston *Journal*, and Augusta *Journal*, were announcing conversions to their side of former Democrats on the tariff issue—manufacturers who feared that their business would be ruined, employees who dreaded low wages if a "free-trade" policy should be adopted, farmers who were afraid that they should lose the "home market" for agricultural products if the tariff should be reduced. We much regret that we did not have compiled a full list of such changes announced by these papers. They must have reached well into the hundreds, and as every case reported was declared to stand for several similar ones which were not reported, it seems plain that there must have been, according to the Republican theory, thousands of men in the class referred to by Mr. Blaine in this passage of his despatch on the night of election day to Whitelaw Reid: "The question of protection was the only one discussed. *Many Democrats turned against the Mills bill.*"

In the gubernatorial election of 1884 in Maine, the Republicans cast 78,318 votes, and the Democrats 58,503—a Republican plurality of 19,815. Suppose that we consider the "many Democrats" of 1884 who "turned against the Mills bill" and consequently voted the Republican ticket this year, as aggregating 5,000 in number. It follows, of course, that, supposing no other change to have occurred, the Republican vote in 1888 should have risen to 83,318 and the Democratic fallen to 53,503, swelling the Republican plurality to nearly 30,000. But in point of fact the Republican vote rose only to 79,513—a gain of but 1,195; while the Democrats not only did not lose 5,000, or even one, but polled 61,018, a gain of 2,515, reducing the Republican plurality to 18,495. As the Republican papers claim to have proved that thousands of the Democrats of 1884 voted the Republican ticket in 1888, it is plain that more thousands of the Republicans of 1884 voted the Democratic ticket in 1888. If 5,000 former Democrats voted the Republican ticket, it is clear that nearly 6,000 former Republicans must have voted the Democratic ticket, in order to reduce the Republican plurality to the extent which it suffered.

The *Tribune* has brought together in a single issue a large number of such changes from the Democratic party to the Republican on the tariff issue in this State as the Maine Republican papers published in small instalments during the canvass in the latter State. Considering that the vote of New York is eight times as large as that of Maine, the *Tribune's* list is no longer than would be needed to record a proportionate number of changes in this State. As the leading Republican organ in the country may be presumed to have devoted more expense to such a matter than less wealthy and enterprising sheets, the probability is that the *Tribune's* canvass comes much nearer showing the real loss to the Democrats in New York than the Republican organs in Maine were able to do in their State. The *Tribune's* conclusion as to the number of such Democratic deserters in New York is this: "It would be almost impossible to form anything like a reliable estimate of the number of Democrats who have left their party in this State. It certainly goes far up into the thousands."

If we estimate that there were 5,000 former Democrats in Maine who left their party this year, and allow a similar proportion in this State, the number would reach 40,000. But if we apply the Maine basis still further, to changes the other way, it follows that nearly 48,000 former Republicans in New York must be expected to vote the Democratic ticket, which, on the basis of the result in 1884, would give Cleveland the State by a plurality of well up towards 10,000.

But there is every reason to believe that the Democrats will gain relatively far more on the tariff issue in this State than the result shows they did in Maine. The sentiment in favor of tariff reform is ten times as strong in New York as in Maine. The habit and practice of independent voting are ten times as common in New York as in Maine. The obloquy and loss which a former Republican often suffers for voting the Democratic ticket are not one-tenth as much to be dreaded in New York as in Maine. Moreover, the existence of a large class of former Republicans who will support Cleveland on the tariff issue this year is ten times as plain to the casual observer in New York as it was in Maine. The Republican papers in Maine boasted that there were next

to no changes away from their party to counterbalance the many changes away from the Democrats, and indeed we only heard of an occasional case like that of President Hyde of Bowdoin College. But the result shows that Dr. Hyde had abundance of company—that there were, indeed, more Republicans who went with him than there were Democrats who turned against their party. In New York, on the other hand, there is abundant evidence already visible that a very large class of former Republicans will support the Democratic ticket this year.

It was generally admitted before Mr. Cleveland injected the tariff issue into the Presidential campaign that he would be re-elected. After he sent in his message the Republican organs claimed that the party changes which it would produce must defeat him. The Maine election proves that it is the Republicans, and not the Democrats, who have reason to fear the result of these changes.

THE EMPEROR FREDERICK'S DIARY.

THE publication of the diary of the late Emperor Frederick, through one of his friends, Baron Roggenbach, apparently authorized by the Empress Victoria, appears to have had the effect of a bombshell in German politics. It has been popularly supposed, ever since 1866 at least, that although Frederick's tendencies and opinions were liberal, and although he was an able man, nevertheless that he was so completely overborne in his father's counsels by Bismarck that he counted for nothing in the shaping of German policy. The creation of the German Empire he was supposed to have assented to, or, at most, approved of, but to Bismarck was given the whole credit of the idea, as well as of its execution.

It would appear now that even up to Sedan Bismarck hung back from the undertaking, or threw cold water on it, and that it was due to Frederick's persistence that both the King and the Prince were brought over to it. Bismarck, man of blood and iron though he was, was afraid of the South Germans. Frederick was also opposed to the bombardment of Paris, but was unable to maintain himself against the military party headed by Moltke, to whom also, it may be added, was due the equally barbarous bombardment of Strasbourg. The fact would seem to be that Frederick was really the only truly modern man at the German headquarters. The others were almost mediæval in their notions as to the forces which rule modern society. Frederick believed in war as one of those forces, but he also believed that to make war thoroughly efficacious it must be so waged as to leave behind the least possible amount of sting in the minds of the vanquished. The same feeling appears to have made him doubt the wisdom of annexing Alsace and Lorraine. Another illustration of this same freedom from old prepossessions is to be found in the fun he makes of the practice, common among belligerents, of praying for the help of God against the enemy. Each side does this in every war with perfect gravity, and returns thanks for its success, and believes, with more or less fervor, that the Almighty is in its camp, and is taking an active part in directing the operations. The old King believed this firmly, and Bismarck has always maintained that he believed it, but with a twinkle in his eye. We suppose that he holds, with Napoleon, that God is always with the big battalions.

It appears also from the diary that Frederick was determined, whenever he ascended the throne, to establish a thoroughly liberal régime, and make the Ministers responsible to Parliament in the English fashion. It has accordingly been seized on by the German Liberal press as a sort of campaign document, and will undoubtedly greatly encourage the Liberals in resisting the reactionary policy which, as far as one can now see, the present Emperor is likely to pursue. In fact, the publication is probably more important for him than for any other individual. It will do something to dim Bismarck's fame, but Bismarck is a vanishing factor. He is nearing the close of his career, and must exert a diminishing influence on the march of affairs. But the young Emperor is apparently trying to get back to 1866, and it will be a serious matter for him to find himself confronted at every step by his father's shade, and to find the opposition sustained and cheered by his father's political reflections and predictions. The lesson he has yet to learn is the strength of opinion in the modern world, the solvent force it exerts both on traditions and institutions, and the folly of coming into direct collision with it, even at the head of a million of men.

The diary, too, will probably bring home to the German people very keenly what a misfortune the old Emperor's long life was, in spite of its picturesqueness and dignity. His career was really complete and fully rounded at the close of the French war. He had won more than he ever hoped for, and lived to see things he had never dreamed of seeing. Had he died soon after the peace, he would have died full of years and honors, and Frederick would have had time to inaugurate a peaceful and progressive régime, which would probably have diminished the huge armaments under which Germany is groaning, and have removed the dismal forebodings about the political future in which the whole European continent now lives. In earlier days, the Germans would have detected a tremendous judgment on some hidden national sin in the strange fate which kept the old Emperor's lamp flickering feebly almost until his son's was suddenly and fearfully extinguished.

ATHLETICS IN FRANCE.

HARDLY any difference between French and English manners has been more marked since the Revolution of 1789 than the indifference of the French to field sports, and to out-door games and gymnastic exercises generally. For twenty-five years after the overthrow of the old Monarchy, the national activity found expression solely in war, and, when the peace came, the only muscular exercise in vogue among the men was fencing with the small sword or sabre. Nothing was done for athletics in the schools. The Napoleonic "lycées," in which the boys of the middle and upper classes were educated, had no better provision for out-door exercise than small play-grounds surrounded by high walls, in which the boys moped, walked, or romped, under as strict and constant supervision from tutors as the girls in the old-fashioned city boarding-schools. This state of things lasted down to the German war. It unquestionably accounted in a large degree for the devotion of the French to what Matthew Arnold called the goddess Lubricity. The boys were kept in a sort of moral hot-house at school, with nothing to check unhealthy activity of the imagination. When they obtained their liberty on reaching manhood, the only way of exercising it that occurred to them was amorous adventures and irregularities. Hence the ridiculous amount of attention which the French now give to the sexual passion, the amount of writing they devote to it, and the immense prominence given to it in their works of fiction.

According to a writer in the *Figaro*, a considerable change has come over the French youth since the war, partly owing to the impression made on them by the tremendous drubbing they got from the Germans, and partly owing to increased contact with the English, and increased resulting inclination to imitate them. Accordingly, there has appeared on the scene in France a class which they call "Bicepsmen," corresponding to the earlier English "muscular Christians," or "boating men," and our own athletes. The *Figaro* maintains that they are but revivals of an old type—that the smaller country gentlemen, before the Revolution, never allowed themselves to get out of condition, and walked, rode, and shot, and played tennis as much as any do now. But for fifty years after the fall of the Empire, what young Frenchmen sought after was elegance, refinement, and delicacy of feature and complexion and hands; they even did not disdain a little stoop, as a mark of a sedentary or indoor life, and the models among them were those who were most successful in gallantry. This type was known as the "petits crêvés," and was at its best under the Second Empire.

Their place has now been taken by the "Bicepsmen," who, as their name indicates, are essentially English in their standards. Their imagination has been touched by the athletic habits and physical strength of the English gentry. For instance, "what distinguishes an English nobleman is that when he takes a cab, he knows, if he has a row with the cabman, that he can lick him, and, what is better, the cabman knows it too. There is nothing which marks better the distinction between the classes than this, and does more to maintain good relations between them," according to our French authority; and he maintains that in old times there was a race of gentlemen in France, also, who could in case of necessity assert their superiority to the cabmen in the

same manner. The fashion has been revived and is spreading, perhaps owing in part to the terrible decline in the manners of the Parisian cabman which all travellers report.

Costume in France is of the first importance. Accordingly, the "Bicepsman" wears his clothes tight, in order to display more clearly his muscular outline. The frock coat, or coat of any kind with long skirts, which would conceal or attenuate rotundity, is sternly discarded. The short sack, which conceals nothing of which an athlete feels ashamed, is most in favor. His collar, too, is straight but low and close-fitting, marking the outline of the neck. The turn-down collar, fitting loosely, is forbidden, because it looks as if the wearer was not in condition and was afraid of some sort of cerebral congestion. The shoes or boots are of course low-heeled and broad-soled, as befit a man who travels not on his nerves, but on his muscles. The Bicepsman, too, is grave and self-confident, and perhaps even a little defiant in his bearing, and has to be on his guard against displaying his strength rather than letting it be seen. One of them, whom the writer in the *Figaro* happened to see out of his window, exercising with dumb-bells, had the line from his heel to the back of his neck marked by a cleanness, a firmness of design, an absence of hesitation or uncertainty, which spoke volumes as to his general make-up.

Considered in his relations to women, as every French type has to be, it would appear that the Bicepsman is more in favor with ladies who have reached the age of thirty than with the younger ones. The cultivation of the muscles apparently brings with it a certain gravity and sense of responsibility, which diminishes that gayety of the heart and play of the tongue which are necessary to success in the earlier years of love-making. A real Bicepsman, in short, has to be a mature man, a man whose bodily powers are at their best, and whose consciousness of their value has produced a mental calm and gravity of demeanor which very young girls would not appreciate. It will be seen, in fact, that, on the whole, the French athlete is sure to be a bit of an actor.

NOURRISSON'S APOLOGY FOR PASCAL.

PARIS, August 23.

'THE DEFENCE OF PASCAL' is a very singular title for a book. I did not know that Pascal needed any defence. M. Nourrisson, a member of the French Institute, well known for his many philosophical and historical works, has made himself the apologist of the famous author of the 'Provinciales' and the 'Pensées.' He explains the Jansenism of Pascal and his hostility to the Jesuits; he defends him against the accusation of scepticism or pessimism; he enters even into the domain of science, and shows that the scientific work of Pascal has not been appreciated at its full value. In order fully to appreciate the intellectual work of the famous writer, we must, according to the modern method, see him in his *milieu*, and study the relations between the development of his ideas and his life.

Pascal was born in 1623. After a very severe fall of his father, he made his first serious reflections on human destiny, and entered into relations with some ardent Jansenists. He was already twenty-three years old, but had, so far, only been occupied with scientific pursuits; but, from that moment, he turned his mind towards religious and philosophical subjects. He remained, however, a man of the world, and walked in the beaten track. This first shock of his father's malady was not strong enough. "If I had lost my father six years ago," he wrote, in October, 1651, "I should have been a lost man."

He experienced grace a second time, towards the end of 1654. His sister Jacqueline had entered Port Royal, and he unbosomed himself to her: he wished to detach himself from all earthly things, and he placed himself under the spiritual guidance of M. Singlin (whom Sainte-Beuve has so well described in his history of Port Royal), and made his first retreat to Port Royal in January, 1655, where he astonished Saci by his famous conversation on Epictetus and Montaigne. What had taken place between what is called his first and his second and definitive conversion? We know only imperfectly, but we know that Pascal's health was very delicate, that he was of a very nervous and sensitive disposition. It has been said that he gave himself up for a time to worldly pleasures, that he was extravagant, that he gamed, that he was very sensual, and that he ended by having real hallucinations.

M. Nourrisson is very anxious, too anxious, it seems to us, to defend Pascal against these imputations. He will not allow that Pascal was ever fond of cards and games of chance. To be sure, he wrote the 'Règle des Partis,' but this was only an occasion for exercising his mind and for making ingenious calculations. He will not even admit that Pascal was wealthy, for wealth seems to M. Nourrisson a necessary condition of gambling. Pascal's fortune had been diminished by the reduction of rentes (we say conversion in our day), which his father had been obliged to accept. Pascal had also to give her dowry to Jacqueline when she entered Port Royal, and the dowry was not large, as Jacqueline speaks in a letter of "the little which God had given her." He had to pay some large debts contracted by his father (see the 'Recherches sur la maison où Blaise Pascal est né et sur la fortune d'Étienne Pascal,' by B. Gonod. Clermont, 1847). It is true that in her memoir on her uncle ('Mémoire sur la vie de Pascal'), Marguerite Périer writes that when the doctors saw him in a bad state of health, on account of his great application to science, they forbade him all fatiguing work. "He was forced to see the world, to game, and to divert himself." The legend of Pascal's extravagance before his second conversion has no other foundation than the story of an accident that happened at the bridge of Neuilly to a carriage in which was Pascal, and which was drawn by four or six horses. M. Nourrisson supposes that Pascal was that day not in his own carriage, but in the carriage of his friend, the Duke of Roannez, Governor of Poitou. This young duke was himself of a very serious turn of mind; he left his government, transferred his ducal title to his brother-in-law, and ended his life with the Fathers of the Oratory.

M. Nourrisson tries, also, to find out the exact truth about what has been called the "roman de Mlle. de Roannez." Charlotte Gouffier de Boisy de Roannez was born in 1633; she had a very religious disposition and became acquainted with the Port Royalists. Her family took her to the province of Poitou, but in 1657, having returned to Paris, she fled and took the veil at Port Royal under the name of Charlotte de la Passion. (The history of her flight to Port Royal has been told in detail by Hermant Godefroi, Canon of Beauvais, and author of a 'History of Jansenism.') Her family obtained a *lettre de cachet*, and she was obliged to leave Port Royal. She lived from 1657 to 1662 in great seclusion in the Hôtel de Roannez, and the Marquis d'Alluye asked in vain for her hand. She lost in 1664 her spiritual director, Singlin, and fell into what Arnauld, the Jansenist, called a spiritual lethargy. At the age of thirty-four, in 1667, she consented to marry François d'Aubusson de la Feuillade, but she led a very unhappy life. She was constantly ill, her children were ill; she finally died at the age of forty-nine, making in her will a legacy to Port Royal.

What part had Pascal in this sad and melancholy existence? Did he exchange spiritual fears, remorses, hopes, with Mlle. de Roannez? Did he wish to make her his wife, and, as he could not obtain her, did he try to give her over entirely to religion? Some of the letters written by Mlle. de Roannez to her family have been lately published; she protests to her mother, in one of them, that if she has decided to lead a purely religious life, "no person in the world has given her the first thoughts of it, nor contributed in any way to this resolution; it has not been a sermon, or a book, or a speech, but the pure grace of God." M. Nourrisson admits, however, that if Pascal did not push Mlle. de Roannez to the convent, he did all he could to fortify her in her resolution. We have some letters of his to her which are full of Christian considerations. It may also be remarked that the "spiritual lethargy" of Mlle. de Roannez commenced after the death of Pascal, which took place in 1662. On the whole, the "roman de Mlle. de Roannez" reduces itself to very little; M. Nourrisson even seems to us to exaggerate it: he admits that Pascal may have been struck by the beauty of Mlle. de Roannez, but there is no picture of her, and we don't even know if she had any beauty. He alludes to Descartes's admiration of the Princess Palatine Elisabeth, and to Spinoza's passion for the daughter of his Latin master, Van den Ende, the beautiful Miriam. He finds a confirmation of his hypothesis in a 'Discours sur les passions de l'amour,' written towards 1652 or 1653, which is attributed to Pascal, and is probably his work. All this seems rather far fetched, and we really have nothing on which to build a "roman."

Victor Cousin has spoken with unnecessary vehemence of this episode in the life of Pascal; of the "cruel and pious enterprise of Port Royal against Mlle. de Roannez, that noble and amiable person for whom a ferocious zeal disputed so long with the most legitimate natural and worldly ties." Cousin erred also when he attributed the second, the definitive conversion of Pascal to the fear which he experienced when the accident of the bridge at Neuilly took place, and when he came near being thrown into the Seine. "Pascal," said he, "one day saw death face to face, and he took fright. He is afraid of death, he does not want to die; but he addresses himself to what best guarantees the immortality of his soul." We agree with M. Nourrisson that this is a very coarse explanation of the drama which had for its stage the conscience of Pascal. Pascal was not smitten at Neuilly like Saint Paul on the road to Damascus; he had never ceased to entertain philosophical and religious ideas. What is called the second conversion did not take place rapidly, it took place slowly and by degrees. This is quite evident from the account given by Marguerite Périer. It was the work of time, of reflection, of disenchantment. The 'Mémoire

sur la vie de Pascal' is conclusive on this point.

Voltaire considered Pascal a madman, merely because Pascal was religious. "Do not cease," he wrote to his friends, "to repeat that, after the accident on the bridge at Neuilly, Pascal was mad." He reiterates the same thing in his 'Translation of a Letter of Milord Bolingbroke to Milord Cornbury.' He writes: "The 'Pensées' are the work of an enthusiast, and not of a philosopher. If the book which Pascal meditated writing with such materials had been composed, it would have been a monstrous building on a shifting sand. But he could not raise this building, not only because he had little science, but because his brain was deranged in the latter part of his short life." Pascal had really all the science of his time, and he added something to this science; as for his madness (and many will call it genius), Voltaire himself, in a moment of justice, wrote: "Of all these eternal disputants, Pascal alone remains, because he alone was a man of genius. He stands erect on the ruins of his century."

Cousin maintained that Pascal was not a real believer; that he only tried to believe in Christianity—that his faith was not assured. "The doubt before, the doubt after—such was Pascal's fate." It is easier to say that Pascal took a dark view of human destiny, that he was what we call a pessimist—a modern word, unknown by Voltaire, though Voltaire wrote 'Candide,' a most pessimistic work. "It seems to me," wrote the author of 'Candide,' "that when Pascal wrote his 'Pensées,' he intended to show mankind under its most odious form." M. Nourrisson is right when he says that when people accuse Pascal of scepticism, of pessimism, they ought first to give a more precise definition of these terms. The scepticism of Pascal was not the scepticism of the materialistic philosophers of the eighteenth century; his pessimism was not the pessimism of Schopenhauer. M. Nourrisson maintains that in religion Pascal cannot be called a sceptic, that he is a Christian; that in philosophy he is not a sceptic, but a disciple of Descartes, a Cartesian. His argumentation on this second point is very solid. It was essentially the object of Descartes to distinguish and to separate completely theology and philosophy. He was induced to do so partly by his timid circumspection, partly by the boldness of his mind. Pascal bore the mark of the Cartesian philosophy; he also is, in turn, an humble Christian and a bold philosopher.

M. Nourrisson's work, which will be read with interest by all the lovers of our great literature of the seventeenth century, ends with a scientific chapter on the subject of the famous experiment made by Pascal on the Puy-de-Dôme, in order to prove that the air has a certain weight. M. Nourrisson diminishes somewhat Pascal's merit on this point, as he tries to prove that the idea of the experiment originated with Descartes, and that Pascal was induced to make it by the great French philosopher. But, having made the experiment, Pascal was able to find out its laws, and to deduce from it all its consequences and applications.

COUNT TOLSTOI'S INVESTIGATION OF THE GOSPELS.

ST. PETERSBURG, August 15-27, 1888.

LAST winter Mr. Matthew Arnold discussed the writings of Count Lyeff Nikolaievitch Tolstoi in an article in one of the English magazines. I am unable to quote his exact words, because my acquaintance with them is limited to the translation of extracts from them, which were published in a Russian newspaper; but I remember his saying that the fame of the gifted Russian author, as a writer of philosophical and religious books, must eventually rest upon his two volumes which treat of the Gospels. How much Mr. Arnold knew about these books it is impossible to say. I can readily understand that he had heard of them; but that he had heard of them in detail I doubt. They are not available for public judgment. Whether they ever will be so in any country, I do not know. But I can say with absolute certainty that they will always remain in Russia what they are to-day, unknown to all save a select few of the author's friends. No doubt the book would prove acceptable to many others, for various reasons, but it is inaccessible. Manuscripts of some of his other works have circulated here, it is true, in the lack of printed copies, and have become widely known. But this pre-Gutenberg method of procedure is out of the question in the present case, for the reason that the book is too long to readily lend itself to the copyist. Even curiosity has its limits when it has to undergo the ordeal of jotting down inspiration piecemeal, with the consciousness that, after all, one may be pinning one's faith to that version out of several of which the writer would not approve. For I understand that there have been two or three versions, with variations, not important, perhaps, but at least made by the author himself. Taking the bulk of the work and these things into consideration, I do not think that much danger to the creed of orthodox Greek Christians is likely to arise from it; and the mass of Russians, of whatever belief, will not be injured by it in a printed form. It will never be printed so long as the Church and State remain united in Russia, and so long as the Church is the Greek Church. The censor will never give permission, and he is quite right. If there is a State church, the State policy is to protect it from certain dangers and attacks, as much in Russia as in England. In England a bishop is brought to trial for using lighted candles and being more ceremonious with sacred things than the State approves of; in Russia a layman is refused a trial for being too unceremonious with what the State has accepted for the Church. In the present case, the attack is made upon the very root of the Church—the New Testament.

Those persons who have read Count Tolstoi's semi-religious, semi-philosophical works are well aware that he has proceeded very far along the path of unbelief, and have even, probably, wondered at times why he has retained any belief whatever, and just what that belief is. The wonder becomes more profound when one considers this 'Investigation of the Gospels.' In his introduction, he explains how he came to make, as it were, a new rendering of the Scriptures to meet the wants of his own soul:

"Driven to despair," he says, "and to the renunciation of life by reason without faith, I, on awaking once more as a living man, became convinced that this despair is not the common lot of all men, but that men have lived and do live by faith. I saw around me men who possessed that faith, and who drew from it such a conception of life as endowed them with the strength to live calmly and joyously, and to die in the same manner. I tried to order my life in the same manner as the life of believers, I tried to fuse myself with them, to fulfil all that they fulfil in life and in external divine worship, thinking that by this means the meaning of life would be revealed to me. The more closely I approached these people and lived in the same manner as they, and fulfilled all those outward forms of divine worship, the more I felt two forces acting upon me in contrary directions. On the one hand, the sense of life undisturbed by death which satisfied me, revealed itself to me more and more; on the other hand, I saw that in that outward confession of divine faith and worship there was much falsehood. . . . I did not, as yet, doubt that the real truth of life was contained in the teachings of Christianity. My inward discord finally reached such a point that I could not deliberately close my eyes as I had done previously, and I was absolutely forced to examine that doctrine of belief which I desired to appropriate to myself."

After asking explanations of all ranks of the priesthood, the author undertook the study of theological books himself, and came to the conclusion that there is no church, "that the faith which our hierarchy confesses and teaches to the people is not only a lie, but an immoral fraud."

The reader must admit that such appalling frankness on the first page is not calculated to recommend what follows to the authorities. After considering the fact that the faith which has existed for 1,800 years is claimed in its purity by a thousand warring sects, Count Tolstoi turned to the foundation of the faith of all the sects, which is the revelation of Christ to be found in the Gospels. But he rejects the Church's interpretation of the Gospels because of the Trinity and other doctrines, which "cannot find lodgment in any sane mind"; and because there are a thousand equally authoritative interpretations instead of one, while their deductions are absurd. Nevertheless, an interpretation is required, and one in which all shall be able to agree. If the revelation is genuine, it need not fear the light of reason; if it proves to be nonsense, so much the better—we are rid of it. God can do all things but one—utter nonsense.

"By revelation," he says, "I mean that which furnishes an answer to the question which led me to despair and suicide, which cannot be solved by the understanding—What is the meaning of my life? This answer must be intelligible and not controvert the laws of reason; because I should not believe an answer which was contrary to reason. . . . The answer must be such that the meaning attributed to my life should solve all the problems of my life. The answer must be such that I could believe in it with all my soul and inevitably, as I inevitably believe in the existence of eternity. . . . Revelation is the knowledge of that to which man cannot attain by his reason, but which is brought forth for all mankind from the infinity of the beginning of all things. Such, in my opinion, should be the nature of the revelation which produces faith, and such I seek in the tradition concerning Christ, and therefore I turn to it with the strictest, most rational demands."

His statement that he does not read the Old Testament because it is merely a description of the faith of the Jews, which was merely local, from Adam's day to Christ's, and as foreign to us as the faith of the Brahmins, is not especially revolutionary, since the study of the Old Testament is not considered obligatory, nor, perhaps, even altogether desirable, in the Greek Church; but he denies the inspiration of the Old Testament, and accuses the Church of acknowledging this in words, but contradicting it in deeds to such an extent that it would never escape from the dilemma were sound sense in the least degree obligatory. And he blames the Church for having placed the seal of infallibility upon the books, "white, light, and gray" (*i. e.*, those containing more or less pure doctrine, which it recognizes as canonical), thereby depriving itself of the right to combine, exclude, and explain what it has accepted, as it is its duty to do, but as it has not done and does not do. "Hence, the miracles, the Acts of the Apostles, the counsels of Paul about wine, the ravings of the Apocalypse, etc., are all sacred, and, after an existence of 1,800 years, these books now lie before us in the same rough, in-

coherent, imperfect, senseless, contradictory form as ever." In Tolstoi's opinion, the Apocalypse should be entirely, and the Acts of the Apostles in part, rejected, since the miracles related in the latter by Luke, though probably once aids to belief, are now sacrilegious and faith-destroying to the last degree.

Having rejected what precedes the four Gospels as merely historical material, and what follows as simply explanatory matter, Count Tolstoi states that what he shall seek to find in these remaining books is as follows:

"(1) What is intelligible to me, since no one can believe the unintelligible, and incomprehensible knowledge is the same thing as ignorance; (2) that which responds to my question, What am I, and what is God? and (3) What is the chief and only foundation of all revelation? And therefore," he continues, "I shall read incomprehensible, obscure, and half-intelligible passages, not according to my own pleasure, but in such a manner as to render them as compatible as possible with the perfectly clear passages, and to bring them into conformity with a single, fundamental principle. On reading the Scriptures and what has been written about them thus, not once or twice, but many times, I have come to the conviction that all Christian tradition is to be found in the four Gospels. I have read them in Greek, and translated as the sense and the dictionary indicated, only departing from the translations existing in modern languages where the Church has interpreted and defined the meaning of tradition in an eccentric way. In addition to the translation, I was irresistibly led to the indispensable fusion of the four Gospels into one, since they all set forth, although in different ways, the same events and the same doctrine."

After an exposition of the word gospel, as the announcement of true welfare or bliss to men, with reference to the Greek, Count Tolstoi begins his Combined Version by a consideration of the meaning of the word *logos* in the first verse of the first chapter of John. Out of eleven definitions he selects *reason* or *understanding*, and renders "In the beginning was the Word" thus: "The understanding of life was the beginning of all things." This he prefers as clearer and more exact, though he does not absolutely reject any other translation, admits the substitution of *reason* or *wisdom*, or even of *Word*, if this last be employed in a wider sense which is not natural to it. The second phrase presents further difficulties, but, after a consideration of the various possible interpretations of some of the Greek words, the author decides that "And the Word was with God" means "And understanding stood for God," *i. e.*, took the place of God. His final summing up of the first two verses which, in connection with his conclusion that Christ was not the Son of God in any exclusive sense, gives the keynote to his interpretation of the Gospels, runs as follows: "According to the announcement of bliss made by Jesus Christ, the understanding of life was the foundation and the beginning of all things. The understanding of life took the place of God, the understanding of life was God. According to the announcement of Jesus Christ, it became the foundation and beginning of everything instead of God."

Thus the author proceeds to examine the verses which follow, quoting the interpretation of the Church at length when necessary, furnishing his version in a column parallel with the accepted text when he differs from it, citing Reuss generally in partial support only of his views, discussing Greek words in their nicest shades of difference, and summing up episodes by a series of "general remarks." With this method, some repetition is inevitable. In pursuance of his plan of fusing the four Gospels into one, Count Tolstoi does not take his texts successively from the same chapter or even from the same Gospel, but considers them in the order which he attributes to them in the narrative of Christ's life, or as they bear upon or illustrate his topic; for his new Gospel is, to some extent, topical.

After this summary of his general plan, I may proceed to give detached specimens to illustrate the author's ideas on various interesting points, without seeking to connect them by the complete train of the argument. For instance: "Understanding is God; consequently, to become the son of God means to become the son of understanding. What is meant by *son?* In the third verse it is stated that all that was made (was born) was made by (or born of) understanding. What is born is a son, hence all of us are sons of understanding, and, therefore, what does it mean to become the son of understanding? Verse 4 furnishes the answer to this. It says that life lies in the power of the understanding. And therefore the sonship of the understanding has a double signification: one natural—that all are sons of understanding—and another depending upon the will of men, upon their acknowledgment of the dependence of their life upon understanding." Verse 18, which says, "No man hath seen God at any time," he uses as a final argument against Christ's divinity. "We cannot speak of a God who does not understand; there can be no other God than the one which is revealed by the Son of God—the understanding of life, if it consists in understanding. . . . The Son means life—the living man—as stated in the third verse, 'All that was born was born of understanding,' and in verse 4, which says, 'In him was life.' *The only begotten Son* means *the same as the Father; which is in the bosom of the Father* means that life, the living man, which is in the bosom (*i. e.*, which does not depart from understanding, blending with it), only points out the way to him, but does not reveal him." The general deduction is, that, "All that we know about God we know because we have understanding. And hence, the true beginning of everything is understanding." "The source of life—understanding—was in all the world, and in every living man. But living men, who were alive only because reason was in them, did not comprehend that they came forth from understanding."

Such being the foundation of the structure, it is natural that the author should speak of Christ's birth and baptism in terms which could never be approved by any church or state. The verses describing the descent of the Holy Ghost at the baptism speak, he says, "of a miracle, a supernatural and incomprehensible occurrence. These verses add nothing to the doctrine, but, on the contrary, they obscure it." His attitude on the subject of the miracles may be gathered from his remarks on that performed at the marriage in Cana of Galilee: "This occurrence, thus minutely described, is one of the most instructive passages in the Gospels—instructive as an example of the harm done by accepting literally the so-called canonical Gospels, as something sacred. The occurrence in Cana of Galilee offers nothing either interesting, or instructive, or noteworthy in any way. If it is a miracle, it has no sense; if it is a juggler's trick, it is insulting; if it is a picture of manners and customs, it is unnecessary." In some cases, he directs that the accounts of miracles be printed in small type, as an appendix, if at all.

All these heresies sink into insignificance, however, in the presence of the change which he makes in verses 38-39 of the eleventh chapter of Luke: "And when the Pharisee saw it, he marvelled that he had not first washed before dinner. And the Lord said unto him, Now do ye Pharisees make clean the outside of the cup and the platter, but your inward part is full of ravening and wickedness." For *Pharisee*, Count Tolstoi substitutes *pravoslávny*, which is the word for a Greek Orthodox Christian. He makes the same change in the parable of the "two men who went up to the temple to pray, the one a Greek Orthodox Christian, the other a sinner; and the member of the Greek Church thanked God that he was not as other men are," and so forth. Personally, I do not agree with Count Tolstoi on this point. The average of hypocrites is much the same in Russia as in other countries, I should say; and the truly devout, who are by no means rare, while believing firmly in a church in general and in their own church in particular, are remarkably liberal towards other faiths, and not given to thanking God that they are not as others. I think that if *church-member* had been substituted for *Pharisee* and *publican*, it would have expressed the author's meaning more fully, since he does not believe in the necessity for any churches whatever, and quotes the Gospels as his authority. Even in that less personal form, however, it could hardly be expected to meet with approbation from the authorities, although in expounding the texts he restores the original words. In illustration of the manner in which he differs from the Church on almost every point, I may cite his opinion that Christ's words to Nicodemus about being born again are to be understood in directly the contrary way. "There is no sense," he says, "in understanding that a man must strive to be born from above and of the spirit; but that every man, because he is a man, is already and inevitably born of the spirit. . . . It must be borne in mind that all these appellations—(1) God, (2) Spirit, (3) Son of God, (4) Son of Man, (5) light, (6) understanding—have one and the same meaning, and are employed according to the relations in which they stand to the subjects under discussion. As the beginning of all things, it is God; as opposed to the flesh, it is Spirit; as related to its sources, it is the Son of God; in its revelation, it is the Son of Man; in conformity with the reason, it is light and understanding."

I will now turn to the Sermon on the Mount, which, as the readers of Count Tolstoi's later works are already aware, is, in his opinion, a summary of all Christian Law. To the rendering "Blessed are the poor in spirit" he emphatically objects. Had Christ referred to meekness, he would have said so clearly, he declares, and he argues from the Greek that the word used really signifies a beggar, a homeless vagabond, but without the scornful meaning which is attached to that expression; hence, in the first place, it is impossible to say "vagabonds in spirit"; and, in the second place, it is impossible because the whole Gospel teaches that we must elevate the spirit, live by the spirit; and, in the third place, Matthew says *blessed*, in general, are the pure in spirit, and then there are added the blessings flowing from this state of bliss. Among them, thirsting after righteousness is in no wise compatible with the conception of meekness. Even if the idea of thirst for righteousness does not contradict the idea of meekness, still it by no means springs from it. In the fourth place, all the blessings which follow must evidently be explained as arising from the first, because to the first blessing only are added the words, "for theirs is the kingdom of heaven." But the conceptions, *those that hunger after righteousness, the merciful, the pure in heart*, do not spring from the idea of meekness. In the fifth place, the rewards promised to the qualities enumerated are incompatible with the con-

ception of meekness. *They shall see God, they shall inherit the earth, they shall be called the sons of God.* "From this it is plain that the translation *meekness* is entirely incorrect and impossible; that these two words in their connection have no meaning. . . . According to Luke, Jesus says: Blessed be *ye poor*, for yours is the Kingdom of God." (This is the English rendering. In the Slavic, which Count Tolstoi habitually quotes, it stands *poor in spirit.* But the word which he employs here—without reference to his authority—is *wanderer, vagabond.*) "John was a beggar, a vagabond. Jesus was a wanderer all his life. And Jesus teaches that riches cannot enter the Kingdom of God, that we must renounce everything, and so forth; and the whole of the Sermon on the Mount treats of hardly anything else." Tolstoi also calls "Blessed are the merciful, the pure in heart, the peacemakers," obscure in meaning, and he notes that the Sermon begins with "Blessed are the *wanderers*," and ends in an injunction not to amass wealth, but to live as live the birds and the flowers of the field. "The words 'Blessed are ye poor wanderers, for yours is the Kingdom of God,' are no flowers of sentimental eloquence, like the words 'blessed are the pure in spirit,' and so on, according to Matthew, but a terrible idea for people who recognize that fine state of society which they have arranged for themselves, and the truth, full of joy, for all the unfortunate." In short, "ye are already in the Kingdom of God, because ye are poor wanderers. The Kingdom of God is open, accessible to the poor man, and closed against the rich man."

Such are the fundamental ideas of Count Tolstoi's interpretation of the Gospels. I am not sufficiently versed in the niceties of theology to be able to decide to which of the numerous sects these ideas most nearly approach. They are not unknown to the world as ideas, or as the special ideas of this gifted Russian author. It is not worth while to take up his whole combined version of the Gospels in detail. The denial of divinity to Christ involves certain views as to other portions of the narrative which the reader can easily foresee, while the various forms assumed by the cult of poverty at various epochs of the Christian era are familiar to all students of history. It is not in the novelty of his ideas that the objection lies, but in the fact that, in a land where Church and State are so closely united, he preaches the abolition of the Church (for that is what his interpretation of the Lord's Prayer is equivalent to). The meaning of this prayer, he says, is: "When ye pray, forgive, if ye have aught against any man, that your Father in heaven may also forgive your trespasses. But if ye forgive not, your Father which is in heaven will not forgive your trespasses. This," he continues, "is what should take the place of prayer. These words have no other meaning, but, as it has happened in many and many a case with the teachings of Jesus, the very words which he uses to reject all negative prayer have been taken, with slight and obscure additions, as a form of supplicatory prayer. How is it possible to say more clearly that it is not necessary to pray? The temple of sacrifice had been destroyed; it had been said: Not sacrifice is required, but love among yourselves; it had been said: God is a spirit, and we must work for him in deed and in spirit. Moreover, as though foreseeing how obstinately men would cling to prayer, he says plainly: 'Pray not in words. All prayer must consist in a desire for the Kingdom of God and the fulfilment of his rules, and all rules in not regarding any one as guilty, but in loving and forgiving all men.' And what comes of it? These very words in which he rejects prayer are taken for a prayer."

In short, while rejecting Christ's divinity, prayer, and nearly everything else which goes to make up Christianity in the general acceptation of the term, one can hardly refuse to Count Tolstoi the title of a Christian, since he holds by the two doctrines which Christ undoubtedly did teach more than all others, namely, poverty and love to one's neighbor. His preaching, therefore, is identical with the teachings of every church and sect, with the conclusions which any one may reach by reading the Gospels intelligently in their ordinary form. If, as is well known, the author is prevented by force of circumstances from putting one portion of his brief creed into as perfect practice as he would like, it is not for wealthy and warring churches to condemn him absolutely; although a due regard to circumstances, and to the danger of rebellious spirits accepting permission for him to publish his unconventional views as a license to them to reject even his valuable doctrines, must, necessarily, require that his utterances shall be kept from those whom they might harm and incite to other institutions closely allied to the Church. It is not likely that all readers would be moved almost to tears at the very name of Christ, as the author is.

ISABEL F. HAPGOOD.

Correspondence.

THE CAMPAIGN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is not an easy matter to retain one's sanity in the midst of an exciting political campaign, and to judge of its ultimate importance as moderately as if we occupied the position of our grandchildren with respect to it; but after divesting myself as thoroughly as possible of everything that would tend to increase unreasonably my sense of the importance of the present contest, I am compelled to admit that it contains two elements that promise to make it memorable for many years to come.

Experience will prove, I think, that we may date from this year the general acceptance of the tariff problem as an issue of overwhelming importance in American politics. The contest of 1884 was fought on a totally distinct line, and in previous contests the attitudes of the two parties were but imperfectly distinguished. I say this without regard to the outcome of the present election. If the worse comes to pass, and Mr. Harrison is elected, the lines are still fixed on which the canvass four years hence must be made. It is quite possible that, despite the fact that there has been a constant spread of sound ideas on this question, the popular mind may not be yet ready for decisive action. But the value of a campaign of the present kind in bringing home to the consciousness of the people the reality of great public questions, in awakening them to see that their dearest interests are affected by a policy which has been perpetuated for an altogether different reason from that which led to its adoption, and that the plea for the continuance of the protective system has been slowly changing for twenty years, until a temporary burden has become a perpetual and sacred charge—the value of such a campaign is, I say, incalculable. The fact is plain that the intricacy of our tariff laws, the difficulty surrounding the subject both in its practical and its theoretical aspects, the remoteness in which its workings have been studiously obscured, and the distrust that men naturally feel of figures which are made to serve both sides indifferently, have all contributed to lengthen the life of the protective system. But the moment that we realize that protection is a policy for which we are paying a recklessly extravagant price, that it is not a thing of distant, but of the most immediate concern to the humblest among us, its life is doomed. Popular realization of this fact, to the degree of making itself actively felt in a political campaign, we may, I think, date from the President's message of December last.

The change which has, as one of its effects, crystallized public sentiment upon the tariff question, involves a still larger and more important result. Thoughtful men for the last fifteen years have remarked that our politics have become steadily further removed from the real intellectual life of the nation. The energy of the entire nation has been more and more diverted from all objects of thought and reflection; our newspapers, more closely connected with politics than with the deeper and truer currents of national life, have encouraged the same mercenary spirit. I dare say our people have never seen the time when there was in public life less of patriotic spirit, less of commanding intelligence, than during this period. But while the manufacturer, the railroader, and the adventurer were holding high carnival in high places, the spirit was silently gathering before which the noxious growth was bound to disappear. The Administration of President Cleveland, with a strong and intelligent sentiment at his back, is the first decisive witness of the presence of this new power in the field, the first indication that the money idea has been, for once, humbled. Our politics, in a word, are beginning once more to feel the effect of ideas; the college, the university, science, and speculation are beginning once more to connect themselves closely with the general life of the nation. The change is slow and painful; it is not a march of uninterrupted victory—the forces of conservatism, of prejudice, of ignorance, dispute its advance stubbornly. But where victory will rest in the long run, no one who has observed the history of the human spirit can long doubt.

The opportuneness of President Cleveland, the completeness with which he meets the peculiar circumstances of the time, is remarkable. Had his appearance been premature, his bold stand for ideas would have evoked no response; had he come too late, he would have found no place. But he came at a time when the new spirit was just entering public life, when passions had cooled and thought grown sober—a man whom the new spirit had found a ready and capable servant, and who both served and fostered it. The tact with which he embraced the opportunity to unite and enthuse the Democratic party, and by which, at a single stroke, he elevated the tone of practical politics, might almost be called genius.

A change of this kind will soon affect the character of our statesmen, and in that event the vocation of a man like Mr. Blaine is gone. I do not say that he will lose his hold because people believe him corrupt in the sense that he is open to bribes, or has been so at any time of his career; but I do say that in a public life demanding sound ideas, liberal equipment, statesmanlike bearing, a man like Mr. Blaine—I use him as a type—who has instead of ideas, prejudices, instead of statesmanship, "politics," instead of sincerity, plausibility, instead of reason, bugaboos, can have no place. That he feels without comprehending the nature of the change, his pitiful floundering since his return from Europe abundantly proves; and I am inclined to believe that he has already lost something of his hold on his party managers, who

see clearly his inability to meet the situation without perceiving that the reason is that a man of quite different stamp is required. The entire condition of the Republican party—without purpose, without ideas, hopelessly divided within itself, its sole safety in the efficacy of a "scare"—illustrates again how utterly inadequate tradition and machinery must always be to maintain a party as a living and moving organism; how essential it is to our safety as a nation that thought, knowledge, ideas, have free and easy play among us.

The tariff question is not, indeed, a question such as corresponds to and animates a nation at its most fertile epoch. But it happens at the present time to derive additional importance from its peculiar connection with many new difficulties, the proper solution of which bears closely on the most subtle principles of our political organization. In large terms, therefore, the issue is not between free trade and protection, or a revenue tariff and protection. The question is, Are we as a nation to cut loose from the intellectual life of mankind, and still longer to subsist on the memories of the war? Are we willing to fasten on our central Government a species of paternal authority? The re-election of President Cleveland may not settle for ever these fantastic notions; it may not, it cannot, permanently transform the atmosphere of public life. But it will propel us one step further towards that generous ideal, and give the vantage ground at least to the right. F.

Louisville, Ky., September 14, 1888.

SPECIALIZATION FOR LIBRARIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The desirability of specialization and coöperation in library administration seems to be not sufficiently recognized by donors and trustees. Our libraries act for the most part independently, and enlarge their collections without systematic reference to each other. It thus happens that a specialist finds his material only after painful search, scattered unsystematically in libraries all over the country. No library in this age can be complete at all points; it must specialize in some single department. Indeed, the full literature of a single department is quite beyond the reach of any one library; and by complete in any one line we must understand a good working library, satisfactory to the special student and original investigator, as embracing all works which are really additions to the department. Such a complete library for zoölogy alone would cost, as estimated for me by competent authorities, from $100,000 to $150,000. A complete library for all branches is thus only possible for any large section of country through the systematic coöperative specialization in a large number of the most important libraries in that section. We may look for the founding of certain complete libraries, as, for instance, an art library in connection with an art institute, or a medical library in connection with a medical college; but still for literature, learning, and science in general we must look to this coöperative specialization by our general libraries, public and collegiate, to give the complete and accessible collections so urgently demanded.

The ideal library, and one quite possible to realize, is one in which the student, by consulting the bibliography of his subject, would understand by a system of checks what portion of the literature is immediately available, and also what is accessible in other libraries. Further, by a system of interchange, corresponding libraries might, within certain limits, draw books from each other for certain classes of patrons, specially for original investigators and literary men. Hiram M. Stanley,

Librarian Lake Forest University.

Notes.

Professor James Bryce's long-expected work, 'The American Commonwealth,' is on the list of the fall announcements of Macmillan & Co. Other significant issues are an edition of Wordsworth's Complete Poetical Works, with an introductory essay by John Morley, and an unpublished poem of considerable length; 'Letters of Keats,' edited by Sidney Colvin; 'Letters of Thomas Carlyle, 1826–1836,' edited by Prof. C. E. Norton; 'William George Ward, and the Oxford Movement,' by Wilfrid Ward; 'Thomas Poole and his Friends,' by Mrs. Sandford; 'The Works of Edward Fitzgerald,' with a memoir, edited by W. Aldis Wright; a second series of 'Essays in Criticism,' by Matthew Arnold; a new volume of Essays by Prof. Huxley: 'A History of English Literature in the Eighteenth Century,' by Edmund Gosse; 'Night and Day Poems,' by Arthur Symons; 'Walpole,' by John Morley: 'A Tour in Holland and Germany,' by the Rev. J. P. Mahaffy; 'Roman Mosaics; or, Studies in Rome and its Neighborhood,' by the Rev. Hugh Macmillan; 'Coaching Days and Coaching Ways,' by W. Outram Tristram; 'Wild Beasts and their Ways in Asia, Africa, America, 1845–1888,' by Sir Samuel Baker; 'An Investigation of the Principles of Athenian Architecture,' by Francis C. Penrose and W. W. Lloyd; 'A History of the Later Roman Empire, 395–800,' by John B. Bury; 'Montelius's Swedish Civilization in Heathen Times,' by the Rev. F. H. Woods; 'The Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood,' by W. Holman Hunt; 'Two Chapters of Irish History,' by T. Dunbar Ingram; 'Tables of Income and Expenditure,' by Wm. Lloyd Birkbeck; 'The Lives of the Fathers' and 'The Bible: What It Is and What It Is Not,' by Archdeacon Farrar, and the following novels: 'The Aspern Papers, etc.' by Henry James; 'The Countess Eve,' by J. H. Shorthouse; 'Beechcroft at Rockstone,' by Charlotte M. Yonge; 'The Weaker Vessel,' by D. Christie Murray; 'Kophetua the Thirteenth,' by Julian Corbett.

Harper & Bros. will shortly publish 'Shoshone, and Other Western Wonders,' by Edwards Roberts.

'The Dramatic Year, 1887–1888,' a work by several writers, is in the press of Ticknor & Co., Boston.

'Wit and Humor; Their Use and Abuse,' by Prof. William Mathews, is announced for immediate publication by S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago.

Ginn & Co. announce a 'Hand-book of Arithmetic,' by G. C. Schultz. They are to be the American publishers of the London *Classical Review*, in the editorship of which American scholars will be hereafter associated.

An edition of Freytag's 'Die Journalisten,' edited by Walter D. Toy, Professor of Modern Languages in the University of North Carolina, is to be issued soon by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, together with Goethe's 'Torquato Tasso,' edited by Calvin Thomas, Professor of Germanic Languages at the University of Michigan.

A new and largely revised and rewritten edition of the 'United States Dispensatory' is nearly ready to be issued by J. B. Lippincott Co. The 'National Formulary' has been incorporated with it.

Mr. W. J. Ashley's 'Introduction to English Economic History and Theory,' which we lately had occasion to praise in these columns, has just been reissued in this country with the imprint of G. P. Putnam's Sons. From the same publishers we have 'Readings from Washington Irving,' quarried from the 'Sketch-Book' and the 'Alhambra'; a so-called "Katrina Edition" of the 'Sketch-Book,' with a dainty exterior; 'The Rose and the Ring,' in the "Nuggets Series," with Thackeray's illustrations, and a holiday edition of Misses Brackett & Eliot's 'Poetry for Home and School,' having 'The Silver Treasury' for its new trade title. This last work has been given broader margins, particolored borders, a handsome binding, and somewhat heterogeneous illustrations. The collection is an excellent one—to be criticised, if at all, in the most juvenile portion of it, which the compilers themselves felt to be of necessity the least satisfactory.

Harry M. Kieffer's 'Recollections of a Drummer-Boy' (Ticknor & Co.) has hit the popular taste to the extent of a sixth edition, now published in improved style and with a slight enlargement.

Judgments will differ as to how far Mrs. Burnett's amusing story of 'Editha's Burglar' can properly be styled "for children." It has, however, been offered them once more, in book form (Boston: Jordan, Marsh & Co.), and it is made more "real" by illustrations, and among these the portrait of a little girl who acts the part of Editha—"the original Editha," she is called.

One is surprised to learn, or to be reminded, that the late Edward Lear began his "nonsense" as far back as 1846. Now we have all four of his 'Nonsense Books' brought together in one volume, with all the illustrations, and with a capital portrait of the author, by Roberts Bros., Boston. It is fit to be a permanent memorial of a type of humorist, with pen and pencil, as delightful as he was original. The obituary notice copied from the *Saturday Review* gives welcome biographical details, revealing Mr. Lear in his own eccentric personality, as a landscape artist, and an ardent traveller to whom Tennyson, in his lines "To E. L. on his Travels in Greece," has accorded an immortality of musical verse like that which Browning confers on "Waring." This volume should be marked on every parental list for the holidays.

The new 'Worcester's Academic Dictionary,' published by J. B. Lippincott Co., has taken advantage of the most recent authorities on etymologies, in particular of Skeat and the 'New English Dictionary.' In the rather sparing illustrations, natural history has received more than its share of attention. Such familiar things, too, as a crown, a mallet, a screen, etc., might well have been omitted. New words have been pretty well looked after. We miss *boycott*, and the verb *to wire* (=to telegraph), though we have *to cable*. The typography is not as handsome as that of 'Webster's Condensed Dictionary,' but it is at least tolerable to the eyes.

A welcome tool is the 'Index to Appleton's Annual Cyclopædia' for the twelve volumes, 1876–1887. The compiler has been needlessly brief in making the entry—"Obituaries, in every volume." It should have been mentioned that the subjects of these obituaries are to be found in the main alphabet of this Index. We think it would be well to indicate this by an obelisk.

No. 8 of the papers of the New York Shakespeare Society, upon 'The Construction and Types of Shakespeare's Verse as seen in the Othello,' by Thomas R. Price, is an excellent examination of the metrical character of

Shakspere's dramatic verse, not only in the "Othello," which is used merely as an example, but in all the plays. The unit is made the stave, as it has been defined by Dr. Guest in English metres and by Dr. Schmidt in classical metres; and by using this as the basis of analysis, Shakspere's most difficult verses are found to be regular. The insufficiency of the foot as a unit of structure in English poetry is notorious, and the substitution of the stave in its place is really a great gain as a means of reducing the harmonies of verse, as they exist in our greatest poets, to law. Dr. Price is brief and orderly in his treatment, and his study may be regarded as a valuable monograph in a field usually abandoned to incompetency.

Thos. Y. Crowell & Co. have added three new works by Victor Hugo to the translations from his writings now in course of publication by them: 'Notre Dame de Paris,' 'The Toilers of the Sea,' and 'Ninety-three,' each in two volumes. Last year they issued 'Les Misérables,' in five volumes, in the same series. 'Ninety-three' is translated by Mrs. Helen B. Dole, but all the others are the work of Miss Isabel Hapgood, whose conscientious faithfulness in rendering into English Victor Hugo's extravagantly heroic conceptions and language in 'Les Misérables,' has not deserted her in the two translations more recently published. The difficulties are so great in translating any work of Victor Hugo's into another language that both Miss Hapgood and Mrs. Dole are deserving of praise for making such vigorous and faithful versions in such an acceptable English form.

Geo. Routledge & Sons have published an English translation of M. Alphonse Daudet's 'Robert Helmont,' in an octavo volume, upon which they have lavished all the luxury of large print and thick paper, broad margins and profuse illustations. The translation is good, though, as might have been expected, the sparkling effervescence of Daudet's inimitable style is not attempted in the translator's easy and flowing narrative. This is sufficiently satisfactory, however, as this 'Diary of a Recluse'—Robert Helmont is a young artist detained by an accident in a deserted village not far from Paris, and concealed there during the siege—is written in Daudet's most subdued manner. The translation is by Laura Ensor, and the illustrations, those of the last French edition, by Montégut and Picard.

Mr. H. N. Fowler of Harvard University has contributed to the "College Series of Greek Authors" an edition of the fifth book of Thucydides (Boston: Ginn & Co.). Like the editions of the other books, so far as they have appeared, it is based upon Classen. But the entire freedom which the present editor, as well as his predecessors, has allowed himself in the revision of Classen's notes, and the extent to which he has drawn upon other editions and the researches of other and in some cases more recent scholars, renders him responsible and entitles him to credit for the whole. We have so recently reviewed in detail the editions of the fifth and seventh books that it is only necessary to add that the same general plan is carried out in this, and gives renewed assurance that the completion of the whole series will put us in possession of one of the most useful and scholarly editions of Thucydides that have appeared in this country or Europe.

We commend to teachers another text-book in a class abounding in poor ones, the 'Eclectic Physical Geography,' prepared by Russell Hinman, and published in Cincinnati by Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co. The scheme of this work is very rational, and the presentation attractive, and there is a marked absence of rubbish. The publishers have, as usual, done their part admirably: type, paper, and illustrations are excellent.

Chas. Scribner's Sons have issued a folio 'Citizen's Atlas of American Politics, 1789–1888,' the timely embodiment of electoral, tariff, and population statistics in colored maps and graphic charts, by Fletcher W. Hewes, author of 'Scribner's Statistical Atlas of the United States,' from which a certain number of plates have been borrowed. This work offers endless study to the curious, at the same time that it presents compactly and strikingly the salient features of our political and economic progress. The maps of the successive Presidential elections since 1824 will arouse a particular interest at this time. Two, on the largest scale, show the popular vote by counties (numbered for reference and comparison) for 1880 and 1884. Others exhibit the leading foreign nationalities. The charts deal with receipts and expenditures, balance of trade, customs revenue, importations, prices, wages, cost of living, etc. The explanations are creditably clear and ample, and authorities are scrupulously named.

Miss Kate Sanborn is, we believe, first in the field with a calendar—"The Rainbow" (Ticknor & Co.). Its daily leaves are freighted with extracts from all sorts of authors and styles. But where in her "Milton" did Miss Sanborn (under January 7) find the stanza—

"Let fate do her worst, there are relics of joy,"

etc.?

The Richmond and Twickenham *Times* of August 4 contains a full account of the recent two hundredth-anniversary celebration of the birth of Pope, which was most remarkable because of the fine loan-collection of articles relating to the poet. This consisted of rare editions, portraits, caricatures, autograph letters, early manuscript-notes, furniture, ware, etc., and is fully described in the catalogue, which can easily be procured by post. Prof. Morley delivered a long and eulogistic address, in which he took the most favorable view of Pope's infirmities. There was a water-fête on the river, which was unfortunately interfered with by the bad weather of the season. The celebration lasted through an entire week, and its promoters seem to deserve congratulations for their energy and success. At the same time the British Museum exhibited a smaller collection of similar curiosities. This issue of the local newspaper is filled with excellent articles upon Pope's relations with his publishers and with women, on the costumes of the time, and other matters of similar interest, and is adorned with wood-cuts of Pope, his mother, Martha Blount, Swift, and others—among them Austin Dobson and the principal promoters of the enterprise—as well as with pictures of the grotto and the villa. It is in itself an interesting relic of the occasion.

Mr. S. S. Rider, in his *Book-Notes* for September 15 (Providence), explodes once more what he calls "the perennial pig story"—the war of 1812 having long been popularly assigned (with more or less seriousness) to a dispute between two Providence citizens over a trespassing pig. This story last appeared in *St. Nicholas* for July.

The most noteworthy paper in the September Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society is an account of the Little Andaman by Maurice Portman. This island, the southernmost of the group of this name in the Bay of Bengal, is interesting from the fact that it has remained from time immemorial (till very recently absolutely) shut off from intercourse with the rest of the world, the natives invariably killing every stranger who fell into their hands. Mr. Portman, having succeeded in winning their confidence, was at length, in 1886, permitted to spend a few months among them. He describes them as "probably the most intensely black race in the world," though "they have none of the thick lips, high cheek-bones, and flat noses of the negro type." He was not able to discover that they had any religion whatever, nor could he learn of any traditions or superstitions. "Among themselves they are most gentle and good-natured, holding most things as common property; theft is almost unknown, and towards each other they seldom lie. With a strict monogamic system of marriage, infidelity and all attendant crimes were very rare." They are, according to Prof. Flower, "probably the purest examples still remaining of one of the large branches of the human race which, according to the modern view, was at one time widely spread over the southern portion of India, the Malay Peninsula, the Indian Archipelago, and New Guinea," and by some regarded as the original population.

The last Bulletin of the Société de Géographie is devoted to the French navigator, La Pérouse, the centenary of whose death was celebrated by the Society in April. It contains the papers read on this occasion, an account of his private life by his grand-nephew, of his voyages by M. de Courcel, and a description of the manner in which the relics of the expedition were found at Vanikoro, an island some distance north of New Caledonia, by Vice-Admiral Paris. There are also various documents relating to his last expedition and its personnel. Among these are extracts from a journal kept by La Pérouse while in command of the *Amazone*, then forming a part of the fleet of D'Estaing, in which he describes his capture of the British frigate *Ariel* off Charleston, September 10, 1779. There are also given some "Notes," found in the papers of M. Barthélemy de Lesseps, father of the great engineer, who was sent by La Pérouse from Kamtchatka across Siberia with despatches, and so escaped the fate of his commander. A bibliography of works and papers relating to the navigator or his expedition which have appeared down to the present time, prepared by M. G. Marcel, contains 386 numbers.

—The October *Harper's* special article is a survey of the Western and Southwestern press, with many portraits of editors, by Z. L. White. It gives a brief account of the history of particular papers, and naturally makes prominent the most startling successes of Western journalism and the careers of the most enterprising editors. It is observable that the ideal of the newspaper, as a history of the world for one day, which puts news in the first place and hardly takes account of editorial opinion, dominates the development of journalism; that the press, generally speaking, has tended towards independence of political parties; and that something like a copartnership between great papers of different cities points to still greater simplifying of the business of news-gathering, and to more uniformity in the matter given in different areas of circulation. The physiognomy of the faces shows a marked predominance of the Yankee type, and exhibits in nearly all a nervous strength, determination, and a certain concentration, the marks of work done. They are interesting for comparison with the series of authors lately given, or those of the generals with which the *Century* has provided us in such numbers. They approach the type of "business men," and from the literary standpoint this is a noticeable fact. Another prominent article is a very full account of the arts of Limoges, especially that

of the Haviland porcelain, which, as an American enterprise established on foreign soil, has a curious interest. In this case it was the employer who exported himself, instead of importing labor and material. A better illustration of the vast advantages, in competition with European labor, enjoyed by American talents and methods, could hardly be desired. The mechanical processes in making the ware are amply illustrated. The more ancient art of enamelling also receives attention in the paper. Dr. Coan's advice upon how to use the various native and foreign mineral waters at home is a valuable medical article, and covers a wide field with clear and explicit directions. The remainder of the number is filled with travel and fiction of the ordinary kind, and is noticeable only for the batch of old English songs with Abbey's illustrations, which break the solid body of the magazine and give a lighter appearance to the pages.

—If readers turn at once to the paper of ex-Secretary McCulloch in the *Scribner's*, neglecting the other attractions of an unusually good issue, they will find a very noteworthy essay upon the state of the country. The three vital problems before us as a business community are said to be the decay of shipbuilding, the tariff, and the extension of our foreign markets. The history of our trade and revenue with respect to these points is broadly told, and the present conditions affecting them succinctly stated, so that the reader is put in possession at once of the facts and of their bearing. The conclusions drawn are explicit and very trenchantly worded. Mr. McCulloch insists that our policy with respect to ships is barbarous, and will necessarily debar us from being a commercial nation if persisted in; and he argues that no nation ever has been or ever will be great which was not first commercial. As to the tariff, his views are well known, but they have never been so forcibly put forth, and seldom do we have a broad discussion which keeps so close to the plain facts of the situation. He deals also with two other main questions, that of the taxation of land according to Henry George's theories, and that of naturalization and manhood-suffrage for cities. The first of these is approached in a temperate manner, but with steady, destructive criticism. He will not admit that the land which the Western pioneers overcame was the gift of God in the sense of being a free gift, nor does he rate its value in the mass as higher than that of the labor expended upon it; and from this initial position he argues to the conclusion that land should be most lightly taxed, with passing remarks upon socialistic hopes and human nature which may be recommended as a sobering draught to those who feel the great attractions of the millennium. Finally, he regrets the granting of the suffrage to the foreign-born, and advises property qualification for municipal voting. These latter positions, however, are not argued, and can rank only as expressions of opinion. The article should have a wide currency, because it deals with real questions ably and in an entirely frank spirit. Readers will find for themselves the charm of Lester Wallack's reminiscences, which are admirably recorded, and promise yet better things to come. Of Prof. Hadley's fine article upon the relation of railroads to business, and of the other lesser papers, all excellent, we have left no room to speak. The number is one with which the editors may well be proud to close the second year of the magazine.

—The fourth volume of Stedman and Hutchinson's 'Library of American Literature' (Chas. L. Webster & Co.) confirms our previously expressed opinion of this work, viz., that it is a selection marked by essentially sound judgment and a praiseworthy plan. The politico-historical value of it when completed will be very considerable, as will also its educational influence if the edition reaches the figures to which we are accustomed in the case of successful subscription books. In order to be both generally and individually representative, some matter has been admitted which is of little worth from a literary point of view. The verse of such masters of prose as J. Q. Adams and Daniel Webster might be cited for examples. And speaking of Adams, we could wish that the editors had extracted some of that "natural and spontaneous eloquence" the lack of which in himself the "old man eloquent" so unjustly deplored. So we should have liked to see some of Alexander Hamilton's letters drawn upon. This statesman has his character delineated by Fisher Ames, Harrison Gray Otis, and Eliphalet Nott. Fisher Ames and John Marshall pronounce upon Washington, and William Sullivan describes our first President's receptions in a manner which forcibly reminds us of time's changes towards democratic simplicity. The veracious Weems's anecdotes of the Father of his Country have a new lease of life not undeserved by this clergyman's happy knack of telling a story. Of other biographical touches by contemporaries, we may mention Joel Barlow and Elkanah Watson on Thomas Paine, William Wirt on Patrick Henry, and Webster's portraits of Theophilus Parsons and Thomas Jefferson. Webster, Lyman Beecher, and Hannah Adams speak of and for themselves. The Expounder of the Constitution is well represented except at his basest.

—A timely interest pertains to the extract from Josiah Quincy's speech on the struggle for patronage (1811), and to that from Mathew Carey describing the dreadful demoralization caused by the outbreak of yellow fever in Philadelphia in 1793. A large portion of William Austin's 'Peter Rugg,' the New England Wandering Jew, is reproduced, and shows no marks of fading. William Tudor's character of the Bostonians is also fitly revived, and can be commended for instruction, especially in what relates to their coldly critical attitude towards oratory. We are much mistaken if this does not, in connection with the general enlightenment of the community, account in large measure for the incomparable line of orators which the Massachusetts capital can boast. Most curious of all the entertaining contents we have found Royall Tyler's diatribe in 1809 against certain cant English expressions. Almost every one that he specifies has held its own to this day—not in *frequency* of use, to be sure, but still in use and in intelligibility, *e. g.*, "all the rage," "quiz," "quizzical," "bore," and "horrid bore," "I owe you one," "That's a good one," and "clever" and "clever fellow." "Clever," says Tudor, was "not used by any English prose writer of eminence until the reign of George the Third, nor ever introduced into a serious poem until adopted by Cowper." Its American sense, of 'good-natured,' "which signification is sanctioned by Bailey's and the elder English dictionaries," is preferred by Tudor to the English sense of 'skilful, adroit.' But eighty years have ended a very general prevalence here, at least in cultivated circles, of the foreign usage of this "pert adjunct." Tyler's portrait, by the way, together with Brockden Brown's, Barlow's, and many others, adorns the volume.

—Mr. Richard A. Proctor's untimely death is lamentable on every consideration. Born in 1837, with a constitution of insufficient vigor to support an exceptionally active mind, he had still reason for looking forward to a quarter century of literary work, continually improving in quality with the ripening of his scholarship and literary judgment. Nothing shows this better than his 'Old and New Astronomy,' of which nearly the half is already issued. It is by far the best of Mr. Proctor's works; and all his previous labors—books, lectures, essays—were, he says, merely preparatory for it. It is gratifying to learn that his death is not likely to interfere with the completion of this book, as he leaves the MS. far advanced, if not entirely in hand. It is hardly possible to mark the limit of the scientific good such a man has done, and would have continued to do. That he wrote much trash, no one will deny; but he wrote a vast deal that was not, and any one caring for a just estimate of his life must form a critical judgment of this also. Few scientific authors have had so large an audience, and few have, we imagine, all told, contributed more than he to the correct information of the multitude in matters scientific. He had little respect for mere authority, and would as unhesitatingly attack the statements of the greatest astronomer as he would expose the error of an unpretending amateur. As a consequence, he made frequent exhibition of the blunders of others. Not that he never made mistakes himself—only drones are exempt from such misfortunes; but his mistakes are few in proportion to his activity.

—By an unfortunate idiosyncrasy of temperament, Mr. Proctor seems never to have lost an opportunity for controversy; but his grounds were in the main well taken, and still better held, and his assailants were usually worsted. To know something of the extent and variety of his contributions to astronomical literature, one has simply to consult Houzeau's 'Bibliographie Générale de l'Astronomie,' and verify a score or two of the more important references to Proctor's articles. They cover a period of seventeen years, from 1865 on, and number nearly two hundred. This activity has hardly a parallel among astronomers, his papers averaging nearly one to each month, while his writings range through every branch of astronomical investigation, and show a marked fertility of invention and facility of research. One recalls the remark of an eminent German astronomer, that Proctor should "be pinned down to routine work in some large observatory," with the feeling, nevertheless, that his life-work has perhaps been more effective than it would have been in such capacity. His researches into the structure of the stellar and nebular universe have given him a lasting name, and would be no discredit to any astronomer. Much the same might be said of his treatises on 'The Moon' and 'Saturn,' and the large 'Star-Atlas.' Latterly he abandoned original work almost entirely, but appears to have continued his writing under conditions of self-imposed activity. It was often impossible to take needed rest, so active was his mind on every matter which came to his notice. His life was worth a higher value than his brother scientists often set upon it, and we may liken him more to our own Mitchell, who, nearly half a century ago, gave American astronomy an impulse still plainly recognizable if one will, but of which even this subsequent generation is slow to accord him the credit.

—With the publication of volume twenty of the 'Lovsamling for Island' (covering the years 1868 to 1870, inclusive), all the important laws relating to Iceland from the year 1096 to the present time are made easily accessible,

For as regards the period subsequent to 1870, the annual volumes of the *Lovtidende for Kongeriget Danmark*, from and including 1871, when that publication commenced, have embraced, in a supplement, the yearly laws relating to Iceland, the Faroe Islands, and the Danish West Indies. Another volume of the Collection is yet to be published, however, the intention being to bring the series down to 1874, so as to cover the first one thousand years from the discovery of the wonderful island which lies so far away up under the arctic circle, but whose influence upon the political institutions of a large part of the world has been so remarkable. This terminal date is appropriately chosen, also, because in 1874 Iceland entered upon a new political era under the liberal constitution which went into effect on the first day of August of that year—the gift of King Christian IX. of Denmark to the people of Iceland upon their Millennium. The project of a collection of the important laws concerning Iceland originated with the two Icelandic scholars, Oddgeir Stephensen and Jón Sigurdsson, who presented, as far back as January 18, 1845, a memorial asking support from the Danish Government in the preparation and publication of such a work. This aid was granted them some years later, and they jointly edited the first fifteen volumes containing the laws, ordinances, etc., to 1854 inclusive. The two succeeding volumes, for the years 1855 to 1859, were prepared by Sigurdsson alone, and published in 1871 and 1877 respectively. But on December 7, 1879, death cut short the labors of this remarkable man, whose unusual scholarship had made his name familiar to the whole learned world, while his unswerving love for his native country had led him to dedicate his learning and talent solely to the advancement of the honor and welfare of Iceland. This consecration won for him the undying affection of his countrymen, who inscribed upon his coffin in letters of silver: "Iceland's dearest son: her glory, her sword, her shield." Mr. Stephensen again took up the work, and published, in 1884 and 1885, volumes eighteen and nineteen, covering the period from 1860 to 1867; but in 1885 he also was called upon to lay down his pen, after having rendered his country a long and faithful service as chief of the Icelandic Department at Copenhagen. The completion of the work was intrusted by the Danish Government to Mr. Stephensen's official successor, John Hilmar Stephensen, who is assisted by an official in his Bureau, Ólafur Halldórsson, and under their supervision volume twenty appeared last year in Copenhagen. This valuable work is not only of the first importance to the Icelandic jurist of to-day, but is indispensable for the student of the history of Iceland and the Scandinavian North.

TRAILL'S WILLIAM THE THIRD.

William the Third. By H. D. Traill. [Twelve English Statesmen.] Macmillan & Co. 1888.

Mr. Traill's book has not attained its object; it does not provide us with a picture of the Prince of Orange. Mr. Traill is as able a writer as Mr. Frederic Harrison or Mrs. J. R. Green, but he has failed where each of them has succeeded. Mr. Harrison has given, if not a perfect, yet certainly a striking portrait of the Protector. Mrs. Green has made Henry the Second for the first time to ordinary readers a vivid individual human character. Mr. Traill has written much about William which is worth reading, but he leaves us almost as ignorant of William's personality when we have ended the book as when we began it.

This failure of a skilful man of letters to produce a portrait of his hero is noteworthy. The failure does not arise from any lack of power on the part of our author. There seems to be something in William the Third's nature or position which makes it impossible to present Englishmen with an impressive portraiture of a statesman who conferred the greatest benefits on England. In this matter Macaulay has been no more successful than Mr. Traill. No historian knew better how to use strong colors and how to produce the strong effects which catch the public eye. In general he has impressed upon the popular imagination a distinct view of every man whose likeness he traced. Chatham, Pitt, Fox, Hastings, Burke, Hallifax, Johnson, Addison, and a score of others are to English readers known only from Macaulay's vivid descriptions. It is likely enough that as long as English literature endures, Johnson will, for ninety-nine men out of a hundred, remain the Johnson of Macaulay. Critics may show that Macaulay's likenesses were not true to life, but readers who know nothing of (for example) Chatham but what they learn from Macaulay, will always see the great Commoner as he is painted by the great Whig historian. As regards William it is otherwise. The King who expelled James the Second, secured the religious and civil liberty of England, and opened the reign of the Whigs, excited in Macaulay's mind all the enthusiasm and veneration of which the historian was capable. No one can doubt that William is the true hero of that fragment from the 'History of England' which was all that fate allowed its author to complete. One might have expected, therefore, that William the Third would have been drawn by his worshipper in lines as distinct, as marked, and unforgetable as those in which he has sketched Pitt or Johnson. This expectation has been utterly disappointed. From Macaulay we learn William's virtues and William's heroism; we do not learn to know William himself. The Deliverer remains a shadowy figure.

It is possible for Englishmen to know a good deal about William's work, it has not as yet been made possible for them to understand William's heart. If we ask, as any intelligent critic must ask, how it happens that William's personality becomes lost in his achievements, it is by no means easy to provide a satisfactory answer to a natural question. Here, as elsewhere, in attempting to solve historical problems, we must look not for a cause, but for causes. The reasons why William's personality is so much harder to seize than the individual character of any other among the twelve English statesmen whose lives will make up Macmillan's interesting series, are, it may be suggested, at least three-fold.

William, in the first place, though an English statesman, was not an Englishman. This means a good deal more than one thinks at first sight; it means that everything about him which was individual—all the petty traits which made Henry the Eighth, Elizabeth, Anne, or George the Third intelligible to the English people—were, in William's case, either not noticed or misunderstood by his English subjects.

In the second place, he was not only a foreigner, but a foreign diplomatist, whose aims, though beneficial to the world, and in the long run beneficial to England, were not English. To Cromwell, England was everything. He held theoretically that English interests ought to be postponed to the interests of religion or of European Protestantism; but he would have found it impossible to believe that any act conduced to the service of God which clearly was hostile to the greatness of England. With William it was otherwise. As a patriot he was not an Englishman, but a Dutchman; as a statesman, he was not nearly so much an English King as the leader of a great European alliance. He opposed France not from the wish to aggrandize England, but from the desire to preserve Holland from subjection, and to save the independence of European States. The term "English statesman," indeed, is a misnomer; he was a European statesman, and he occupies a place rather among leaders who have influenced the destiny of Europe than among the men who have moulded the policy and the Constitution of England.

In the third place, William's position in England was one which both the men of his own day and subsequent generations have found it hard to seize. This is the point on which Mr. Traill's book is most full of instruction. He points out that the attempt to make out of William a sort of ideal Whig monarch who in his policy anticipated the Whig constitutionalism of the eighteenth century, falsifies our whole view of his position and of the English Constitution as it existed immediately after the Revolution. Nothing is more certain than that the generation who welcomed "the glorious Revolution" did not intend to change the foundations of the English polity or to lessen the legitimate authority of the English Crown. Their notion was that William and Mary should possess all the prerogatives which could be legally claimed by Charles II. or James II. The King was to remain a power in the State, but to exercise his authority in conformity with the general will of the nation; William, in short, was to rule as Charles and James ought to have ruled. William, on his part, had no intention of being a *roi fainéant*—a king who reigned and did not govern. He intended, as his subjects intended, that he should be the true head of the Executive, and he intended, and his subjects allowed, that he should be his own Foreign Minister.

The singular feature in the history of the English Revolution is, that, partly from the inherent nature of things, partly from accidental circumstances, the conception of the royal position held both by the King and by the English people could not be permanently maintained. If William had had children, if any of Anne's children had lived, the Crown might have continued to be for a century longer a most influential if not a predominant power under the English Constitution. A national dynasty might have represented the nation. Anne, feeble as was her personal character, was not, as Queen, a nonentity: on her changing caprice did at times depend the policy of the State. But from the first the Revolution introduced changes more fundamental than were contemplated by its authors; it made the existence of Parliament permanent; it laid the foundations on which within a generation was erected the fully developed system of party government. This, however, was not the scheme of administration contemplated by William. He intended to choose his own ministers from all parties in the State. He had no wish to be the king of a party, and this for two reasons—a monarch who consents to be the head of a faction cannot hope to be supported by the loyalty of the nation; a king who becomes a party leader, in the long run subordinates the authority of the Crown to the will of a party.

The plain truth is, that, as in the time of Cromwell, so, though less clearly and distinctively in the time of William, two theories of parliamentary government presented themselves to the English people. The one plan was that the real monarch exercising royal prero-

gatives for the benefit of the nation should be the true head of an independent Executive, which, though not appointed by Parliament, should loyally obey laws passed by the houses of Parliament and by the Crown, and should pay respect to the settled will of the nation, as expressed through the mouth of the House of Commons. The other plan was that the Executive should be more or less directly appointed by the party predominant in Parliament, and that party government should derive force and cohesion from the combined action of great aristocratic connections. Either scheme, be it remarked, involved the existence of parliamentary government. The one placed the appointment of the Executive in the hands of a king who should conform to and represent the national will; the other placed it in effect, though not in name, in the hands of the houses of Parliament, or, in effect, in the hands of the great Whig connection which at that period could control Parliament. From the one scheme it followed that the King should take a real part in legislation; from the other it followed that what is now inaccurately called the royal "veto" should become little else than an obsolete form.

William, and with him the mass of the nation, wished to give effect to what may be called the royal system of parliamentary government. Nothing can show this more clearly on the King's part than his refusal to approve bills which had passed through the two houses. His conduct in this respect is very noteworthy. He revived, in substance, the Cromwellian idea, and anticipated the Presidential practice of a suspensive veto. The Whig aristocracy, on the other hand, preferred the scheme of party government, which in those days and for a century later (as any one may see who studies Burke) was intimately connected with the permanent influence of the great Whig houses. The policy of the Whigs triumphed. This result was due, as already pointed out, to favoring circumstances: neither of the first two Hanoverian monarchs could play the part of a Patriot King. But it was due, also, to much deeper causes. The predominance of the Whigs was justified by the only plea which ultimately justifies political authority—exclusive capacity to rule a nation with a true view to national wishes and interests.

What, however, the student of William's life should bear in mind is, that the constitutional problems raised by the Revolution needed to be solved. Two solutions were theoretically possible. The one favored by William was not the solution favored by the Whigs and ultimately accepted by the country. The hero who saved English liberties did not sympathize with the policy by which alone, in the judgment of the Whigs, these liberties could be permanently preserved: the Whig monarch was not a Whig. Nothing has led to greater confusion than the attempt to represent a vigorous ruler, determined to exercise, for the benefit of England and the world, all the legal prerogatives of the English crown, as favoring a policy which ultimately put the crown, for fifty years at least, so to speak, into commission.

GREEK CERAMICS.

Les Céramiques de la Grèce propre. Par Albert Dumont et Jules Chaplain. Paris: Firmin-Didot. 1888.

It certainly does credit to French scholarship that the two most recent treatises on Greek ceramics, the only two, indeed, which embody the recent results of archæological research, together with the plentiful harvest yielded by excavations during the last ten or fifteen years, should have been published almost simultaneously in Paris, bearing the names of two former pupils of the French School of Archæology in Athens, MM. A. Dumont and O. Rayet. By a sad coincidence, these two works have appeared after the death of their authors, thanks to the devoted care of two younger scholars, MM. E. Pottier and M. Collignon. Dumont's 'Céramiques de la Grèce propre' and Rayet's 'Histoire de la Céramique grecque' do not cover exactly the same field, as the titles they bear might induce the reader to suppose. The former is a severe and scientific study of Greek ceramics down to the fifth century B. C.; the latter, while dwelling with sufficient detail on the same period, is more particularly interested in the description of Greek ceramic art during the brilliant phase of its career, from the time of the Persian wars to the death of Alexander the Great. Rayet's work is more specially intended for dilettanti at large, while Dumont wrote for professional archæologists. His intention had been to trace a complete history of Greek painted vases, without neglecting the period of splendor, nor the long and rather confused struggle against decay. This explains why the plates annexed to the volume just published, or, to speak more exactly, just completed, contain many subjects which are not dealt with in the text; but they will be gladly accepted as a supplementary gift, M. Pottier having added in an appendix a short though admirably precise description of these fine specimens, engraved from the drawings made at Athens by M. Chaplain.

However charming the aspect of these plates may be, we cannot refrain from thinking that, if M. Chaplain's drawings had been reproduced by some mechanical process, instead of being handed over to an engraver, the result would have been, from a purely scientific point of view, superior to what it actually is. The engraver has a certain tendency to soften the asperities of the design, to attenuate the original coarseness of certain figures; and whoever is closely acquainted with Greek vases will certainly regret not to find, on some of the plates, the *tenor antiquus* which he is accustomed to. But we must hasten to add that, in the large number of forty plates, there are a great many which are highly satisfactory, and give as complete an idea of the originals as any plate published in the 'Monumenti dell' Instituto,' or the 'Auserlesene Vasenbilder' of Eduard Gerhard. This is especially the case with the beautiful engravings of Attic funeral *lecythi*, those unequalled masterpieces of pure Hellenic elegance and simplicity.

The study of Greek ceramics is no longer what it was in the days of Gerhard and Panofka. Not only have the materials immensely increased; not only have quite new series, such as those of Hissarlik and Thera, been added to the stock of primitive Grecian ware, but the method itself of ceramical study has undergone a very complete change. Formerly—that is, until about 1865—attention was particularly directed to the mythological scenes figured on the painted vases. Great efforts were made to explain these scenes by the aid, more or less forced, of the well-known or the most obscure legends of Greek mythology. When these were insufficient to explain the data, bold interpreters did not refrain from coining new legends, or from calling in the help of the very little we chance to know about ancient mysteries and secret worship. The new school of archæology does not disdain the exegetical task which its predecessors submitted to with an immense display of learning and tremendous labor, but the belief has gradually gained ground that mythological interpretation is not the chief point to be aimed at by the ceramograph. The huge quantity of vases which fill our museums must be classified in accordance with their shapes, the various motives of decoration displayed upon them, the inscriptions or *graffiti* which they bear; care must be taken to distinguish the different schools of art they belong to and the local workshops from which they originated. In a word, the vases have ceased to be, at least exclusively, mythological or artistic documents; they have been drawn into the wide sphere of historical research, and made to serve as tests not only for the history of ancient art, but for the history of civilization, commerce, and industry. M. Dumont's volume is a very fit demonstration of the important results which may be realized by this new method.

M. Dumont was a prudent, perhaps even an over-prudent, archæologist; he discarded many theories, by proving that they were at variance with the facts, but he did not indulge in the easy and rather vain sport of erecting new scaffoldings by the side of those he had just pulled down. He never goes beyond his facts, though he knows how to obtain from them all the information they can yield to a systematic and not over-ingenious inquiry. His method is more analytical than synthetical, and his style is in accordance with the scientific severity of his method. After having described with much accuracy the vases of Hissarlik, Thera, Mykenæ, Spata, and Ialysos, he comes to the conclusion that the vases of Thera are older than the sixteenth century B. C., that those of Hissarlik are more ancient still, and that the Mykenian ware is somewhat later than the Ialysian. He then proceeds to show how the Greek and the Oriental traditions concerning the early history of the Ægean may receive new light from the results of ceramography; but he is content with a few hints on the matter, and does not even venture a guess at that much-disputed problem, the ethnographical connections of the Pelasgi. If archæologists could take example of Dumont, much waste of paper and time might be avoided; but it is not probable that the generality of them will consent to do so.

Next to the vases of the very primitive classes just alluded to, we meet with the ceramics of geometrical design, which have been divided into two series: the vases of the Ægean (*type des îles*) and the well-known Dipylon vases found at Athens. In opposition to the views of Prof. Conze, lately adopted by O. Rayet, Dumont does not believe the geometrical style to be a mode of decoration peculiar to the Aryan races; many specimens of the same ornamental system occur in early Chaldean art, and it seems natural enough to think that the adoption of such simple patterns cannot be considered as the characteristic feature of Aryan taste and industry. The influence of Oriental (in particular of Assyrian) art begins to make its appearance on Greek pottery immediately after the full development of the geometrical Dipylon style. Hence those numberless vases which are commonly called Corinthian (although they were not painted in Corinth alone), and in which the floral ornaments, the processions of Asiatic animals, and the taste for symmetrical arrangements, clearly betray the imitation of Oriental models, perhaps of Oriental tapestry.

Little by little, the human figures, which are very rare in the earliest specimens, become more numerous and take up a larger place in the Greco-Oriental vases. The result of this evolution is the Rhodian type, presenting a

mixture of the Corinthian and of the geometrical style. Dumont studied the vases of these several series with remarkable critical acuteness and a profound knowledge both of Oriental and of Hellenic art. In the following chapters, which he had left imperfect, the foot-notes are all due to M. Pottier, who has enriched them with an astonishing fulness of bibliographical and technical information. The series dealt with in that part of the work are the black Etruscan and Grecian ware, ancestors of the Roman ware which is so improperly styled Samian, the enamelled pottery which is generally called Rhodian, and the elegant vases affecting the shape of human heads.

A long and very good chapter is devoted to the Cypriote vases, the classification and chronological arrangement of which have been so greatly improved by recent excavations. This forms the conclusion of the Second Part, after which begins the study of the Melian vases, similar in style to the chest of Kypselos described by Pausanias, and of the Second Corinthian series, where the mythological subjects and the representations of human beings become decidedly predominant at the expense of the Oriental motives. Corinthian ware of the Second style was also fabricated in Italy, especially in the old town of Cære, where so many specimens of it have been brought to light during the present century. Kirchhoff has demonstrated, by the study of the inscriptions, that a number of similar vases, formerly confounded with the ware of Corinth and of Cære, must be attributed to Chalcis, or to the Chalcidian colonies on Italian soil. This is one of the most important discoveries of recent ceramographical research, and has been very well illustrated by MM. Dumont and Pottier.

A rather queer series of vases, the most celebrated of which is the cup of Arcesilas in the National Library in Paris, has been successively attributed to Cyrene, to Crete, and to the Peloponnesus. M. Pottier has given good reasons for transferring its origin to Naucratis, the most important settlement of the Greeks in Egypt. The question cannot be solved with certainty until new excavations have been made in Cyrenaica; unfortunately, the political state of that region renders it almost inaccessible to scientific research, however tempting its prospects may be.

The last chapters of our volume concern the black-figured vases of Athenian manufacture. Athens has become the intellectual and artistic metropolis of the Hellenic world, and its supremacy in that respect will remain unshaken for several centuries. The recent discoveries on the Acropolis have given proof that the red-figured ware is not, as was generally believed, later than the Persian wars, but that it was already flourishing in the time of the Peisistratidæ. As the black-figured ware is unquestionably more ancient, we are led to remove its origin far beyond the beginning of the sixth century B. C.; the Dipylon vases must be at least two centuries older, and this brings us to a period which is not far distant from that of the Homeric poems.

M. Pottier has added to this valuable work a very complete index, and, last but not least, several pages of addenda, brimful of bibliographical references, including a brief mention of all the books, magazine articles, and discoveries relating to archaic Greek pottery up to the middle of the current year. All future writings on that intricate subject will have to take Dumont's work as a starting-point; we cannot conclude this review with higher praise.

GOSSE'S LIFE OF CONGREVE.

Life of William Congreve. By Edmund Gosse. London: Walter Scott; New York: T. Whittaker. 1888.

Mr. Gosse has the distinction of being the first biographer of Congreve. The trustworthy notices of his life are scanty, and especially wanting in the element of personal interest. Thackeray, it is true, built up a fine figure for us to have in our fancy when Congreve's name is on the lips, but he plainly outdid nature, and drew with the pen of the world's satirist, not of the literary investigator. Mr. Gosse holds this latter office. The range of his knowledge of the infinitely little is equalled only by the patience with which it has been acquired. He has a positive genius for the resurrection of dry bones, and, thanks to this, we have now a singularly excellent life of the wittiest English dramatist. It does not tell us much about Congreve personally, because there is little to tell; but it corrects some misconceptions, fills up some blanks, reduces some dates to accuracy, and gives us a just general conception of what Congreve was to his contemporaries; and, besides this, it sketches very completely the history of the stage during the poet's connection with it.

The most important modification made is that which destroys the notion that Congreve lived as a golden youth in a golden shower of sinecure offices. He had some patrimony, and the income from his literary work, which was no doubt considerable, but his offices came slowly, after some tedious waiting; he complains that he has not enough "to have the few people that I love as near me as I want," speaks of the many "fair promises" that come to nothing, and invokes his philosophy to bear him out. A passage from Swift's poems points to anything but superfluous riches as his lot, and Swift thought it necessary to recommend him to the Lord Treasurer, when the change of parties came, and Congreve was made anxious for fear he should be deprived of what little he had. Altogether, Mr. Gosse's view that Congreve is not to be considered rich until after he was forty, is so well supported that, in the absence of any positive facts to the contrary, it must be accepted.

But if he was not the favorite of fortune he has been depicted, he had his full share of favor. Whether his position, his friends, or his talents be regarded, he was at all points enviable. Dryden acknowledged him, with public praise as well as private kindness, as the heir-apparent to the literary throne; his youthful fame was immediate and great, and was grounded on such abilities as needed not to fear lest it should not be supported by mature genius; the town liked him, the literary circles were proud of him, and he had health, mind, and art in his own right. But he ended at thirty in the gout. Twenty-seven years more he lived, the victim of a broken constitution, in virtual retirement, with pain and partial blindness to afflict him, and intellectual tastes, friendships worth having, and at least £1,200 annually in sinecures to lighten his lot; but it was, after all, a failure. The best thing we know of him is that he kept his friends. There are many contemporary notices of his amiability, his good manners, his delightfulness socially; but without them we should know that the man in whose chambers Steele and Swift might have met, and Dennis and Pope might hope to be reconciled, was a liberal-minded gentleman, with tact and discretion enough to serve in any social emergency. The quarrels of the rest never disturbed the serene atmosphere of the rooms where they all liked to be. It is significant that he is called "unreproachful." He had kindness for all. When one remembers, moreover, that he was by common consent the wittiest man of his time in private talk, the wonder grows that he was so free from offence; for wit is as near akin to malice as pity is to love.

To complete the slight characterization, he was a good scholar and a man of pleasure. His genius was eminently intellectual. This comes out in his criticism, which shows studious cultivation and clear, keen thought. His remarks on the Pindaric ode belong to the best order of criticism, and were, moreover, serviceable: they mark the interregnum between Congreve and Gray, and prophesy the latter's verse-form. A surer sign of the intellectual base of his nature is that the one overmastering quality of his comedies is their style. Putting aside the wit and the life and the humanity (such as it is) that they contain, there remains still the exquisite charm of the words which fall upon the literary sense like honey from the honeycomb; nor would we hesitate to say that Congreve's style in the comedies has a quality as unique as Shakspere's prose—a perfection of form seldom equalled and nowhere surpassed even by the great prose masters of his own age; not by Bolingbroke, nor by Swift, though their writings were on the grander scale. This is Congreve's distinction in our literature, that he has the most intellectual refinement of any of our comic dramatists and easily leads them; in fact, the purely intellectual element, both in the form and the interest, tends rather to the injury of his plays, which the theatre found deficient in action. He was observer and satirist enough to be a dramatist, and he was, besides, a great writer so far as the mere art is concerned; he was, besides, something of a poet, and it is interesting to remark that he was really a student of verse-structure (as is proved by his criticism of the Pindarics), and derived from Milton, as Mr. Gosse thinks, some of his cadences in blank verse. This was while Milton's fame was in its nonage. It is more certain that his influence upon the blank verse which began with Thomson and expired in Wordsworth was considerable, and that Collins learned from him how to write odes, not scrupling even to imitate him with unmistakable directness. Nor is it without justification that a parallel has been made of Keats's famous lines—

> "Still, still to hear thy tender-taken breath,
> And so live ever, or else swoon to death"—

with Congreve's conclusion to the "Ode on Mrs. Arabella Hunt Singing":

> "Wishing forever in that state to lie,
> Forever to be dying so, yet never die."

Congreve's literary influence, although it must be acknowledged that the next age in poetry remembered him only to improve upon him, was far from insignificant, and he little deserved the contempt he has sometimes received. Nevertheless, the impression one has of him is of a genius which made only an imperfect expression of itself; of a man with more mind than his few comedies could hold, with tastes, culture, curiosity, a naturally fertile nature richly developed, but leaving no memorial of itself equal to its value. Ill health, in connection with the laborious care with which he composed, is perhaps the secret of the matter; perhaps, too, there was the indolence that goes with such superb social gifts as Congreve delighted his companions with. Or it may be that early fame had brought early ennui, especially when the dramatist found his work was too well done, too refined in quality to tickle the lungs of the vulgar. He became sterile, and the activity of genius gave way to the pleasures of taste. He was one of the first to collect pictures in England.

In connection with the latter days of Congreve, one should note the new turn which Mr. Gosse ingeniously gives to the best known anecdote of the poet—that in which Voltaire figures, and replies to Congreve's hint that he desired to be visited as a plain gentleman by saying, "Had he been so unfortunate as to be a mere gentleman, I should never have come to see him." Mr. Gosse reminds us that Congreve had long been silent, his literary ambition dead, and in its place, perhaps, an old man's chagrin. If Congreve had really been a snob of this sort, Mr. Gosse goes on, if he had "entertained a mean idea of the literary profession, we should have heard of it from Swift or Pope." That is certainly very probable. Voltaire, in a word, mistook a modest disclaimer of the compliments he had brought with him for an insult to the literary profession. It is an interesting view of the conversation, and inasmuch as there is no other evidence that Congreve preferred being "a plain gentleman" to the fame which had flattered him when Dryden handed down the laurel, one cannot but rejoice to have so easy a defence. But no defence can serve for our poet's abandonment of Mrs. Bracegirdle with the paltry legacy, and nothing can extenuate the mortal comedy of his end as a *bon viveur* when the Duchess of Marlborough, whom he had made his heir, placed his waxen effigy at her table, so contrived as to nod when she spoke to it, wrapped its feet in cloths, and had a physician to attend upon it and render a daily diagnosis. With the seven thousand pounds remaining from the legacy, after this pleasant whim was satisfied, the young Duchess bought a diamond necklace. Mrs. Bracegirdle, the favorite of his early years, the woman for whom he had written the best of his characters and who shares his theatrical fame, was poor, but she shielded Congreve's memory by her silence, while the Duchess blazoned his infatuation by her diamonds. This was a death scene for a comic dramatist to observe.

Of Mr. Gosse's fidelity in research and of his extraordinary success in recovering the meaning and bearing of anonymous passages and obscure allusions in the waste-basket of literature, one cannot speak too highly. The theatrical annals in particular are well attended to. Nowhere else shall we find so full and orderly an account of the controversy over the morals of the stage which Jeremy Collier set in motion; and at frequent intervals one comes upon minute facts about the minor literature and writers of the times which are valuable to the close literary student.

A DILAPIDATED EMPIRE.

Through the Yang-Tse Gorges; or, Trade and Travel in Western China. By Archibald John Little, F.R.G.S. 2d ed. London: Sampson Low. 1888.

In this volume Mr. Archibald Little describes his voyage up a considerable portion of the Yang-Tse-Kiang, the great river which bisects the Chinese Empire. The scenery along this route is of the sublimest character, and Mr. Little expatiates upon it with an amplitude that is excessive. The main interest, however, of his volume arises from the light that it casts indirectly upon the internal state of China, the character of its singular people, and the efficiency or otherwise of its singular administrative system. On these subjects Mr. Little has much to tell us that is interesting and suggestive.

The position of China, in its relations to the western world is, at the present time, of a truly extraordinary character. Half-a-century ago, the isolation in which the Chinese elected to live was regarded by the western world as constituting a standing outrage upon humanity at large, which justified any action that tended to break down the barriers in which they had intrenched themselves. And, as a matter of fact, these barriers were broken down at an inconceivable cost to the Chinese. In the wars carried on against the Chinese Empire, either by the British alone, or in alliance with the French, the loss of life and the destruction of property incurred by the Chinese, although enormous, constituted the least part of the evil. The worst part was the loss of authority by the Imperial Government and its agents throughout the country, the hordes of brigands and pirates which were let loose upon the devoted population, and, finally, those terrible insurrections—the Taiping and Panthay revolts—which depopulated and laid waste great provinces and hundreds of flourishing cities, rivalling in the horrors which attended them the irruption of the Mongols under Genghis Khan. The barriers were, however, thrown down, and the Chinese, issuing from their seclusion, began to migrate in all directions into the lesser peopled portions of the globe. This new process had gone on for a few years only, when, from all the regions thus visited, arose the cry that the Chinese, whom it had cost so much to set free, must again, no matter at what cost, be dammed up in their own country, and denied all exit thence on any pretext whatsoever. All that the western world really wants with China is the liberty to trade with her people with an exclusive eye to its own pecuniary advantage, and it is not, therefore, surprising that we learn from Mr. Archibald Little that all that China wants from the western world is its implements of war and destruction, the more effectually to protect itself against the encroachments of the European trader.

Mr. Little presents in his own person a really admirable example of the type of mind which regards China simply and solely as a country to trade with. His particular aversion is the Christian missionary. He considers that his presence in China interferes grievously with the activity of trade. He would like to see all protection on the part of the western Powers withdrawn from this noxious individual, and the missionary handed over, naked and defenceless, to the tender mercies of the Chinese authorities. The magnanimous and self-sacrificing trader is, on the other hand, the real moral regenerator that Providence has provided for this people. Mr. Little's bitter aversion to the missionaries is all the more curious because, as he points out again and again, they make no converts and are held in supreme contempt by the Chinese of all classes, high and low. It cannot, therefore, be from fear of the missionaries that the Chinese Government is so anxious to obtain a supply of ironclads, breech-loading cannon, and magazine rifles. We must look elsewhere for an explanation of this, nor will it be difficult to find. Mr. Little reserves all his censure for the missionaries; he has not one word to say in condemnation of the opium traffic, or the infamous kidnapping of coolies which for so many years constituted the principal industry of the European merchants located at the Treaty Ports. These, however, are the aspects of western civilization with which the Chinese are most terribly familiar. These it is which have convinced them that unless they have force at their backs, nothing is to be expected from the justice or the humanity of the western world. If European trade is to breathe a new life into the people of China, it must appear before them in a very different guise and inspired by a very different spirit from that which has been the case hitherto.

The truth is, that it is the merest cant to talk of trade as animated by a single particle of the missionary spirit. There is nothing in the world more absolutely selfish than the spirit of money-getting, and to talk as if the Shanghai merchant were likely to succeed where the Christian missionary has failed, is to talk nonsense. At the same time, it cannot be denied that the Chinese Empire is in a bad way. The picture drawn of it by Mr. Little from personal observation has a curious resemblance to the pictures drawn by other travellers of the Asiatic portion of the Ottoman Empire. Like Asiatic Turkey, China is in a state of pitiful dilapidation. In the way of roads, quays, harbors, causeways, temples, and palaces, nothing that has once been erected appears to be ever subjected to repairs. The whole Empire is, so to speak, crumbling silently into ruin. The governing classes are not content with doing nothing in the way of repairs; they seem to have brief spasmodic fits of activity which are directed against improvements effected by others. Mr. Little has the following significant story to tell:

"The destruction of the little railroad that ran from Shanghai to Woosung in 1874 is an instance of the dogged resistance the officials make to any innovation too forcibly pressed upon them. The Chinese people themselves were delighted with this experimental railway of ten miles length, which united Shanghai to its port of Woosung, and the trains were crowded as long as they were allowed to run. The local authorities had, of course, given their consent, but the central Government had never been consulted. Sir Thomas Wade, unwisely in my opinion, allowed the Pekin officials to purchase the line, thinking they would then work it themselves. He did not understand the Chinese. No sooner bought than the line was pulled up and thrown into the sea, and Shanghai, the commercial capital of China—built up as it has been by foreign enterprise—is still dependent upon houseboats and a few steam launches for communication with its port of Woosung, distant by water fourteen miles. The road on which the rails were laid, and which for a time was used for a driving road, has been allowed to decay, and communication by land has again reverted to the old foot-paths."

An empire governed after this fashion is clearly in a hopeless condition. As with all Asiatics, the force of custom rules with irresistible power over the Chinese. Mental initiative has perished. A Chinaman never thinks of inquiring for the reason of a custom; the existence of the custom is the reason why it should be conformed to. The horrible tortures—the life-long deformity—to which women are subjected in order to force their feet into a revolting and abnormal shape, is a cardinal illustration of this stupid and perverse habit of mind. It is in strict keeping with this irrational imbecility that, while the sanitation of their towns is wholly disregarded, and the filth of the streets is something appalling, there should exist a special department for the purpose of collecting and burning all scraps of waste paper, the written character of the Chinese language being looked upon as too sacred to be trodden under foot of men. Similarly, the fortunes of a family, a village, or a town are absolutely determined by the site on which the family residence, the village, or the town has been erected. As Mr. Little points out, the origin of this superstition is, probably, traceable to the simple belief that the health of people was largely dependent upon the nature of the locality in which they passed their days. This, however, is now wholly forgotten, and the superstitious terror attaching to this question of site is a chief obstacle in the development of the vast mineral wealth of

China. It is widely believed among the Chinese that such irreverent treatment of the earth as is involved in excavations for the purpose of discovering its hidden wealth, would react upon the sites of their villages and cities in a manner most disastrous.

The Chinese are less plentifully endowed with imagination than are other Asiatics; but this deficiency is not made up to them by a larger amount of the scientific reason. It is in their total privation of the scientific reason—the logical and investigating faculty—that the Chinese, like other Asiatics, are most strikingly distinguished from the western world. Life among them, social, moral, and intellectual, seems to be absolutely at a stand-still, or, as this is, perhaps, impossible, to be steadily corrupting. The irruption of the West has shattered the authority of the Government. The glare of western civilization has revealed, so to speak, the dry-rot that is eating away the fabric of Chinese civilization; but how to arrest the progress of decay has yet to be discovered.

The Social Influence of Christianity. (The Newton Lectures for 1887.) By David J. Hill, LL.D 12mo, pp. 231. Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co. 1888.

THIS is to some extent a work of apologetics—much more so than its title would suggest. To some extent, also, its aim is much the same as Mr. Brace's 'Gesta Christi,' reviewed some years ago in these columns, with this difference, that it is very largely occupied with present social problems. The second chapter, however, is evidently drawn from 'Gesta Christi' and similar works. There are eight chapters or lectures. The first two treat of general subjects dealing with historical influences and theories. They discuss human society, and the effect of Christianity upon it. The remaining six are upon the social problems of the day: labor, wealth, marriage, education, legislation, and repression or punishment—all aiming to present the influence of Christianity upon these several forces and institutions. The apologetic spirit in which the work proceeds comes from the assumption that Christianity must vindicate itself in this sphere, or suffer a diminution of its fairly won fame, and from the manner in which the author endeavors to state his case in favor of views accepted as Christian.

To trace the social influence of Christianity is a large task, and the author who comes to it should be qualified by a wide experience in the fields of history and philosophy. Dr. Hill's lectures betray no evidence that he has any such qualifications. They are merely a system of outlines such as might suggest the writing of a whole library upon the subject, but convey no adequate conception of it to those for whom they were meant. Brevity may be the soul of wit, but it will not expound and defend a philosophy or a religion. Just one example of Dr. Hill's inadequate treatment of large questions will suffice. The theories of Montesquieu, Condorcet, Kant, Quetelet, and Buckle are stated and disposed of in three small pages! In undertaking so large a subject, an author who has any respect for real scholarship, or who expects to impart any permanent and well-defined knowledge to his readers, would do well to omit much that is relevant, and even important, in the wider comprehension of his subject.

The most indispensable thing to an apologetic work of this kind is a clear and definite conception of Christianity. No attempt whatever is made to supply this want, unless we except one short sentence in a footnote (p. 162), where the author says: "I use 'Christianity' as a synonym with 'the influence of Jesus,' not as equivalent to the historical Church." But does he mean to say or to imply that the historical church is not due to the influence of Jesus? If so, one wonders to whom he will attribute the representation and embodiment of that influence. Outside of the historical Church it must be the free-thinkers. But this is a strange place for the theologian to locate Christianity. The fact is, that Dr. Hill knows very well that much which has been called Christianity has to be given up, and he chooses his conception of it with a view to making that concession. But if he persists in separating the Church and the influence of Jesus, he is shut up to the position that Christianity is *only* an ethical and social scheme—the very last admission which the author would make. We can readily admit the historical Church, with all its shortcomings, to be the representative of Christianity, and to be entitled to the merits of those great achievements which had their historical origin and moral impulse in the character of Christ. Only we should be careful to separate the chaff from the wheat. The social influence of Christianity has unquestionably been the best leaven of the last eighteen centuries. But, in order to vindicate it, it is not necessary to cling to that old mental attitude which drew an invidious line between Christianity and other influences really tending in the same direction, nor to suppose that everything which has received its protection must be free from fault.

Sketches of War History, 1861–1865. Papers read before the Ohio Commandery of the Military Order of the Loyal Legion of the United States. Vols I., II., 8vo. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.

THESE handsome volumes are made up of original contributions to the history of the civil war by officers who served in the campaigns of which they speak, and who are narrating facts of which they were eye-witnesses. Almost without exception the papers are temperate and serious efforts to throw new light upon the campaigns in which the writers served, and they speak well for the usefulness of the Loyal Legion as an historical society of no mean importance. The temptation at army reunions would naturally be to make comradeship and social enjoyment rule the hour, and it is a pleasure to note the fact that lapse of time since the war closed has evidently made this association of former officers of the army and navy feel that it is time to put into durable form the personal knowledge of the war which would otherwise die with them.

A mere glance at the titles will show how wide a range of experience is covered by the service of the men who meet in a single "commandery" of this association. Here we have the surrender of the United States troops in Texas under Twiggs at the outbreak of the rebellion, the battle of Winchester or Opequan, the Wilderness and Spottsylvania, Cumberland Gap, the Eleventh Corps at Chancellorsville, Early's advance upon Washington, West Virginia fighting in '62, the Red River expedition, Schofield's campaign from Pulaski to Nashville, the campaigns about Charleston, Canby's campaign in New Mexico, the campaign of Vicksburg, Marching through the Carolinas, the Cavalry campaign of Selma, the surrender of Johnston's army, etc. With these are interspersed recollections of prison life, of the medical service, of the organization of the military telegraph and service in it, and the like.

When it is remembered that these are records of actual experience, and not compilations from the records, it will be seen that, as material for systematic history in the future, they are invaluable, while they are also attractive and even fascinating reading in themselves.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Peep at our Cousins. By a Maid of Honor. 2d ed. The Minerva Publishing Co.
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Irving, W. The Sketch-Book of Geoffrey Crayon, Esq. Author's revised edition. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Johnson, R. A Short History of the War of Secession. 1861–1865. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $3.
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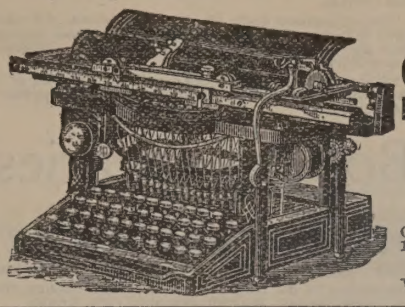

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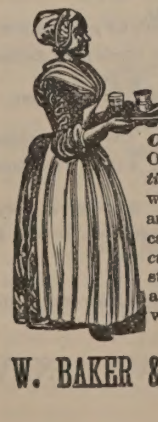

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Premiums on Marine Risks from 1st January, 1887, to 31st December, 1887.....		$3,642,969 09
Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1887.....		1,417,600 13
Total Marine Premiums.....		$5,060,569 22
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1887, to 31st December, 1887.....		$3,672,331 21
Losses paid during the same period	$1,599,468 25	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses.....	$788,846 38	

The Company has the following Assets, viz.:

United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks....	$8,622,565 00
Loans, secured by Stocks and otherwise..	1,559,100 00
Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at.....	474,439 83
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable....	1,362,986 07
Cash in Bank.....	218,192 40
Amount.....	$12,237,283 35

Six per cent. interest on the outstanding certificates of profits will be paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the seventh day of February next.

The outstanding certificates of the issue of 1883 will be redeemed and paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the seventh of February next, from which date all interest thereon will cease. The certificates to be produced at the time of payment and cancelled.

A dividend of FORTY PER CENT. is declared on the net earned premiums of the Company for the year ending 31st December, 1887, for which certificates will be issued on and after Tuesday, the first of May next.

By order of the Board,
J. H. CHAPMAN, Secretary.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 4, 1888.

The Week.

MR. BLAINE'S speech at the Polo Grounds on Saturday evening, as published in the *Tribune*, was about three times as long as the one actually delivered by him and printed in the other papers. In substance, however, the long speech was the same as the short one. It was really an attempt to explain away a portion of his History, so as to show that high tariffs have always caused national prosperity, while low tariffs have always brought on commercial crises and disaster. The hardest thing to "get over" was the following passage from his History, describing the consequences of the low tariff of 1846:

"The Whig victory of 1848 was not sufficiently decisive to warrant any attempt, even had there been desire, to change the tariff (of 1846). Gen. Taylor had been elected without subscribing to a platform or pledging himself to a specific measure, and he was, therefore, in a position to resist and reject appeals of the ordinary partisan character; moreover, the tariff of 1846 was yielding abundant revenue, *and the business of the country was in a flourishing condition at the time his Administration was organized.* Money became very abundant after the year 1849, large enterprises were undertaken, speculation was prevalent, and for a considerable period *the prosperity of the country was general and apparently genuine.* After 1852 the Democrats had almost undisputed control of the Government, and had gradually become a free-trade party. The principles embodied in the tariff of 1846 seemed for the time to be so entirely vindicated and approved that resistance to it ceased, not only among the people, but among the protection economists, *and even among the manufacturers to a large extent.* So general was this acquiescence that in 1856 a protective tariff was not suggested or even hinted by any one of the three parties which presented Presidential candidates."

In order to harmonize this with his newly-found theory that low tariffs always lead to a commercial crisis, he stated that the crisis which came eleven years later, in 1857, was staved off by a number of accidental circumstances, such as the Mexican war, the discovery of gold in California, and the Crimean war. After all these had exhausted their beneficial and counteracting influences, the real effects of the low tariff of 1846 began to show themselves, and the tardy crisis of 1857 declared itself. But why did not Mr. Blaine tell us these things in that chapter of his history which he wrote expressly on the subject of American tariffs? All the things he now tells us were as well known to him then. Why did he suppress them then? Supposing that Mr. Blaine had died after finishing his history and before he made this speech. What would have been the situation of the world and of posterity in respect of knowledge of the true causes of the crisis of 1857? Absolute dearth and famine, groping in darkness and stumbling in ignorance; and all because Mr. Blaine did not then reveal what he knew of the hidden causes of commercial crises, but, in fact, led his readers into false paths by telling them in substance that the tariff of 1846 was not a bad thing after all.

We would call the attention of the Rev. Dr. Storrs and other respectable Republicans of the old school, the religious, the intelligent, and the conscientious men who were the bone and sinew of the party between 1856 and 1866, who gave it the noble enthusiasm which carried it through the war, and created for it those great traditions under which so many rascals have since found shelter, to the fact that the foremost man of the party, Mr. James G. Blaine, was accompanied to the Polo Grounds in the carriage, on Saturday evening, by "Pat" Ford, the dynamiter and deserter. There was a small party in the carriage, necessarily either political or social intimates of the orator, and Ford was one of them. We ask Dr. Storrs, and all who think with him about politics, to consider for one moment what Ford represents, what he has publicly aided and abetted, and gloried in—namely, murder and arson in a peaceable and thickly populated city—and to remember that on the one occasion in his life when he filled a brave man's place in front of a great duty, he broke his troth, and fled like a frightened cow before the public enemy. Having got this base career firmly before their mind's eye, we ask all Republicans, great and small, men and women, to consider the conspicuous light which this man's close companionship with the acknowledged leader of their party, on a great occasion, throws on the spirit, aims, methods, and standards of the party management. It is not a thing they can shirk or evade, swallow in silence, or "dismiss with a smile." It is a thing to be faced, examined, and explained. If they think well of it, they ought to come out and say so. If they think ill of it, they ought to show it openly, in the only way in which a good citizen can effectually show his horror of crime, and disorder, and corruption.

Gen. Harrison's last plan for the reduction of the surplus is the distribution among the States of the $20,000,000 of Government deposits now lying in the banks. This, he says, "might be very righteously used so as to greatly lighten the real burdens of taxation now resting on the people—burdens that the people know to be taxes without any argument from our statesmen." But are there any such burdens? Who is complaining of taxation except the revenue reformers, and who minds what *they* say? In what State do the people complain they are taxed more than they ought to be by the State? If it hurts a man's pride to wear a cheap coat, would it not hurt it still more to have his local taxes paid for him out of the national Treasury? And then, if the national Government should distribute a large sum of money among the States this year, why not every year? People are not suffering more from State taxation this year than they will suffer next year and the year after. Why not, in fact, abolish State taxation altogether, and raise the needed local expenses solely by Federal tariff? We hope Gen. Harrison will clear up these points in the next of his little speeches. We cannot help thinking that when he considers the matter more fully, he will be so much impressed by the dangers of the distribution plan that he will eventually fall back on the free-whiskey plan of reduction as the neatest and easiest of execution.

A new document issued by the Republican Congressional Committee is entitled "The Foreign Market a Will-o'-the-Wisp." It consists of a short extract from a speech of Mr. Goff of West Virginia, and another short extract from a speech of Mr. Reed of Maine, and a long table of "Foreign Customs Duties." Mr. Goff tells us that foreign trade is a will-o'-the-wisp, because "most all the countries of the world the markets of which we are told we should seek, have protective laws, England not excepted." And he asks whether we are to "destroy our protection and then contend with the protection that the nations of the world have surrounded themselves with." In regard to the table of foreign customs duties, we think that those of Great Britain may be viewed with suspicion, for we find that the tariff on gold is set down at $4.14 per ounce. Travellers from this country to Great Britain have never, we believe, had their baggage or their pockets searched for gold by the customs officers, or even for gold watches, which this document says are taxed at the same specific rate of $4.14 per ounce. But as the British Islands do not produce the metal gold, this could not be called a protective duty, even if it were levied at the exorbitant rate named in the document. We think that Mr. Goff is misinformed when he states that England has protective laws. We think also that he ought to be very careful about saying that England has protective laws, even if she has them, because he may thereby convince a good many Republicans that we ought *not* to have them, so large a part of the campaign is based upon the brilliant idea of doing the opposite of what England does.

The Home Market Club of Boston are now circulating a handbill entitled "Wages in Paterson, N. J., and Lisburn, Ireland," containing a statement of the Barbour Brothers, who carry on business at both places, saying that they employ 1,500 hands in Paterson and 2,800 in Lisburn, and that in two weeks' time they paid as much money within $500 to the 1,500 here as to the 2,800 there; also, that "none of our employees in Ireland ever had wages enough to be able to have their money at interest, to say nothing of owning a home. The Paterson employees all came from Ireland originally, so you can see how much better off they are here than they were there." The Barbour

Brothers are certainly in a fortunate position to plunder the American consumers of linen goods, as they can transport labor from one place to the other as it may suit their own interests. There ought to be somebody to look after them. As to the savings of the operatives in the two countries, however, we find a remarkable contradiction between the statement given above and the testimony of one member of the firm, Mr. Thomas Barbour, before the Tariff Commission in 1882, viz. (vol. i, page 290):

"*We have imported a great many workers into this country*, but we find that, as a rule, they spend more money in America for rents and for food, they dress far better, and become more extravagant in this country, and *do not lay up any more wages than they do in Ireland.*"

So it appears that the Barbours are importers of contract labor, and that they tell different stories at different times about the savings of their employees. This Mr. Barbour wanted to have the duties on the kind of linen he produces in Ireland reduced, and the duties on the kind he makes here raised from 35 per cent. to 50 per cent. ad valorem. The Tariff Commission listened to him with imperturbable gravity, but declined to follow his suggestions in either direction.

We have been making search for that American newspaper, the *Iron Era*, which the Republican Committees and the Republican press substituted in place of the *English Iron Era* as the authority for the following campaign lie, namely:

"The Cobden Club is trying to raise a large sum of money to be spent in furthering the free-trade propaganda in the United States. Lord Brassey has given £1,000, and others less, and the hat is going round."

No such paper as the *Iron Era* could be found in New York, Philadelphia, or Pittsburgh. None of the large firms in the iron trade in New York knew of it. An inquiry addressed to the office of the *Iron Age* led to the disclosure that there was a weekly paper of this name published at Dover, N. J., but that it was not a trade journal. Pursuing the subject to Dover, N. J., we now learn that the *Iron Era* of that place, when it published the Cobden Club item, credited it to the *English Iron Era*, and said that it (the Dover *Iron Era*) had found it, not in the *English Iron Era*, but in another American paper credited to the aforesaid English paper. This is the paragraph of which the Philadelphia *Press*, the other day, when explaining the wrong credit, said that nobody disputed the accuracy of the item: the only wrong thing about it was that the American and not the English paper of that name was responsible for it. Now it appears that neither of them was responsible for it. The thing was "in the air"; it was caught, like yellow fever.

We have been favored with a copy of Mr. H. K. Thurber's *amended* circular "To the Wage-Earners of the United States." It will be remembered that Mr. Thurber retracted a portion of the original circular and promised not to send out any more of them. The words retracted were these:

"When the London *Times* thinks the best use they can make of Irishmen is to help them emigrate to this country, and join the Democratic party, and thus help break down our protective tariff, that makes me think that our tariff is a great benefit to this country, and of course I range myself on the side of a protective tariff."

In making his retraction and apology for sending out this false statement, Mr. Thurber said that he had seen the London *Times's* quotation in a speech in Congress, that he had taken it to be genuine, and that he had considered it "public property." So far so good. What does he do next? He amends the circular, and sends out a fresh edition with these words:

"When *a London paper* thinks the best use they can make of Irishmen is to help them to emigrate to this country and join the Democratic party, and thus help break down our protective tariff, that makes me think that our tariff is a great benefit to *this* country, and of course, I range myself on the side of a protective tariff."

This, we submit, is a worse offence than the first one. "A London paper," forsooth! What London paper? Not the London *Times*; Mr. Thurber has acknowledged so much. He cannot pretend that he has found the new saying in a speech in Congress, or going around, or that it is public property. On the contrary, this is Mr. Thurber's private property. He alone has any ownership in it.

To Mr. Thurber, the Home Market Club, the Hartford *Courant*, and all the other worshippers of British opinion, we present another genuine quotation. It is from the well-known technical journal *Engineering*, of the date of September 21. That paper contains an article on "Japan as a Market for British Manufactures," which disposes of us with the following brief reference: "From American competition in Japan we have not much to fear, always supposing our manufacturers do not fail to advertise their wares and supply them of good quality. America, it is well known, owing to her protective tariff, cannot compete with us in iron and steel manufactures out of her own country, and she is further handicapped in Japan, as regards all heavy goods, by higher freights, since such goods coming from the Eastern manufacturing States require to go via the Suez Canal, owing to the heavy charges for railway carriage across the American continent."

One of the good signs of the times is the appearance in the field of Col. Wentworth Higginson to run against Gen. N. P. Banks for Congress in the Fifth Massachusetts District. Banks has been United States Marshal for a good many years, and was allowed by the present Administration to serve out his term. Before his removal he expressed the highest opinion of President Cleveland; since his removal he has been denouncing the Administration in unmeasured terms, and is now the Republican candidate for Congress. What his real politics are we presume nobody knows, not even himself. But he is one of the old Republican war-horses, who has to be provided for, no matter how useless he may be, and sending him to Congress is the easiest thing to do. Col. Higginson's candidacy represents those who think that the national Legislature should contain nobody but competent legislators, and should not be used as an asylum for decayed politicians. He may not be elected, but in running he helps to raise the standard of political capacity, and to organize those who mean that it shall be kept high.

The *Sun* says, speaking of the Democratic opposition to Hill:

"In the whole history of American politics there has never before been a plot so remarkable. In its inception and execution it is simply a violent attack on the Democracy."

Come, now, was not your own "plot" in 1884 just as "remarkable"? Did you not begin the canvass that year by declaring that

"Should the Convention determine to nominate one of them [Cleveland or Flower], we say emphatically that the candidate will stand a fair chance of carrying the State of New York, and that the best efforts of the *Sun* will be devoted to securing his entire success. . . .

"Sooner than join in making James G. Blaine President of the United States, we would quit work, burn up our pen, and leave to other and, perhaps, rasher heads the noble controversies of politics and the defence of popular self-government"?

Did you not soon after repudiate the Democratic candidate and begin to abuse him savagely, for reasons satisfactory to yourself, and to run a candidate of your own, concerning whose strength in this city you made the very remarkable error of 129,659 in a total of 136,656? Was not the end of it all, as far as you were concerned, the loss of half your circulation, and the substitution therefor of mortgages to the amount of $235,000 or thereabouts, and the rise into power and wealth of your detested rival "Judas," and the immense amusement of the public over your sorry plight? Is not your ingratitude to us, who saved you last spring from committing the same follies again, also very remarkable, considering that by collaring you in time, when you were marching straight to destruction, and were prophesying publicly against Cleveland in the most fatuous manner, we prevented you from engaging in another open bolt? It is true you are now trying to knife the ticket, and are privately predicting the defeat of the Democratic candidate; but this, bad as it is, will not hurt you as much as coming out publicly against him would do. It is your interest only, you will observe, that we consider in this matter. Your support of Hill through good and evil report is, we confess, not remarkable at all; for when has there appeared in politics a rascal who did not call forth all the tenderness of your nature, and for whom you were not ready to move Acheron?

Boston has become greatly stirred up over the question of Roman Catholic influence in the conduct of the public schools, the provoking cause being the exclusion by the School Committee of a text-book which members of the Catholic Church considered objectionable because of a reference to that church, and which was admitted to be so by the Rev. Dr. Duryea, one of the most prominent Protestant clergymen of the city. The

result is, for the first time since women were given the right to vote in school elections in Massachusetts, a general disposition on the part of women to avail themselves of the right of suffrage. The movement appears to have begun with Protestant women, and the first development of significance is the revelation that the Committee of One Hundred of Protestant Women claim to have information which proves conclusively that there have been a large number of cases of perjury among the Catholic women, many of whom are charged with having appeared before the assessors, and taken oath to signatures which were written by other persons. Not less noteworthy is the statement in a Boston despatch that "the two factions show much more spite and bitterness than do the men."

Towards the latter part of September, Mr. B. P. Hutchinson, a member of the Chicago Board of Trade, made a calculation that he could buy all the wheat in the Chicago elevators, and hold it a few days. He then made another calculation that no large amount of wheat could be brought to Chicago from the elevators of Milwaukee, Toledo, St. Louis, and other storage points, and be inspected and hoisted into store, and weighed and certificated, before the close of business on Saturday, September 30. Having made these calculations, he began to bet with his fellow-members that they could neither get wheat to Chicago from other points, nor get hold of any of the wheat that was actually in Chicago, during the remainder of the month of September. Naturally, he won all his bets. Great efforts were made to run express trains loaded with wheat from St. Louis and other points to Chicago within the time mentioned in the bets, but they were generally failures. This is the true explanation of the corner in September wheat at Chicago.

The *Rundschau*, which published the extracts from the diary of the Emperor Frederick, has got itself into a bad fix, for Bismarck is after it with all the terrors at his command. As an enemy, too, he does nothing by halves. Everybody who has stood in his way, except the late Emperor, he has managed to ruin utterly. He is not content with driving a man from office: he tries to drive him out of society and out of his trade or calling. One passage in the report to the Emperor, in which Bismarck asks permission to prosecute, contains a savage dig at the ex-Empress. He says:

> "The Crown Prince in 1870 did not share in political discussions. I did not have the King's permission to discuss with the Crown Prince the more intimate questions of our policy, because the King feared it might lead to indiscretions at the English Court and harm our relations with the German Federal allies."

This simply means that the Crown Prince was supposed to be under the influence of his wife, through whom state secrets would be revealed to the English Court. He further adds: "It seems as if the daily notes, or at any rate their later elaboration, were the work of some person in the Crown Prince's entourage"—which may or may not be also an insinuation that the ex-Empress is at the bottom of the whole matter.

It is now said that Prof. Geffcken, who has been arrested and is to be tried for publishing the Emperor Frederick's diary, will plead the Emperor Frederick's permission. If he has this in writing, he is very lucky, but if he has it not, the danger is that he will be tried for defaming Frederick's memory, in alleging that any such permission was ever given. Bismarck's resources in dealing with his enemies are endless, and he has a capital young Emperor to back him up. The suggestion of the "jurisconsult" in London that Bismarck himself might be tried for revealing state secrets, in saying that the Emperor William forbade him to consult the Crown Prince lest their communications should be revealed to the English court and consequently to the French, seems to have much plausibility, but it is very barren, for any one who wanted to prosecute Bismarck would have to get Bismarck's leave to do it. The continued uncertainty about the present Emperor's character and intentions, and the influence of this uncertainty on German politics, is, or ought to be, rather humiliating for as highly civilized a people as the Germans. That an unknown youth of twenty-eight should have so much to say about the affairs of a nation of 60,000,000, and that his opinions, likes, and dislikes should weigh so much in peace and war, seems now an immense anachronism.

The granting of charters to three "Sovereign Companies" by the British Crown within the last two months carries one back to the old days of the Elizabethan and Jacobite monopolies, and revives the brilliant memories of the East India Company, which built up an empire and filled the world with its fame. A charter has been granted to one company which is to rule the valley of the Niger in Africa; to another to rule North Borneo; and to another which is to take possession of and govern 50,000 square miles of East Africa, carved out of the territories of the Sultan of Zanzibar. They will all, if successful, necessarily play the same part as the East India Company—begin by trading, then dispute, then raise troops and fight, then annex territory, then get quarrels on their hands to which their resources are not equal, and then call on the Crown to back them up, and then, in some remoter future, disappear, leaving England, in her character of the "weary Titan," with two or three more huge dependencies on her hands.

The message of President Diaz to the Fourteenth Mexican Congress, at the opening of its first session, September 16, is of a decidedly optimistic cast. He congratulates the country upon the continuance of domestic peace and upon the signs of increasing industrial and commercial prosperity, recounts the rapid extension of the different railroad systems, speaks of the enlarged post-office facilities and the increasing postal revenues, and narrates the progress of the common schools. Even of the financial condition, his nightmare for the past four years, he can now speak in a tone of moderate hope. The Berlin bankers have taken another third of the loan proposed last March, and he hopes that they will yet take the remainder. The quotation of these bonds in London at 92½ marks the highest point the credit of Mexico has reached since her independence. Gen. Diaz gives, however, but few figures to substantiate his statement that the Treasury is really out of the crisis. The exports have fallen off slightly. What the imports were he does not say, though the slight gain in the national income would seem to imply that they were larger than last year's. Even so, the revenues are about $4,000,000 short of the estimated expenditures. Clearly, the Treasurer's detailed report will have to be waited for to state the situation exactly. In foreign relations, Mexico is on an excellent footing with her neighbors and all the world. Treaties with Guatemala are pending—one to define the boundary line and another of commercial reciprocity. The President announces that a convention has been signed at Washington designed to meet the difficulties occasioned by drovers passing with their cattle over the frontiers, and also recommends that the Extradition Treaty be amended so as more promptly to punish crimes committed on the border.

The British Consul in Rio Grande do Sul reports great dissatisfaction with the Imperial Government on the part of the inhabitants of that Brazilian province. The main trouble is the wretched inefficiency of the customs service, which leaves the way open for floods of contraband goods to come in via Uruguay and the Argentine Republic, to the ruin of the honest importers. This has been a long-standing grievance. The frontiers are too extensive to be easily guarded, and the central Government has left things pretty much to shift for themselves. In 1879, it is true, the expedient was tried of a special tariff for Rio Grande do Sul, with rates put at a figure low enough, it was hoped, to lessen the motives for smuggling. Little advantage came of this, however. Now it is proposed by the Secretary of the Treasury to enter into negotiations with the authorities at Montevideo and Buenos Ayres for a common agreement in regard to the protection and collection of customs revenues. Meanwhile railroad after railroad is being pushed up to the border from the south and west, and it seems almost inevitable that the province will become commercially dependent upon the republics to the south. It is doubtless partly due to this physical contact that a pronounced republican spirit exists across the Brazilian line. Many are found to advocate cutting loose from the Empire, following the example of the Banda Oriental, in 1829. Others see more hope in stirring up the imperial rulers to action, in self-defence, if for no other reason, and in the very probable republicanizing of Brazil itself, one of these days. At any rate, the situation and agitation have a significance.

THE ORDNANCE BLUNDER.

THE circular from Gen. Benet, Chief of the Ordnance, which has just come to light, making arrangements to divide the offices in the Government armories and arsenals between the two parties, would, we should think, furnish Secretary Endicott with a striking illustration of the danger of letting military men issue circulars on political matters, without seeing them. We have no doubt whatever that Gen. Benet thought, as he himself now explains, that when he issued this order he was doing something for civil-service reform. But the reason of this was, doubtless, that, like the great majority of military men, as well as politicians, he did not know what was meant by the phrase civil-service reform, or what the legislation on that subject had been. There is nothing very surprising about this. Any one who had not had actual experience of it, would be amazed by the ignorance of most men in political life about the demands of civil-service reformers, and about the provisions made to satisfy them by the Civil-Service Law and the regulations framed thereunder. An illustration of this may be found in the fact that when Gen. Sickles was appointed to the Civil-Service Commission in this State last year, he made known in an interview that he thought examinations for places under the State law related entirely to literary subjects, and one of the first things he was going to do was to make them "practical."

The plan of dividing the offices equally between the parties is about as much civil-service reform as a great many men in public life can grasp. Some of the more gifted ones have laid hold of the idea of pass examinations to see if the man whom they want to put in the place is really fit for it; but very few indeed really and truly comprehend, and conceive as a contemporaneous possibility, the awarding of places in the public service by open competition without regard to politics. They hear talk about this from professors and literary men, as they hear talk about Kant's categorical imperative, but that any honest effort is being made to carry it out in the United States, A. D. 1888, is something they are as yet mentally incapable of believing. We have little doubt that Gen. Benet belongs to this class, and that he really thought that he was making an immense stride in advance when he prepared to divide the force in the different grades in the arsenals gradually between Democrats and Republicans; and we believe it all the more because of the application of his rule to "women and children." Nobody but a conscientious, well-meaning, even if rather stupid, body would have thought of selecting women and children for employment in arsenals according to their political opinions. Gen. Benet, we have no doubt, is a first-rate artillerist, but he is a dreadful man for circulars.

The circular is apparently giving great comfort to the Republicans, and it is undoubtedly for them a far more valuable thing than a forged extract from the London *Times* or the *Iron Era*. But the friends of good government in both parties, and in all parts of the country, will note with unmixed pleasure the fuss they are making over it. When a party which for twenty-five years rigidly confined all the offices of the Government to its own members, professes to be shocked by a clumsy attempt of its opponents to divide the offices equally between both parties in one department of the Government, it shows that, in spite of all obstacles, the good time, in which political strife will rage wholly over better things than small places, is rapidly approaching. Every reproach hurled at the President for his shortcomings in the use of patronage, every "scandal" made by bad appointments or wrongful dismissals, or foolish circulars or orders, shows that the seed has not fallen on stony ground, and that a return to the old state of things is impossible. Let those who are disposed to be disheartened by the smallness of progress recollect for one moment that a circular like General Benet's, if issued in 1868 or 1872, would actually have been considered a ridiculous concession to the Opposition, and that the Secretary of War would have been called on to reprimand him, not for proposing to divide the arsenals between the two parties, but for letting a single Democrat, man, woman, or child, inside the gates.

At that time Gen. Benet would have been called a traitor to his party: he is now denounced as an inhuman monster and hypocrite. We do not know which he would find it harder to bear; but those who accuse him of "making war on women and children" confess by implication that the times have changed for the better, and that the battle of reform is really won.

HOW COMMON THINGS BECOME SACRED.

ANY student who wants to understand how institutions such as monarchy or aristocracy acquired in earlier times a sacred character, and became hedged with a sort of divinity, so that it was considered impious to examine their origin, or question their claims on human reverence, has only to read carefully the history of the Republican party and of the tariff. In 1884 we were brought for the first time face to face with the curious fact that a very large body of Americans were possessed by the idea that the Republican party was entitled by moral right to remain in possession of the Government for an unlimited period. We remember hearing one man of prominence lay it down that President Arthur ought not to hand over the Administration to a Democratic successor unless he was entirely satisfied that it was safe and expedient to do so. Clergymen were hunted out of their parishes, workingmen lost their employment, and storekeepers their custom, and lecturers had their engagements cancelled, on this same assumption that the Republican party had, without reference to the quality of its managers, a sacrosanct character, which made voting against it the sign of moral obliquity. Attempts to show that a party was but a means to an end, that it was sure in the long run to outlive its usefulness, that human societies had to change their institutions as their needs changed, and that all human contrivances, such as governments, needed periodical questioning and overhauling, were resented as sophistries directed against American peace and order. The Democrats were painted as political devils, who would revel in the ruin of the public credit, the plunder of the Treasury, and the destruction of the national industries.

One has only to read the defences of the tariff now frequently put forth to see how successful it also has been in twenty five years in becoming sacred. From 1860 to 1865 it was treated as a purely human contrivance for raising a very large revenue. After that it began rapidly to take on the sacrosanct character—that is, to become something like the flag, "by angel hands to valor given," or like one's aged mother—which it was unpatriotic, *i. e.*, irreverent, to discuss, or even investigate. At first a man who did it only laid himself open to the charge of impropriety or profanity, that is, of something objectionable because it shocked the rest of the company. Professors at college who taught free trade began to be looked on with suspicion, as Unitarians used to be in the beginning of the century. Fathers whose sons talked free trade began to have an uneasy feeling that the boys were keeping bad company and getting into evil ways. The Cobden Club, which prominent politicians like Gen. Garfield joined without hesitation between 1865 and 1870, as an economical society named in honor of a great philanthropist, between 1870 and 1880 took on the air of a society of evil disposed persons, raising immense sums of money for disreputable purposes, such as the ruin of American manufacturing families, the corruption of young men at colleges, and the hiring of adventurers to propagate falsehoods in peaceful communities. The process of sanctification was so rapid, in fact, that by 1880 men shrank from the charge of belonging to the Cobden Club as they would shrink from the charge of frequenting a faro-bank or dealing in lottery policies.

The reaction against such superstition, which, like the reaction against the witchcraft delusion, is sure to come in all civilized communities, has set in since 1884 undoubtedly. That year saw it at its height. The removal of the dread of the Democratic party—which pursued so many people's lives—stripped the sacerdotal robes off the Republican managers, and prepared the way for the purely secular treatment of the tariff as a device for raising money. People have begun to examine it, just as they examine their own income and expenditure, in a thoroughly rationalistic way. But one still comes across numerous proofs of the religious reverence with which it is regarded in some circles, especially by those who profit by it. We have before us the refusal of a country editor to print even as an advertisement any criticisms of it in his paper. The worthy man shrinks from such things as he would shrink from the

publication of an immoral tale or one of "Bob" Ingersoll's controversial lectures. He does not know the mischief he may do by breaking down the popular reverence for the tariff. He asks himself, What would become of the Church and what of the home if the tariff were lowered? Where would the domestic affections be under a 42.78 per cent. duty? What is the state of religion and morality in countries where wool is free? Is it not true that in free-trade countries profane swearing is disgracefully prevalent and chastity little more than a name? The Turks have little or no tariff, and what is the result? Look into the harems, and see the degradation of their women. He thinks too much attention is given to the relation of the tariff to wages and profits, too little to its relation to the fundamental human virtues. He cannot understand the state of mind of a man who thinks that there is nothing essentially corrupting in easy intercourse with foreign dealers, or that you can have steel rails cheap and yet love your neighbor or your country. The good man will get over this by and by, but we must be patient with him.

THE COST OF THE PRESENT TARIFF.

A CORRESPONDENT, referring to the cost of protection to the taxpayers of the United States, wants to know what the present tariff costs, both in the amount of revenue collected and in the enhanced price of protected goods produced at home. The question is not an easy one to answer. The amount of revenue collected from duties on imports it is, of course, easy to ascertain. For the last fiscal year it was about $228,000,000. As to the other sum—the amount paid to the producers of protected goods—there have been gross exaggerations on both sides, and any estimate must be largely a matter of conjecture. Some persons have gone so far as to assume that all manufacturers are protected, and that the prices of the protected articles are raised to the full extent of the duties. It is worth while to notice, therefore, that the two leading manufacturing industries of the country are absolutely unprotected. The census of 1880 placed the product of the flouring and grist mills at $505,000,000, and that of the slaughtering and meat-packing (not including retail butchering) establishments at $303,000,000. The iron and steel industry ranked third, with a total product of $296,000,000. In the two former industries the protective system does cause a slight advance in prices, since it makes dearer the plant used, and often prevents small establishments from purchasing needed machinery. Yet the advance in price thus caused is inconsiderable; and in making estimates, these exporting industries, whose development is hampered by protection, belong rather among the taxpayers than among the tax-gatherers.

If we descend to the minor industries, and take in alphabetical order all those having over 1,000 establishments, we find the following list:

Industry.	Product.
Agricultural implements	$68,000,000
Blacksmithing	43,000,000
Boots and shoes, including custom-work and repairing	196,000,000
Bread and other bakery products	65,000,000
Brick and tile	32,000,000
Carpentering	94,000,000
Carriages and wagons, etc	64,000,000

All of these industries are restricted and hampered more or less by protection. Prices are somewhat advanced, but only in so far as the public is charged with interest on the advances which these industries make to others and to the Government when they buy their raw materials and machinery. This burden must not be counted twice.

If this survey be continued through the entire list of manufactures, it becomes apparent that only about two-fifths of them should be classed among the recipients, rather than among the payers, of protective taxes. The aggregate product of these two-fifths is in the neighborhood of $2,000,000,000. In spite of combinations, and in spite of the use of antiquated machinery and the extravagant methods which Government-aided monopoly fosters, the prices of the protected goods are not much more than half as high on the average as the tariff duties make possible. It would, perhaps, be a moderate estimate to say that the consumers pay an average advance of 25 per cent., or $500,000,000.

But here another point must be considered. The consumers of these protected goods are often the manufacturers themselves. The finished product of one factory is the raw material of another. These protected industries pay over $1,200,000,000 for such interchanged raw materials, and the price of nearly two-thirds of these is enhanced by protection. Whether paid to the Government or to other manufacturers, it is not an extra burden upon the consuming public, although in a broad way it is a clog upon the prosperity of the country. From the $500,000,000 previously found, nearly $200,000,000 must therefore be subtracted.

To the result thus found very little need be added because of the tariffs on imported raw materials. The tax paid to the declining sugar industry of Louisiana amounts to but $6,000,000 a year, and the duties levied to protect "stumpage" and to promote the destruction of our forests and encourage Ohio farmers to use as sheep pastures land which is worth sixty dollars an acre for corn-raising—these have already been reckoned in the increased cost of the product of the woollen and lumber mills. Nothing is to be gained by exaggeration. The total money cost of the protective system annually, over and above the amount paid to the Government, ought not to be reckoned at much more than $300,000,000. This sum, however, is equivalent to the total State and municipal taxation of the country, and, were it a direct tax, would not be tolerated another year by the tax-burdened sections and classes.

The "consequential damages" are probably much more than the direct. An illustration of this is to be found in the tariff on copper ore, which ruined a flourishing industry, having its seat in Boston and Baltimore, viz., that of smelting copper ores from Chili mixed with American ores. How many such industries have been broken down, and how many prevented from coming up, by duties on raw materials and on tools and machinery can only be left to conjecture. The tariff debates of Congress are full of illustrations of the clogging effect of the tariff, which is simply a device for robbing Peter to pay Paul. In the case mentioned, Congress confiscated the property of the Eastern copper-smelters and handed it over to the Lake Superior mine-owners, and called the process protection to American industry.

THE BALANCE OF TRADE.

WE have been looking anxiously for an old-fashioned argument for high tariffs on the balance-of-trade theory. Such arguments are now scarce, but we have found one in the speech of the Hon. Jehu Baker of Illinois, which, although delivered in the House on the 19th of July, was not printed in the *Congressional Record* until the 27th of September. Formerly the balance of trade cut a great figure in discussions of the tariff, but latterly it has fallen into "innocuous desuetude." Its decadence is probably due to the fading away of the "gold scare." The balance-of-trade theory generally requires us to believe that if there is an excess of imports over exports, there will presently be a "drain of gold," and a suspension of specie payments, and an irredeemable currency, and all that.

Two circumstances have conspired to deaden this popular apprehension. One of these is the fact that for nearly twenty years we had an irredeemable currency. The "blood-stained greenback" became very much a popular idol. On the other hand, gold was loaded with the reproach of having "deserted us in our hour of trial." The tendency towards personification of the medium of exchange—a relic, probably, of early superstitions when all things beneficial to man were classed as gods and all things hurtful as demons—has had the effect to degrade gold, in consequence of its unpatriotic behavior during the war; for although gold deserted the Confederates sooner and more completely than it deserted us, that fact was never brought home to us by sharp experience. We only remember that when we were battling for the Union, and when we needed every effective agency of warfare, gold turned tail and scuttled away to Europe. Then the friendly greenback came to our rescue and remained with us to the end. It came out of the conflict, as Senator Oglesby of Illinois eloquently affirmed, "battle-scarred and blood-stained." Our standard of value, like our regimental standards, became something sacred. The very dirt and tatters of the greenback gave it a camp-like and democratic aspect. Gold, on the other hand, acquired a foreign and aristocratic air, which it still wears to the eyes of a great many people.

The other circumstance that has helped to deliver us from the nightmare of gold drains is the silver craze that started up about the time that gold began to repent of its dastardly conduct and come back to us. We all

remember how Wall Street, and the gold bugs, and the bondholders, and the national banks have been berated and scoffed at as a privileged class, as an oligarchy, as bloodsuckers, vampires, etc., etc. This kind of talk is still issuing from the mouth of Senator Stewart of Nevada, and occasionally, but not so much as formerly, from that of Senator Beck of Kentucky. The accusation has been perpetually brought against the gold bugs that they were intentionally doing some injury to silver. Striking down silver and disinheriting silver have been the crimes laid to their charge from year to year, with the intention, of course, of unduly exalting gold and conferring upon that metal the birthright belonging to its twin brother or sister. Naturally, sympathies are aroused for the ill-used metal, the disinherited member of the family.

Both of these circumstances have been adventitious and both misleading, but they have laid the ghost of the balance of trade pretty effectually. Nobody fears gold exportation now; and since nobody fears it, nobody talks about it. We presume that this is the reason why Mr. Baker has dropped gold out of the list of available spooks, and has substituted in place of it "our stored-up wealth." "What is a balance of trade?" asks Mr. Baker. "It is the difference between what a nation sells and what she buys. If she sells more than she buys, the balance is in her favor, and it adds to her stored-up wealth. If she buys more than she sells, the balance is against her and has to be paid for out of her stored-up wealth." No definition of stored-up wealth is given by Mr. Baker. There are very few forms of wealth that will bear storing up for any considerable time. Grain, cotton, provisions, and the bulk of the commodities which are accepted in exchange for other commodities very soon deteriorate on storage. The stored-up wealth of the country consists almost wholly of the instruments of reproduction and transportation, including buildings and other improvements on land. Of course, gold is included in the list of stored-up wealth, but we judge that Mr. Baker did not have this in his mind when he used the phrase. What he meant to say, apparently, was that if a nation buys more than it sells, the balance has to be paid out of her instruments of reproduction and transportation—not out of the products thereof, but by handing over the instruments themselves to foreigners.

Looking at the subject in this light, we are amazed at the financial crisis impending over the British Empire. Usually the balance-of-trade philosopher in this country shuns the trade statistics of Great Britain because they show an enormous balance of trade against that country every year, and this fact does not tally with the common belief that England is a creditor nation towards the world in general, while the balance-of-trade theory requires us to believe that, since her imports exceed her exports, she ought to be a debtor nation. But Mr. Baker does not dodge the English statistics at all. On the contrary, he welcomes them as the aptest illustration available to sustain his position. He shows in tabular form that British imports have exceeded British exports regularly every year from 1854 to the present time, and that the balance of trade against England now reaches the enormous sum of $11,892,633,118. This, he says, "teaches a highly significant lesson." What does it teach? Why, that England owes to other countries a sum equal perhaps to her entire stored-up wealth in the form of machinery, buildings, railroads, and canals, for Mr. Baker says that the trade statistics fall far short of showing the real balance of trade against her, since $250,000,000 per year of her exports are those of foreign and colonial produce, which should be added to the balance against her. So here we have a few billions more or less of British indebtedness to other countries to be added to the large total already mentioned. That Mr. Baker is not thinking about a "drain of gold" is evident from the fact that Great Britain's debt, according to his estimate, is more than double the entire amount of gold in the world, as estimated by good judges, including that used for purposes of ornament.

Weighed down with such a load of debt, Mr. Baker does not wonder that Great Britain would like to get this country into the same predicament as herself. "What," he asks, "could be more natural than that England should desire to unload a part of her crushing adverse balance of trade upon the shoulders of the United States? And this," he continues, "is precisely what the scheme of the Chairman of our American Ways and Means Committee would accomplish." What will become of Great Britain when the other nations call on her for payment, or what will become of them if she fails to pay promptly, Mr. Baker does not tell us. Considering that the other nations have no collateral security, we should say that their position was rather the worse of the two. Is it not probable that England maintains her navy in order to resist the collection of this debt?

Our explanation of the balance of trade is, that a nation is enriched by the goods that she receives rather than by what she parts with. This theory harmonizes with the prevailing conception, that Great Britain is a creditor instead of a debtor nation. It also enables us to cherish the opinion that the eleven or twelve billions of dollars of adverse balance of trade that have been piled against her in the trade returns of the past thirty-five years, represent a gain to her rather than a loss.

"THE WAGES RACKET."

We are in receipt of a large number of inquiries on the subject of wages, most of which it is impossible to answer, as for example: What is the present rate of wages in Belgium? What was the rate of wages in Germany under the free-trade policy? What was the rate of wages in the United States before the war? What is the comparative rate of wages in this country and in Australia? We desire to do everything in our power to satisfy seekers after truth. We look upon the inquiries themselves as very hopeful signs of the awakening of the people to the momentous problem that will, for some years to come, constitute the chief issue in our national politics. But in order to give any satisfactory answer to any question, we must first know what is the basis of the inquiry and what the answer signifies.

"The rate of wages." What wages? Wages are of every kind and degree, from those of the street scavenger to those of the skilled weaver who can produce the Lord's Prayer on a silk handkerchief; from the stone-breaker on the public highway to the electrical engineer; from the boy who carries sheaves in the wheat field to the gold-beater who produces leaves of metal the 367,000th of an inch in thickness. Evidently "the rate of wages" is as impalpable as the Milky Way.

But, it may be replied, we mean the average rate of wages. There is no average rate of wages. Professor Richmond Smith, without any party bias, and with only a scientific intent, has proved, in a series of articles in the *Political Science Quarterly*, that the current tables, compiled and published by the grandmothers of statistics in this country as average rates of wages, are quite delusive. What is the average rate of wages of three boys, four girls, twenty-five women and seventy-five men, one foreman and two assistant foremen, all working at different trades? The usual way to determine the average rate is to add up the total weekly wages of all and divide the sum by the number of persons. But what does this tell us? Merely that if the whole sum were thus divided, each person would get a wage quite different from what he does get. But when we have reached this useless result, we need to know how many hours the wage-earners work, and how steady their employment is, and whether the unsteadiness of employment is due to their own choice or to the slackness of trade.

In order to reach any useful result, we need to know especially what is the efficiency of labor, that is, what any given unit of labor produces. In India, for example, grass is cut with a pocket-knife by men squatting on their haunches, and carrying a jute bag on their shoulders in which they put the hay crop by handfuls. In America, it is cut by a hay harvester drawn by horses, the driver sitting on a comfortable seat. In Italy, ploughing is done by relays of men and women using wooden mattocks. In England, it is done by gang-ploughs run by steam or electricity. An American workman turns out 33 per cent. more shoes with a given machine than an English workman using the same machine. What can the rate of wages do for us in such cases towards the solution of any economical problem? Yet such cases are as multifarious as the inhabitants of the earth.

Again, the rate of wages is different in different parts of the same country. This variation happens in the same trades. The variation will sometimes run as high as 100 per cent. Mr. John Jarrett testified before a committee of Congress, in 1883, that the wages in Western rolling mills was from 50 per cent. to 200 per cent. higher than in the

Bethlehem Iron Works of Pennsylvania. We will quote his exact words:

"Now I want to say further that the wages paid in that concern were in some instances 50 per cent. less than those paid in the Western mills. I will go further: I will say, for instance, that in 1882 there was at least over double the amount paid in Western mills for rolling hands that was paid in that mill, *perhaps nearly three times as much.*"

Mr. Jarrett is a well-known high-tariff spouter. Mr. Blaine is another, and he told us, in his famous cotton-goods report, that the wages of cotton-spinners in Massachusetts were higher than in the other New England States and their hours of work shorter.

Now, we ask again, what can the "rate of wages" tell us, even if we could resolve that Milky Way and bring it into our arithmetical tables? Nothing at all. Take the comparative rates of wages that are now flooding the country from Washington under the frank of "Bill" Chandler. Here is a specimen:

	England.	U. S.
Cotton-mill hands....	$4.60	$6.72

Both figures are wrong, as Mr. Blaine proved to us in the report already referred to. But suppose they were right. Would they tell us how much cloth $4.60 in wages produces in England and how much in the United States? Would the nine cents per day paid to the East Indian grass-cutter convince us that the American horse-mower, getting $1.50, could never compete with him in the hay market? A few years ago an American citizen went to Brazil to restore a ruined sugar plantation. The first thing he did was to double the rations of the hands. They had been half starved, and were in a condition of bodily weakness and mental mutiny. The result of doubling the pay was to more than double the crop. The plantation was restored and became profitable to its owner.

There are signs that "the wages racket" has nearly run its course, and that workingmen are beginning to see its hollowness and inconsequential character. We doubt whether it will hold out thirty days longer.

THE GREAT AWAKENING.

The greatest drawback to tariff reform in years gone by has been the inability to interest the masses in the subject. The law of inertia, or indisposition to change, is as great and significant in the mental or intellectual world as it is in the material. Something has got to take place in both cases, or the tendency of things will be to remain as they are; and in the case of the tariff iniquity, this something did not occur in sufficient force until the bold and clear appeal which President Cleveland made to the American people in December last, commanded, in virtue of his office, universal attention. Simultaneously popular interest was excited. Every day has since seen it widen and deepen, and now one of its most striking features is the number of elaborate investigations which individuals in different portions of the country are making in respect to the claims of the protectionists for a longer continuance of high duties, and the almost uniformly adverse judgment which such investigations are inducing in almost every mind capable of clear and unprejudiced reasoning.

Thus, for example, in response to an offer some time since of a prize of $250 by the Reform Club of this city for the best essay on the injurious influences of the existing tariff on the local industries of any district, it is understood that over 250 essays have been sent in, and that many of these are of a high order of excellence, and embody revelations of great value in future discussions. In addition to this, many individuals, in all parts of the country, who, since the President's message, have made for the first time a special study of the tariff, have become so convinced of its national impolicy, and so interested in their conclusions, that they are printing them in an attractive way and circulating them among their friends and the public, so that hardly a day now passes which does not bring one or more of such publications to our notice.

One of the most recent and interesting of these which we have seen, replete with homely, common-sense propositions and deductions, not lacking in wit, and having withal a strong, old-school, Puritanic flavor, is entitled 'Tariff Chestnuts, or, Prepared Food for an Over-fed but still Hungry Public,' by George Brickett, and having the imprint of "Boston." As a specimen of its contents we quote the following from its exposition of "What constitutes Protection to American Industries?"

"Protection to American industries is not a tax paid by foreigners, but one paid by Americans. If you think it wise to protect an industry that you are not directly interested in, I make this proposition to you. Tax yourselves only one cent a year, and give the proceeds to me, and I will open a new American industry, agreeing to employ 1,200 native American laborers at wages of $500 a year, or I will give them $450 a year and allow them 365 holidays. You are following me as an arithmetician. In round numbers there are 60,000,000 people to be taxed.

One cent from each amounts to.....	$600,000 00
1,200 laborers at $450 each would take of this amount.....	540,000 00
Leaving for me.....	$60,000 00

In the new industry twelve hundred laborers are employed at good wages and very light work. Sixty thousand dollars is a fair remuneration for my severe mental strain. Twelve hundred and one of our population, pure, native Americans, are engaged in a business profitable to them, and the other 59,998,799 are losers of only one cent each. This business I will continue, and I will further agree not to reduce the wages of my help, to employ only natives, and not to import laborers from Hungary, Poland, or Italy to compete with them. There shall be no 'shut-down,' no strikes, and in ten years I agree to have a free library, gymnasium, and hospital for my help. I further agree to find politicians who will point to this new industry as one that has grown up entirely under the beneficent workings of protection. I will refer to this industry, myself, as depending absolutely upon the glorious American idea of protection. But can you afford this? Haven't you a nobler use for the $600,000? Cannot you, for this amount, employ the 1,200 in some manner that shall be profitable to you as well as to them? Protection to American industries is a profit to the few and a loss to the many."

Possibly some in reading the above may regard this illustration of Mr. Brickett, although a happy one, as nevertheless somewhat extravagant; but, if so, they would be mistaken, for within a few days one Charles Duffy, in a letter to the Chicago *Inter-Ocean*, has put the case much more forcibly and practically. He states that he knows all about manufacturing tin-plate, and is prepared to commence the business in this country and supply all its demands for this article, if Congress will only advance the present duty from 1 cent per pound to 2½ cents; or, in other words, pay the good and patriotic Duffy $14,250,000 for establishing a new American industry of substantially the same kind as Mr. Brickett proposes in his 'Tariff Chestnuts' to do on a smaller scale, and on the basis of an annual contribution of the people of the country of only $600,000. But whether Mr. Brickett has borrowed his idea of protecting American industry from Mr. Duffy, or Mr. Duffy has unwittingly anticipated Mr. Brickett, one thing is certain, and that is, that the influence which Mr. Brickett and other like people are now exerting, is likely soon to satisfy Mr. Duffy and all his kind of folk that if they expect to get $14,250,000 per annum out of the country by taxation on tin-plate, they need to hurry up, for the day for such transactions, whether Mr. Cleveland is re-elected or not, is rapidly nearing its end.

IMPERIAL FEDERATION.

London, September 10, 1888.

It is often remarked that new ideas take root and grow very slowly in England. British instincts are conservative; they cling strongly to the past and its lines of thought and action. The insular mind does not venture very far ahead; all movements which look to grappling with the problems of the future are extremely cautious and tentative, not to say almost suspicious and distrustful. Perhaps this springs partly from the weight of the present difficulties; the Empire always has on its hands, either at home or abroad, quite enough to absorb the attention of its statesmen and thinkers. Still, the world is in a marvellous state of flux in this nineteenth century: problems of the most fundamental and far-reaching character develop rapidly, thrust themselves forward into notice, compel attention, clamor for solution. Even British inertia has to respond to the quickening impulses of steam and electricity. For a long time the people of these islands seemed comparatively unconscious of the great national results which must flow from the fact that year by year vast swarms of people were leaving their shores to find new homes in new lands still under British sway. Of late they are certainly awaking to the importance of the new factors which this migration is introducing into the national life, and are doing so with unwonted alertness.

The whole attitude of the public mind on this question has quite changed within a comparatively short time. Fourteen years ago, when, as a Canadian, I first discussed the problems of British unity, or the so-called Imperial Federation idea, at the Union (the great debating school of Oxford), the question was looked upon as a new one. Not only was this true of undergraduate Oxford, but of many men in public life with whom I then talked upon the subject: only here and there was one found who had thought about it at all. All this has been changed in the last few years. J. R. Seeley, the well-known Cambridge Professor of History, has devoted a brilliant series of university lectures to the subject, and these, published under the title of the 'Expansion of England,' have found an immense and sympathetic audience throughout the English-speaking

world. Goldwin Smith, the no less brilliant, but somewhat pessimistic, Oxford Professor of History, who has chosen Canada as his home, finds his pen pretty constantly employed in trying to throw cold water upon a movement which threatens to blaze up into a national enthusiasm, but which is opposed to certain pet political dogmas of his own invention.

For some time the reproach most commonly made by Mr. Smith and others against the advocates of a more complete national unity was, that they were mere theorists, that practical public men held the idea at arm's length. This reproach no longer exists. Probably one of the most practical, shrewd, and business-like men that the House of Commons has known for some years was the late W. E. Forster. To the problem of Imperial Federation he devoted much of his later thought, and he had publicly announced that his chief object in life was to do all he could to forward the idea. Lord Rosebery, whose past career and present prestige clearly mark him out as a possible Premier of England, a man of tried caution and approved judgment, has deliberately accepted for himself the leadership of the movement since Mr. Forster's death; and though he leads the way too slowly to satisfy some, yet he loses no opportunity of pressing the idea upon his countrymen as one of the first importance both for those at home and those abroad. As President of the Federation League, he lately, by a special circular, directed the attention of the bishops present at the Lambeth Conference from every part of the British world to the national importance of the subject, particularly in its bearing upon the great missionary enterprises of British Christians. With a like address he endeavored to enlist the sympathy of the members of the Pan-Presbyterian Council in session at London. In both cases the appeal met, I believe, with satisfactory response. Lord Rosebery points out that the object of the League is to secure "the closest possible union of the interests ruled by the British Crown, consistent with that national free development which is the birthright of British subjects all over the world—the closest union in sympathy, in external action, and in defence." He goes on to say that, "so far as the human intellect can discern, there is nothing in the affairs of this world which is so likely to realize that 'peace and good-will towards men' which it is the object of the Church to establish, as the voluntary entrance of the people of this great Empire into a federation for the defence of common interests, the maintenance of common rights, and the fulfilment of those responsibilities which have ever been held by the British race to be attached to the possession of power."

In expressions such as these, I believe that Lord Rosebery is only reflecting sentiments which are fast becoming a fixed idea in the British mind, or, at least, in the mind of that section of the British people which thinks. The idea is not monopolized by any party or any set of politicians, and its warmest advocates are drawn in about equal numbers from Liberals and Conservatives alike. Many thinkers believe that no finality can ever be looked for on such a question as Irish Home Rule until it is dealt with on a broad national basis, when all the English-speaking parts of the Empire shall be placed on a similar footing, and when a definite line of separation shall be fixed between matters of local and matters of imperial interest. Two utterances upon this aspect of the question have attracted a good deal of attention within the past few weeks. In Canada Archbishop O'Brien of Halifax, speaking at a meeting of the Imperial Federation League, took the ground that the objects of the League did not clash with the aspirations of the Home Rule party, but that Home Rule would have its best opportunity in a wisely federated Empire. "We hope to see," he said, "each colony and state of this Empire brought together and knitted into one grand whole, in which individuality will not be swallowed up in union, but unity secured and perfected by the guaranteed autonomy of each unit." The late correspondence between Mr. Rhodes and Mr. Parnell touched upon the same point. Mr. Rhodes, an influential British subject from South Africa, pointed out to Mr. Parnell that he and many others, while sympathizing with the idea of Home Rule, could not, as ardent supporters of Imperial Federation, also support a measure which, like Mr. Gladstone's Home Rule Bill, did away with Irish representation at Westminster. This provision, he claimed, looked to disintegration rather than federation. Mr. Parnell at once replied that he had regarded the clause referred to as a great defect in Mr. Gladstone's bill, and affirmed that Home Rule, as he understood it, was not at variance with the aims of the Federation League. A subscription of ten thousand pounds to the Irish fund by Mr. Rhodes was the outcome of this declaration of Mr. Parnell.

These facts may serve as illustrations of the drift of the national thought. That Government has begun to feel the strength of the movement is shown by the significant circumstance that last year, at the suggestion of the Federation League, Lord Salisbury was induced to summon a conference of officially appointed delegates from all the great colonies to consult and advise upon questions of common interest. Ten or fifteen years ago such a step would have been looked upon by an English statesman as absurd: now it seems but a natural recognition of the widening of the national horizon. The fact that such a conference could, without special difficulty, be called in London, was itself a striking proof that space is not now a serious hindrance to effective national unity.

Population goes on increasing in Britain with surprising rapidity. The addition each year is estimated at about 400,000. The accumulating social pressure which this implies gives a strong impulse to political thought. Only a few weeks ago an influential deputation waited upon the Premier, and urged the advisability of giving direct financial support to a large scheme of State-aided emigration to the colonies, supporting their views by the argument that such a step would serve the double purpose of relieving pressure at home and strengthening the Empire in its outlying parts. While public aid is thus invoked, private philanthropy is working on parallel lines, and various religious and benevolent bodies are engaged in the work of selecting good emigrants, and assisting them to find better homes in Canada, Australia, or South Africa. The conditions under which colonization of this kind is carried on, tends to strengthen greatly the sense of national unity.

The points to which I have referred are only a few of the many indications that are visible here in England of the rapidly gathering strength of the Federation movement. It would never have gone so far, however, unless there had been a responsive or, indeed, a preliminary movement in the colonies. I think that the most critical or hostile observer would be forced to admit that at present, throughout the Empire, the tendency is decisively towards closer union of the various parts, rather than disintegration. It is probably the largest question now coming up within the domain of peaceful political development.

GEORGE R. PARKIN.

IN THE FOOTSTEPS OF DANTE.

RAVENNA, July 31, 1888.

HERE, in face of Dante's tomb, it is perhaps allowable to regret that Ampère's charming 'Voyage Dantesque' is after all so imperfect, and that no one has had the courage to supply what is lacking in that, and still less to write another book on the same theme from a somewhat different point of view. Italy is better known to outsiders than it was when Ampère wrote; but there are many places where Dante stayed which are seldom visited by the traveller, and about the aspect of which at the time when Dante lived the reader of the 'Commedia' knows next to nothing. Yet Dante seldom mentioned a place, and never spoke of one in the way of description or comparison, unless he had himself seen it and it had left a strong impression on his mind. Among the multitude of commentators few have illustrated the great poem, either as regards persons or places, by a careful study of local history. Blanc, in his well-known dictionary, and even Don Giacomo Poletto, in his more ambitious 'Dizionario Dantesco,' of which the seventh and concluding volume has recently been published, often give no further information about a person or a place than is found in Dante's own words, turned by them into prose. Many of the allusions of the poet cannot be properly appreciated until the family history of each of the men praised or abused by Dante is thoroughly understood, and the relations of these men to each other and to Dante have been carefully studied. Owing to the migrations of families, the Guelphs and Ghibellines of the different Italian cities seem connected with one another in such unexpected ways that it requires a considerable knowledge of old chronicles and of more modern compilations to disentangle the knot.

A study of this kind has been undertaken by Isidoro del Lungo of Florence, who has long occupied himself with that epoch, in a book just published called 'Dante ne' tempi di Dante.' But, in order to be thorough, the author has been obliged to restrict himself to very few subjects, and treats only of the new people in Florence in Dante's times—William of Durfort and Campaldino; a family of Pisan Guelphs in Dante's time; the relations of Dante to the house of Este; and his dispute with Forese Donati.

A month's stay on the slopes of the Apennines, on the edge of the Romagna, interested me in several of the old castles and towns mentioned by Dante; and drives through the country, and occasional visits to the libraries of Forli, Faenza and Ravenna, convinced me that much might still be done to elucidate the poet's invective against the Romagna, in the fourteenth canto of the 'Purgatorio,' as well as to throw light on other passages.

According to Balbo, Dante probably went from Arezzo to Forli in the autumn of 1302. He must either have gone up the valley of the Arno and then crossed the mountains with great difficulty, or he must have gone back towards Florence as far as Pontassieve and taken the well-known road through the pass which is now traversed by the diligence. The road to Faenza, almost parallel to this, is not known to have existed until a century later. At all events, he stopped, apparently for more than a day, in the monastery of San Benedetto, situated on a high hill, a little below the high pass where several small valleys come together, and the streams which flow through them combine and form what is now called the River Montone, and was apparently then known as the Acquacheta. What is now the largest and

evidently the main stream is now called the Montone above this junction, even to its source. At San Benedetto it receives from the right the Troncalossa; then a few steps further on the left, the Acquacheta; and half a mile further down on the right, the Caprile. Increased by other brooks, it is a stream of considerable size at Castrocaro, especially in the spring or autumn, and in summer immediately after rain. Just before reaching Forli it is joined by the Ronco, a stream of nearly equal size, flowing down the parallel valley on the right, which, in distinction from the Acquacheta, was known in the Middle Ages as the Acquaviva. Formerly the river again divided, and embraced Forli between its two arms, both of which fall into the sea, and often caused great danger by the severity and frequency of its freshets. The name Montone—the ram—is variously explained: by some, on account of the two horns or branches of the river; by others, from the savage frequency with which it butted against the walls of Forli. The ancients knew one of the two arms running into the sea—and possibly even both—as the Vitis, Vitius, or Utens. The rage of the river has since been appeased, partly by devastation among the trees in the mountains, and partly by a new, well-regulated channel, through which—in spite of frequent outlets for irrigation—it peaceably reaches the sea at Ravenna. It did not require a great stretch of geographical imagination, or rather of vision, for Dante, standing in front of the cascade of San Benedetto, to perceive that this was the first river, except the Po, which rose in the Apennines and emptied into the Adriatic. The idea probably occurred to him only when, on the shore of the Adriatic, he noticed how near its mouth was to that of the Po, and found on reflection that every Apennine stream, from Monte Viso on the extreme western frontier of Italy, whose great peak is sometimes seen from the coast of Mentone, as far as Ravenna, is absorbed by the Po itself.

That Dante should have visited the cascade shows that he must have passed some little time at San Benedetto, for it is distant an hour and a half on horseback, and more on foot by a steep and scrambling path. It shows, too, that Dante was not destitute of love for mountains and landscapes, as Mr. Ruskin and some others would have us suppose, if, when on a long and fatiguing journey—in exile, too—he went so far out of his way simply to see a mountain-gorge and a waterfall. Unfortunately, our little party lacked Dante's pluck, and, although we had driven up the valley four hours for the express purpose of visiting the cascade, when we found the length of time required, which would prevent our returning home that night, and the difficulties of the way, we put it off till another time, especially as the Acquacheta was then so low that the inhabitants told us it would be hard to see even a trickling of water. Olindo Guerrini, with whom I have talked since, says that the cascade is now very small and insignificant, and by no means authorizes Dante's use of the word *rimbomba*. But we agreed that, in all probability, the aspect of the place, from the cutting down of trees and the wearing away of rocks and earth, is very different now from what it was in Dante's time. I walked up the ravine far enough, however, to see that the hillsides were ploughed at short distances with the tracks where, in spring or rainy weather, torrents ran, leaped, or slid down to reach the stream below; and I could not help wondering whether the word thousands (*mille*) could not refer to these torrents rather than to the expected inhabitants of either town or abbey. Both are in a very picturesque situation: the ruins of the abbey—for there is little now except a small church—on the top of the hill; the village, which is called San Benedetto in Alpibus, partly grouped about the Badia, and partly in the valley below. The chief street leading up to the church is named Via Dante.

As we descend the valley, the road running sometimes close to the water, at others making sharp turns at the edge of precipices hundreds of feet above, we see on the other side, between Portico and Rocca San Casciano, the ruins of the old castle of Calboli, the home of that house once so powerful, at Forli, of whom one member is praised by Dante in the 'Purgatorio,' while the remainder are castigated because they were of opposite parties to Dante and his friends, and one of them, Fulcieri da Calboli, was in power at Florence. This castle was beseiged in the autumn of 1277 by Count Guido Novello, then Podestà in Faenza for the Forlivesi—

"in order to wrest this post from the exiles, and free the neighboring peasants and subjects of Forli from their inroads. There were in the castle Rinieri and Guido Calboli, brothers and lords of the place, and with them other nobles and 800 defenders; the Senate of Bologna having given Rinieri 12,000 lire, so that he could provide for his defence for at least ten months, with the promise of aid. Nevertheless, assistance being prevented by the difficulties of the mountains and the passes, and the castle being bombarded by seven enormous machines, which threw huge stones and laid low the houses and killed the men, the lords of Calboli, together with Count Regolo, lord of Particeto, and other exiles, surrendered; safety being promised to their persons and to as many of their goods as they could carry away."

The castle was burned and destroyed, but was rebuilt in the time of Pope Martin IV. The family continued important and powerful until it subsequently became merged in the Paulucci family—the source of many eminent men—and exists to the present day at Forli, the head having the title of Marchese Paulucci di Calboli. One branch has even settled in Russia.

Rocca San Casciano is a very dilapidated and almost shapeless ruin, towering about the flourishing pretty town of the same name at the bottom of the valley. So remote is this little place from the busy world that one finds, almost without surprise, a well-printed thick octavo volume both written and published there this very year—a Latin georgic poem with an Italian verse translation by Giuseppe Mangozzi, called 'La Cerere della Romagna Toscana,' which is not without poetical merits, and is curious as a study of local agriculture and country customs. A little way further, and we see the high fortress of Castrocaro in the distance, but, before reaching it, come upon the picturesque castle of Dovadola. After passing Castrocaro and Terra del Sole, spoken of in detail in a previous letter, we see far to the right on a parallel range of hills the tall square tower of the Caminate, which dominates all this landscape; and then the buttresses of Bertinoro, called by Dante Brettinoro, once a stronghold, and now the favorite summer resort of the inhabitants of Forli, whose vineyards and cheerful villas cover all the slopes. This was the home of Guido del Duca, into whose mouth is placed the invective against the Romagna, but whose identity seems lost in the crowd of other Guidos. In the hills above Bertinoro stood the castle of Polenta, whose eagle protected Dante in exile at Ravenna, and which was the ancestral home of poor Francesca da Rimini. There remains nothing of it now but a formless mound, for after the castle was destroyed its stones were taken to build a little chapel. This has furnished Olindo Guerrini (Stecchetti) with the subject for a short poem presenting some of his peculiar views, which must be given in an unrhymed version:

"THE CASTLE OF POLENTA.

"O passer-by, who hastenest thy step
Along the lonely road,
Lift up thy gaze toward this ruined mound,
Regard this heap of stones.

"For once a castle grim did darkly frown
Upon this very hill,
Whose lord viewed all his vassals round about
As so much food for war.

"The blood he shed for vengeance cried aloud,
Which God did give at last:
The castle fell, and on its site arose
A humble little church.

"But cursed is the place! The jealous fates
All peace have torn away:
Rapine among the cottagers still reigns
As once it reigned before.

"The cruel lord no longer stains with blood
The valleys and the hills:
A bestial parish priest instead takes tithes
Of all the peasant girls."

From Bertinoro there is a wide view over the great Romagna plain, that land which

"sits by the seas,
Upon that shore to which the Po descends,
With all his followers, in search of peace."

One can see nearly all the towns mentioned by Dante in this region from above Faenza to the north, as far as Rimini in the dim southern distance. Each one has been so characterized by the poet that, when they have once been visited, his description cannot be forgotten. It is enough to mention Cesena, because Ampère apparently saw the town only in passing, and considers that in the description of Dante the political has got the better of the topographical feeling. Any one who has approached the town from the north, and has seen it apparently on the middle of the hillside, and who then, after passing the brimstone refineries, crossing the bridge, and toiling up the steep street, has come to the open market-place, above which is the towering Rocca with its castle, and has then gone further on, winding up a still steeper hill to the picturesque sanctuary of La Madonna del Monte, with its splendid view—will at once admit the poet's terse and truthful description:

"And that of which the Savio bathes the flank,
Even as it lies between the plain and mountain,
Lives between tyranny and a free state."

(It is unpleasant to quote from such a bald and unpoetical translation as that of Longfellow, which is often so literal that it cannot be understood without the aid of the original; but it is the only one at hand, and is probably the one most easily accessible to the reader.)

Dante, when he was at Forli, probably heard enough about Guido Buonatti, the astrologer, to justify himself in placing him low down in hell as a type, by the side of Michael Scott, in spite of his being regarded as one of the worthies of his native place. Poor Tibaldello Zambrasi is put in the lowest circle of hell, because he opened the gates of Faenza to the enemy (whom Longfellow wrongly calls the French, in addition to giving Tibaldello a wrong family name). It is only from the old chronicles that we learn the reasons for his act, and can then see the motives of the poet's enmity. In 1269 Faenza had been once more conquered from Bologna by the men of Forli, who sent there as Podestà Count Glicerio of Castrocaro; and when, a few years later, the Guelphs of Bologna, headed by the powerful family of the Geremei, had exiled their rivals, the Lambertazzi, and a great number of Ghibellines, these latter were received with open arms by Forli, and some of them established themselves in Faenza, where both they and the men of Forli easily succeeded in making themselves very obnoxious. By 1281 Tibaldello, although he had always been a strong Ghibelline, had got so indignant with the conquerors, and especially with the Lambertazzi, who had recently insulted him by killing his favorite little pig, that he swore ven-

geance. He began to feign himself insane, to lament immoderately for his lost pig, and to do all sorts of nonsense. He professed to divert his affections to a lean, half-starved old mare, nothing but skin and bone, which at last he carefully shaved, and, with plentiful use of sticks and stones, used to chase through the town. The rabble followed with shouts, and when the uproar caused the Lambertazzi to be on the alert, they found nothing but crazy Tibaldello and his old mare. Then he began to raise commotions at night, with cries of "To arms! to arms!" until he had entirely succeeded in lulling the vigilance of the usurpers, and was given full immunity for his absurd acts. Then, with a confidant, he one morning issued from the town, dressed as a sportsman, with a falcon on his wrist and a brace of setters, amid the laughter of his compatriots. Once outside, they changed their clothes for friars' gowns, and rode straight for Bologna, where, in secret council, they revealed their plot, and offered to deliver up Faenza. After some little negotiation the plan was arranged, and at dawn of St. Bartholomew's Day the gates were opened to the Bolognese, and the ruling faction was awaked by loud cries of "Long live the Church! Death to the Lambertazzi and the Forlivesi!" After a sharp fight, in which many were killed, the Lambertazzi and their supporters had to flee, and for some years Faenza was restored to the dominion of the Church. Tibaldello and all his family emigrated to Bologna, where they received all the privileges of the native nobility, and there was established the festival of La Porchetta, or the little pig, which was for centuries celebrated on St. Bartholomew's Day. Pope Martin IV., encouraged by this, wished to get possession of the other towns of the Romagna, and sent out a considerable army, in which were many Neapolitans and French, under the command of a French general Giovanni (also called Guido) d'Appia. In a battle on September 16, which brought Forli to great straits, the papal troops were victorious, but, among others, Tibaldello was killed.

In the fourteenth canto of the 'Purgatorio,' Dante says:

> "O Ugolin de' Fantoli, secure
> Thy name is, since no longer is awaited
> One who, degenerating, can obscure it."

And the commentators pretty unanimously tell us that Ugolino was a worthy and honorable gentleman of Faenza "who died without heirs, and thus his name was saved," taking the words in their literal sense. Apparently, however, the poet speaks sarcastically. Ugolino di Albertino Fantolino di Zerfognano, Count of Brisighella, lived at the Castle of Calamello in the valley of the Lamone in the mountains above Faenza, and was a noted Guelph. He died in 1278, but not without heirs; and his son, Ottaviano, two years afterwards, married the daughter of the Tibaldello just spoken of. So that Dante probably means that Ugolino's name had sunk so low that no degenerate descendant could obscure it more.

Nearly every line of this fourteenth canto contains a scrap of municipal history sadly needing elucidation and explanation. My stay in Castrocaro interested me in the lines:

> "Bagnacaval does well in not begetting,
> And ill does Castrocaro, and Conio worse,
> In taking trouble to beget such counts,"

especially as the commentators have offered no reasonable explanation of them. Bagnacavallo is now a small town on the railway between Bologna and Ravenna, about fifteen miles from the latter city, and is perhaps better known to us as the place where Byron's daughter Allegra died in a conventual school. In the latter half of the eleventh century we find Bagnacavallo governed by independent counts of the Malvicino or Malabocca family of Ravenna, who, in spite of some disasters, maintained themselves for over a hundred years. Count Ruggiero, who succeeded in 1250, had even a strong party in Ravenna itself, opposed to the Traversari family, of whom also Dante makes mention. Bagnacavallo was not large enough to satisfy the ambition of the princes of that time, and when Malvicino III. succeeded in 1281, he was living and intriguing at Forli. In 1296 he was elected Podestà of Cesena, in spite of the fact that he had been excommunicated and outlawed by the Pope. Nevertheless, he was not an adherent of the Ghibellines, and two years afterwards he ravaged and sacked the territory of Cunio. He was, of course, included in the general peace of Romagna towns in 1300, the jubilee year, but was still an object of dislike to Dante's friends when the poet first visited that region. He died about 1305, leaving an only daughter, Catherine, though a certain Ludovico, the very last of the family, appears on the scene fifty years later. In 1308 Bagnacavallo was captured by the Counts of Cunio, one of whom, Count Bernardino, was elected Podestà and maintained himself for twenty years, when he was exiled, and the town was annexed to the papal dominions, of which it formed a part until the present century.

Cunio, which Dante calls Conio, and the site of which seems utterly unknown to the commentators, was at one time a strong castle situated on the level country on the left bank of the Senio, between the town of Cotignola and the parish church of Felisio. It had indeed been destroyed before Dante wrote—for the last time, and then thoroughly, in 1296, by the Ghibellines, and especially the people of Faenza, lest it should be sold to Ravenna. But the Counts still existed—a large family of them too, who had sway over a large and fertile territory—and, when they could not rebuild Cunio, took refuge in one of their other castles, Barbiano, whence, on account of family disputes, some withdrew to Lugo and Imola, and ultimately founded several families. At that time, being independent and warlike, they caused considerable trouble to the Ghibellines, and we can easily understand Dante's wish that they should have no posterity. It was better, for the fame of the family at least, that this prayer was not granted, for Alberico was a very distinguished *condottiere* at the end of the fourteenth and the beginning of the fifteenth century. He defended Romagna against the Duke of Anjou; as Captain-General of the papal troops he was victorious at Naples, and triumphed at Rome; in 1402 he took Bologna from the Visconti, and was then made Grand Constable of Naples under King Ladislas; the next year he took Bologna again for the Pope, and only two years afterwards was excommunicated because he had gone back to the Neapolitan service without permission, and had been accused of irregularly seizing papal castles.

It seems almost needless to say that the better we understand the motives of the poet and the allusions which he makes, the better we appreciate the poem. Even these hasty and brief studies—mere amusements of a summer journey—convince me that it would probably be possible, although it would be a difficult and long task, to explain every historical allusion in the 'Commedia'; at all events, there is room and need for a careful dictionary of every place and person mentioned by Dante. E. S.

Correspondence.

THE TRUE INWARDNESS OF THE VERMONT ELECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some weeks since, a Vermont correspondent of the *Nation*—presumably a Congregationalist clergyman recently settled in the State—complained somewhat bitterly of the Democratic management of the post-office business in that State, with reference to the duty of the Independents in the approaching national election. This complaint, in connection with the recent State election, and some uses made of it by partisan Republican journals and platform speakers, suggests this note from one who has some knowledge of the State "from Pownal to Derby Line."

It is lamentably true that the postal service in Vermont has suffered very material depreciation during the present Administration, and no one who knows the nature, capacity, and purpose of the Vermont Democratic ring will be at all surprised, or greatly disposed to criticise President Cleveland. The Vermont Democracy is the most unique organization in the history of modern political development. It is not a party, in the sense of an organization with political ideas or policy of administration to enforce and illustrate for the public weal, measures to carry, and reforms to be adopted. The Vermont Democracy is not a party; it knows nothing about ideas, principles, and measures: it is a clique, a ring, small and select, of party bosses, with several thousand voters who go to the polls and register the will of the leaders. There are Democrats good and true in the State by the thousand, but they are not organized so as to resist effectively the unscrupulous ring. These Democrats are as intelligent and patriotic and public-spirited as any men in the State, and they constitute the majority of the 17,331 votes given by the State in 1884 for Cleveland; but they are practically outside the ring, and have no effective influence on the conduct of the party or the "base uses" to which it is put by its masters.

In fact, the Democratic party does not exist in Vermont for State purposes, though it goes through the form of nominating State officers biennially, and voting for them, so as to preserve the party from disintegration. For years before the war the venerable Paul Dillingham used to stand as the party candidate for gubernatorial honors; and after the election was over and his overwhelming defeat was "officially assured," John G. Saxe, then of the Burlington *Sentinel*, would indite him a poem of political condolence over his misfortune. Later "Governor" (as everybody calls him) W. H. H. Bingham of Stowe, did the honors for his party; a few years ago they persuaded the Hon. E. J. Phelps, who, in addition to his other achievements, wrote the best poem on "Essex Junction" extant in the English or any other language, to run for governor. Recently, they have picked up such men as they could get. This year's candidate no one but a politician would think of as governor, while Mr. Dillingham, the son of Paul, one of the great war governors of the State, is confessedly the brightest, most capable and promising young man in Vermont to-day.

The Vermont Democracy exists and is ruled by two bosses, well known to every Vermonter at home and abroad, for the sole and supreme purpose of the national patronage in the State during a Democratic administration. This is its sole and only reason for living. It seeks no State victory; in fact, I do not believe they would

know what to do with the State on their hands, if by some accident they should carry an election. It is the spoils of the national Administration they want. After twenty-five years of waiting, the day of these bosses came, and, as there is but one custom office in the State, and one boss wanted that—and but one Government building to be erected, and the other wanted the superintendency of that—there was only the postal service for the henchmen. Hence, old, experienced, and valuable route-agents were dismissed by Col. Vilas, at the behest of these party leaders, first-class postmasters turned out, and, in not a few instances, wholly incompetent men put in their places. And so it has gone all over the State, and this kind of business was just as congenial to Col. Vilas as to the Vermont leaders.

The same is true to a large extent throughout New England, and hence Col. Vilas's administration of the Post-Office Department not only failed to make friends for the President, but has actually alienated some of his best supporters. The postal service comes home to the great masses of the people in New England, and the one thing clergymen, teachers, and business men there will not tolerate with any patience is bad mail service. Thousands of them care not for the sex or political affiliation of postmasters, route agents, etc., but they insist on good service; and that is where Col. Vilas was the evil genius of the Administration in New England, and his work injured his party in Vermont; and in the recent State election the people associated this vitiated mail service with these well-known party bosses, and took this opportunity to "hit" them. But for these things Vermont would have shown marked Democratic gains. Hence, any apparent Republican gains are not attributable to Edmunds's "loyalty" this year, nor yet to fresh party enthusiasm, nor to any free-trade scare, albeit high tariff on wool is political orthodoxy in that State, though more Vermonters are engaged in dairying than in wool-growing, and even this is in the hands of the small but wealthy and influential Merino sheep ring. The apparent Republican gains grow out of this revolt against obnoxious bosses and a degraded public service, which is felt in nearly every home in the State.

As an original Mugwump, an unyielding Independent, and a friend and supporter of President Cleveland, I write this to show the true inwardness of the Vermont election. I have keenly regretted that this degradation of the postal service in Vermont by local machine politicians, as above described, aided by Cabinet officers, should be used by the President's political opponents as a proof of his declining strength. The same is true too largely in other portions of New England, and this mail service is the only feature of public life which would not have been worse under Blaine.

VERMONTER.

CHICAGO, September 25, 1888.

A PSYCHICAL COINCIDENCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: For the benefit of investigators into the subject of coincidence, I send you the following statement, premising that the parties (man and wife) to whom the dream came are educated people, past forty years old, and not given to superstition, and the facts are stated as they actually occurred, without any paring down or dovetailing:

The two persons were asleep in the same room about 7:00 A. M., servants being up and moving about in the house, and making noises which could easily be heard in the bedroom.

The man awoke, conscious of having dreamed that he was at the office where he ordinarily went to his business, and saw, standing in the door some twenty feet from him, a young man whom he was in the habit of meeting frequently at that place. He addressed a question to the young man, who looked straight at him, and, with evident intention to be offensive, remained silent. Upon this the first speaker administered a severe rebuke to the young man, apologizing, as he did so, to the bystanders for his heat.

A moment afterwards, the wife wakened and begun detailing the following dream, before having heard anything of her husband's dream: She had been at home, engaged in some housekeeping matter which occupied for a moment her full attention, when her husband opened the door and called to her. Being busily engaged for the moment, she neither turned round nor answered him, whereupon he scolded her sharply, when she awoke before she was able to make the full explanation she had begun to give while she was asleep.

At the instant of waking, the wife spoke of her dream, and the husband detailed to her what he had dreamed a few moments before.

The question seems to be whether both parties heard, while asleep, sounds which produced parallel, though not exactly similar, impressions upon their minds, or the man dreaming talked in his sleep so as to be heard by his wife in her sleep, and only partially understood.

These two people have for a number of years noticed that exactly the same thought frequently occurs to them at the same moment, when they are together alone, and believe that their minds are impressed by outside circumstances, which, while they set in motion cerebration, do not fully awaken consciousness, if that be the proper expression of the idea.

Neither one of them when awake has ever known the other to talk coherently while asleep.

ONE OF THE DREAMERS.

CUMBERLAND, MARYLAND, September 25, 1888.

"PREVENTATIVE."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Dr. Worcester, citing Pilkington for *preventative*, rules that the word is "incorrectly used for *preventive*." This was in 1846. Similarly, in one of the older editions of the dictionary known as "Webster's," *preventative* is called "a gross blunder"; and the latest editions of the same work teach that it is "incorrectly used instead of *preventive*." Dr. R. G. Latham, as editor of Johnson's Dictionary, gives *preventitive* from the Rev. Dr. George Gregory's *Economy of Nature* (1796), and finds no fault with it. Such a development of *praevenire* as *præventire*, which is demanded by *preventitive*, has, however, no parallel in Latin.

With respect to *preventative*, coupled with another vocable, Mr. R. G. White, in the chapter of his *Words and their Uses* entitled "Words that are not Words," pronounces: "They ought to be, but I fear that they are not, evidences of an utter want of education and of a low grade of intelligence." Mr. Edward S. Gould, in his *Good English*, bracketing *preventative* with two other terms which he disapproves of, tells his readers that they "are already in constant oral use among ignorant people, and they are gradually working their way up among people of some education." As estimated by Dr. William Mathews, in his *Words, their Use and Abuse*, *preventative* ranks with "base coinages, barbarisms which should be excommunicated by 'bell, book, and candle.'"

Many critics besides those quoted above have condemned *preventative*, and equally in silence as to the etymological grounds on which it may be supposed to be inadmissible. But at last we meet with one who is sufficiently explicit on that point. "*Preventative* is an impossible form, presupposing a *præventare* (sup. *præventat-um*) that has no existence." So writes the author of *Errors in the Use of English*, Dr. William B. Hodgson, who can quote for the word only a bookseller's circular issued in 1869.

Dr. Hodgson forbears, and prudently, to object against *preventative* (in aspect a frequentative, or an intensive) that it ought to be either frequentative or intensive in signification. No doubt it occurred to him that our accepted vocabulary swarms with derivates which, with reference to Latin and Greek, are not justified by their current senses. But a little reflection should have suggested to him that a word is not to be cashiered as "impossible" just because it implies a factitious predecessor. *Annexare* is no proper Latin; and yet we have adopted, in *annexation*, the mediæval substantive evolved from it. Of the same class as *annexare* is *fixare*, which has given us *fixation* and *fixative; affixation*, also, not being unknown. Analogous to *annexare* is *intensare*, likewise, whence the verb *intensate*, Mr. Carlyle's *intensation*, and the adjective and substantive *intensative*, so written by Mr. G. J. Cayley (1853), but corrupted into *intensitive* by the Rev. G. S. Faber (1817), Mr. W. R. Hamilton (1822), Mr. Ruskin (1867), and Mr. Leslie Stephen (1879), while Sir Walter Scott has the adverb *intensitively*. Add Samuel Holland's *fluxation* (1656), and *perfectation*, which Mr. W. R. Greg has repeatedly. On Dr. Hodgson's principles, rigidly applied, we ought, indeed, to shun, as "impossible," not solely *annexation, fixation*, and *intensative*, but, additionally, *acceptation, adhesive*, and congeners of theirs which might be named by pagefuls.

The patrons of *preventative* have been, it seems, not a few. My numerous philological memoranda are only in small part arranged; but a little search among them has revealed the following quotations for the expression under discussion:

"A *preventative* care has been allowed of as a just one." "All *preventative* thoughts of hostility were silenced." Roger Boyle, Earl of Orrery, *Parthenissa* (1654), pp. 355, 581, (ed. 1676).

"When men have the *preventative* power of it." *Id.* (1662), *State Letters* (1743), vol. ii, p. 411.

"I hope it may serve, also, as a *preventative* to deter others from the like hazard." "She then recommended a little to me, as the best *preventative* of wind in the stomach." *The Trifler* (1788), Nos. viii and xxiii.

"The obvious *preventative* is a second chamber." Mary Wollstonecraft, *An Historical and Moral View*, etc. (1794), vol. i, p. 352.

"A most excellent *preventative* against the various mistakes and blunders men are constantly making." *The Man in the Moon* (1803), No. xi.

"That it might furnish us with a *preventative* for canine madness seems not impossible." Robert Southey, *Omniana* (1812), vol. ii, p. 265.

"And the *preventative* was effectual." *Id.*, in the *Quarterly Review*, vol. xxxvi (1827), p. 320.

"We hope that a complaint of the same kind, which laid us all up in the early part of last year, may serve as a *preventative* now." *Id.* (1831), *Selection from the Letters*, etc. (1856), vol. iv, p. 234.

"Even the *preventative* which George Tubervile recommends, in his monitory rhymes, is not infallible." *Id.*, *The Doctor*, vol. iv (1837), p. 53.

"The *preventatives* of superstition." William Taylor of Norwich, in the *Monthly Review*, vol. lxxii. (1813), p. 280.

"They have several kinds [of fish] which are effectual remedies for sins. I do not know whether they have any that are *preventative;* nor does that seem a consideration in their

religion." W. S. Landor, *Works* (ed. 1846), vol. ii, p. 226.

"Do you know the late Dr. Baillie's *preventative* of the flatulency which tea produces?" Cardinal Newman, *Loss and Gain* (1848), p. 163. And the Cardinal has *preventative* in his *Essay on the Development of Christian Doctrine* (1845), pp. 101, 423.

"His intolerance of perfunctory remissness led him to adopt a complicated disciplinatory system, remedial and *preventative*." Isaac Taylor, *Wesley and Methodism* (1851), p. 280.

The word in question is also found in Bp. Heber's *Sermons;* in the *Life of William Wilberforce*, by his sons, Archdeacon R. I. Wilberforce and Bp. S. Wilberforce; and in the *Asiatic Researches*. My references to these works I cannot, however, at present verify.

By possibility, without consideration that it intercalates *preventive* worse than needlessly, *preventative* was modelled on some long adjective of similar termination. At any rate, once conspicuously before the world, it was adopted through heedless sequacity; and reiteration of it has gradually operated to the effect, that, rated by the standard of good usage, it has attained to considerable respectability. *Pensative*, for *pensive*, exemplifying an equally idle outlay of letters or demand of breath, was bazarded, in 1582, by Nicholas Lichefield, and was used as late as 1654 by Edmund Gayton. Viewed etymologically, it is better capable of defence, as is also Sir Thomas More's *assertation*, than *distributative*, instead of *distributive*, the property of the Rev. John Carpenter, writing in 1607. But such cumbrous devices, even where a classical ancestry, real or analogical, can be challenged for them, have, as was to be expected, found scant favor in a language whose tendency is shown in, for instance, its refusal to naturalize *idololatry;* in its preference, from the first, for *coercion* rather than, as in French, *coercition;* and in the imminent disappearance from it of *dilatation* before the handier *dilation*.

Your obedient servant, F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, August 23, 1888.

THE INDICES TO HALKETT AND LAING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I, as editor of Halkett and Laing's 'Dictionary of the Anonymous and Pseudonymous Literature of Great Britain,' ask you to give publicity to the fact that I am not the compiler of the indices which form the concluding portion of the fourth volume of that work recently issued? As I have already stated, in the London *Athenæum* of August 18, the preface which bears my name, as written by me for the press, contained the following sentence: "I have to add that my labors closed in 1885 with letter Z; the indices, etc., being the work of another hand."

These words were omitted, without my knowledge or consent. As the Dictionary is, I believe, well known in America, I shall esteem it a great favor if you will allow me to disclaim all responsibility with regard to the indices.—Your obedient servant,

CATHERINE LAING.

EDINBURGH, September 18, 1888.

Notes.

AMONG the forthcoming books, one likely to have more political than literary interest is 'The Private Correspondence of Daniel O'Connell, the Liberator,' which Mr. W. J. Fitzpatrick has edited, adding a memoir and abundant notes. It will be published by Longmans, Green & Co. The same firm announce a 'Life of Lord Stratford de Redcliffe,' by Stanley Lane-Poole, which, seeing that this English diplomat was British Minister to Washington in 1820–1823, possesses an American interest.

Macmillan & Co. further announce 'Natural Inheritance,' by Francis Galton; 'Popular Lectures and Addresses on Various Subjects in Physical Science,' by Sir William Thomson; 'Scientific Papers,' by the late Prof. Andrews; a translation of Amédée Guillemin's popular treatise on 'Electricity and Magnetism'; 'A Practical Text-book of Pathology,' by D. J. Hamilton; a seventh series of 'Cameos from English History,' by Charlotte M. Yonge, embracing the Rebellion and the Restoration, 1642–1678; an 'Alphabet of Economic Science,' by Philip H. Wicksteed; a translation of Plato's 'Phædo, Lysis, and Protagoras,' by Josiah Wright, in the Golden Treasury Series; 'The Classical Element in the New Testament,' by the Rev. C. H. Poole; 'Some Contributions to the Religious Thought of Our Time,' sermons and addresses by the Rev. James M. Wilson; and 'University Sermons, New and Old,' by the Rev. Charles J. Vaughan. Macmillan & Co. have determined to enlarge their *English Illustrated Magazine* to seventy pages, without increase of price, the added space being especially desirable for the department of fiction.

Chas. Scribner's Sons have in preparation the 'Diary and Letters of Gouverneur Morris,' in two volumes; 'Cyclopædia of Music and Musicians,' by John D. Champlin, jr., and Wm. F. Apthorp, in three volumes; 'History of French Painting, from its Earliest to its Latest Practice,' by Mrs. Clara H. Stranahan; and 'First Harvests,' by F. J. Stimson.

Thomas Whittaker has in press 'Musgrove Ranch,' a tale of Southern California, by J. M. Browne; 'Our New Mistress,' by Charlotte M. Yonge; and in the Camelot Series, 'Irish Fairy Tales and Folk Lore,' selected and edited by W. B. Yeats; in the "Canterbury Poets," 'Chaucer,' edited by F. Noel Paton; in the "Great Writers," 'Crabbe,' by T. E. Kebbel—English issues by Walter Scott, London.

In the last catalogue of Hachette & Cie. we find an announcement of the first French edition of Prof. Guyot's 'Géographie Physique Comparée,' now first published in the original French, with a preface by M. Vivien de Saint-Martin.

Wilhelm Hertz, Berlin, will publish this fall the second volume of the Memoirs of the Duke of Coburg, which promises to be fully as entertaining and instructive as the first volume, already noticed in these columns.

We doubt if any volume of the 'Battles and Leaders of the Civil War' will be found to surpass in interest the third, just issued by the Century Co. It deals in the first place with Bragg's invasion of Kentucky in 1862, a campaign of which General Buell, who narrates the Federal part in it, says that it extended over a wider territory, and involved greater hazard to the Union cause, than any other. Incidentally, General Buell reveals his idea of generalship when vindicating his course on this occasion, both his own and his adversary's prudence having drawn popular censure from their respective "countries." He has also a pregnant paragraph on the rule of Confederate inferiority in numbers and superiority in effective fighting, which is philosophically explained much, we fancy, as posterity will explain it. Burnside at Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, Gettysburg, Vicksburg, Port Hudson, Chickamauga, and Chattanooga, are the other grand topics of the volume, discussed by both sides. The leading chapter on Chattanooga is one of General Grant's, and is criticised by General "Baldy" Smith. This interesting and weighty writer shows how, contrary to a certain dictum, the Chattanooga engagement was fought exactly as it was *not* planned. His brief demonstration of this would make a good footnote to Tolstoi's thesis, that such deviations from the plan are the rule in war. The volume before us is, we need hardly say, like its predecessors, a marvel of typographical beauty and wealth of valuable illustrations.

If any one is disposed to vote politics "slow" this year, it is Mr. Edward McPherson, who delayed bringing out his invaluable 'Handbook of Politics for 1888' till it was clear that he would lose the campaign market if he held back longer for the Presidential letters of acceptance. The volume accordingly appears without them (Washington: James J. Chapman), but contains everything else of importance. The editor notices the two prime achievements of the past two years—the passage of the Electoral Count Act (pending since 1872) and the Inter-State Commerce Act (pending since 1884). Among the statistical tables is a comparison of rates in the Mills Bill and in the Tariff Act of 1883. Sections 18 and 19 exhibit the Constitutional amendments proposed or carried in the several States and in the United States respectively. No fewer than forty-two amendments to the Federal Constitution are recorded as proposed in Congress from December 16, 1886, to January 23, 1888. Mr. Blair and Mr. Crain had the honor of presenting four each.

Roberts Bros. have issued, in a style similar to their edition of the 'Imaginary Conversations,' Landor's 'Pentameron,' linking with it the "Citation and Examination of William Shakspeare," various minor pieces of prose, and the critical papers upon Petrarch, Catullus, and Theocritus, all in one volume. It is a very convenient collection, and we may congratulate ourselves that this really great writer is so easily accessible to the American public. An author whose works are more distinctly literature, has not been known in the present century.

Ginn & Co., Boston, have issued a new and revised edition of 'A Text-Book of Geometry,' by Prof. G. A. Wentworth of Phillips Exeter Academy. Although the whole book has been rewritten and considerably increased in size, it is essentially the same as when it first appeared in 1879. The alterations consist principally in the simplification of some of the demonstrations, and the increase in size is mostly due to the greater number of exercises. The great popularity of the book is sufficient evidence that the characteristics which distinguish it from others of its class meet with the approval of teachers generally, and we see no reason to dissent from the verdict. That concurrence, however, does not imply a complete agreement with the current methods of treating and teaching geometry—a subject which we have no room to discuss.

An 'Academic Algebra' and a 'College Algebra,' by Prof. Bowser of Rutgers College, published by D. Van Nostrand, are both excellent works. The only essential difference between them is that the latter is the more extensive, treating many subjects omitted in the former. But the 'College Algebra' does not assume any previous acquaintance with the science, and is equally adapted to the beginner and the undergraduate. The 'Academic Algebra' contains all that is necessary for entrance to any of our colleges.

While speaking of text-books, we may mention, as aids in the teaching of English worth examining, the 'Milton,' from Johnson's 'Lives

of the Poets,' and Goldsmith's 'Traveller,' both edited with abundant notes (Clarendon Press, and Macmillan). An edition of "Richard III.," prepared by Prof. C. H. Tawney of Calcutta for the students of Indian universities (Macmillan), surpasses ordinary Western needs in the matter of notes, but may be all the more useful in some quarters among us.

Moore's 'Irish Melodies and Songs,' with Kenny Meadows's illustrations (reduced), has taken its place in the pretty Nuggets Series of the Messrs. Putnam. The ornamental borders of the pages have the green tint of Erin.

We can do no more at this time than report the welcome appearance of Prof. Edward Allen Fay's 'Concordance of the Divina Commedia' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). It makes a handsome volume of 819 pages, and would alone be worth the formation of the Dante Society of Cambridge, Mass., under whose auspices it sees the light.

Dr. F. Ratzel's ethnographical volumes, in the series called 'Allgemeine Naturkunde' (New York: Westermann), are concluded with the 117th instalment of the entire work. The final issues (108–117) deal with the African populations of the equator belt stretching from Bornu to Abyssinia; the Asiatic from Persia to China and India; the European from the Caucasus westward; and the semi-civilized people of our western American coast. As usual, there are numerous excellent colored plates of costume, implements, weapons, vessels, etc., and still more wood-cuts of a trustworthy kind. There now remains to complete this great enterprise only one volume in the botanical division, which has been delayed by the editor's illness, but is expected to be ready in a few months.

The most significant article in the *Magazine of American History* for October is "The Story of a Prince," by Lee C. Harby. "A Romantic Chapter in Texas History" is its subtitle, and is fully borne out by this account of the founding of a German colony in Texas before it was wrested from Mexico. The narrative is not controlled by documentary evidence, as it should and might yet be (for it is only begun), but it was worth writing. Numerous portraits and other illustrations accompany the paper.

The September number of *Les Lettres et les Arts* (Paris: Boussod, Valadon et Cie.; New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons) contains six articles, of which the two most attractive are the first part of "Les Canons anciens et modernes," by General Thoumas, with its reproductions of curious old wood-engravings, and the second part of "L'Opéra sous l'ancien régime," by M. Adolphe Jullien, which is also illustrated by reproductions of old pictures and engravings. Among them is a little miniature of Sophie Arnould and a portrait of the irresistible tenor Jéliotte as Apollo, in full court dress and wig, holding a singular lyre. But the most expressive of these illustrations is from an old engraving of the time of Louis XIV., signed by the engraver, Trouvain, and representing the ambassadors of Morocco at the Opéra during a representation of the "Carnaval de Venise." "Orchardson et son œuvre," by Frederick Wedmore, is especially interesting on account of the five illustrations from the artist's work which accompany it.

If our memory serves us, the extravaganza with which *Le Livre* for September opens is the first incursion of fiction into this journal. And more is apparently to come, for "L'Héritage Sigismond: Luttes homériques d'un vrai bibliofol," by MM. Octave Uzanne and Adolphe Robida, is preceded by the general title, "Contes pour les Bibliophiles." It cannot be said that this department was needed to enliven the general contents, in which light and humorous articles are by no means rare. Nor is this first essay irresistibly mirth-provoking—perhaps because the deliberate destruction of a precious library is, in the eyes of a genuine book-lover, too tragic a theme for jesting. For international comparison, one might wish to see what Mark Twain would have made of the same conceit. This number of *Le Livre* is adorned with an excellent etched portrait of the Duc d'Aumale.

—The October *Atlantic* is an unusually pale number, remarkable chiefly, as much of our current work is, for evenness. The most agreeable paper is in the classical series, which takes up this month the correspondence of Marcus Aurelius with his old tutor, Fronto, one of the luckiest finds of this century in the old Italian libraries. Fronto himself, and not the Emperor, is the subject, and the nature of the friendship of the two is sufficiently illustrated from their very intimate letters. The article suffers, however, if one recalls the passages in Mr. Pater's 'Marius,' in which he translates, in a much nobler and not less faithful English, one or two of the same extracts, and builds up the character and personal impression of the old rhetorician in a more lively and fuller manner, as, indeed, his treatment is the more catholic in sympathy. The present paper will, perhaps, serve as good a purpose in sending the reader back to that picture of the thoughtful life of Rome in Aurelius's day which is the most profitable, both for knowledge and reflection, that modern scholarship, touched by a refined imagination, has produced. The remainder of the number affords us a vivid abstract of Garibaldi's memoirs, written in a sympathetic spirit, but deriving its interest from the romance of the Italian's tempestuous career. The suggestion that our century, which is now usually characterized as materialistic and scientific, will be known rather as the age of romance, is something more than a fancy. It has not lacked other great individual careers besides Garibaldi's, and in what pertains to the records of man in history and in literature the romantic element has certainly been the dominant one. Iceland is the source of the travel article, which is neither better nor worse than usual. There is the customary nature piece, with a refined touch, devoted to "pasture-herb and meadow-swath." Art is cared for by a critical account of the French pictures in the Boston Museum. The excellence of the magazine is well brought out when so undistinguished a number is so good as this.

—In the October *Forum* Mr. Gosse asks whether America has produced a poet, that is, one worthy to be ranked with the dozen great names of poetry in English literature. It is a mercy, in an Englishman, that he refrains even from mentioning Walt Whitman; but this is almost offset by the elaborate refutation that Lanier is an immortal. One observes in the article a singularly wrong apprehension of the best American opinion, which indicates that Mr. Gosse has fallen into the hands of coteries; and in other parts his remarks are trivial. He seems to think that the reason why Poe is not acknowledged in Boston is because he misbehaved before a very small audience in that city over forty years ago, and he gravely urges that Bostonians should really lay aside prejudices which spring from such an incident. This, however, does not invalidate his academic criticism of the only four (not among the living) whom he allows to be competitors for a high place, viz., Longfellow, Bryant, Emerson, and Poe. He denies their claims. Of Longfellow he says that his narrative is "second only to that of Prior and Lafontaine"; that his "real place is in Swedish literature, chronologically between Tegnér and Runeberg," and "that originality and greatness were just the qualities he lacked." Bryant is "a poet of less attractive but somewhat higher class than Longfellow," a hybrid product of "the Wordsworth of Tintern Abbey" and "the Coleridge of Mont Blanc," and he owes his impression to the persistence of this style through his life; "his irreparable fault is to be secondary, to remind us always of his masters first, and only on reflection of himself." Emerson belongs in a higher region than either, and if judged by selected passages, he gives "the impression of high imagination and great poetical splendor." He is "too fragmentary and uncertain" to be set among the stars, and deserves to figure at most as "an asteroid" among the planets. Poe is judged very leniently. Mr. Gosse declares that "the posy of his still fresh and fragrant poems is larger than that of any other deceased American writer"; his power of melody seems to be the charm that has cast this spell. Mr. Gosse does not quite dare to say that Poe is our first poet, but he goes so near it as to make the reader wink. He will hardly convert our people or our men of letters to his opinion. As we have said, his survey is limited to the dead. To the living he pays one tremendous compliment: "There was never a time, in my opinion," he says, "when America possessed among her citizens so various and so accomplished singers, gifted in so many provinces of song, as at present." Perhaps it is as well, in view of what he says of the dead, that he was not obliged to enter into details, and distribute this general judgment among Mr. Stedman's hundred bards of "the twilight."

—The September number of the *Bibliothèque Universelle et Revue Suisse* is one of the best that this excellent and too little known periodical has issued. It opens with an article on the French poet, Leconte de Lisle, by M. Édouard Rod, who, since the extinction of the *Revue Contemporaine*, of which he was the first editor, and his establishment at the University of Geneva as Professor of Comparative Literature, has been a frequent contributor to the pages of the Lausanne review. The present paper is one of a series upon the contemporary poets of France, and M. Rod presents very agreeably what he calls "the singular mixture of admiration and *agacement*" which is produced upon readers in general by this much-admired and little-read poet, whose three small volumes have only recently carried their author into the ranks of the French Academy. It must be said, however, that, in spite of M. Rod's skilful plea, the admiration, if admiration it be, given to the author of the 'Poèmes antiques,' the 'Poèmes barbares,' and the 'Poèmes tragiques' seems always to be given under protest; nor will everyone be able to say with the present critic that the *agacement* of the persistent reader is attenuated. M. Paul Stapfer gives the third and concluding part of his "Rabelais, sa vie et son œuvre," a very straightforward, unpretentious account of the life of Rabelais, and a clear exposition of the nature of his work. A very similar article, though upon a writer entirely unknown to most western readers, is the one entitled "Jean Kollar et la poésie panslaviste au xixe siècle," of which M. Louis Leger, the first among French Slavic scholars, gives the second and last part. Like all that appears in this periodical, even from scholars and specialists like M. Leger, it is as simply and plainly written as it

is new and interesting, for the articles of the *Bibliothèque Universelle* never belong to what is very expressively called in Paris the literature of mandarins. Two excellent articles, "L'Histoire réligieuse de la Révolution française," by M. Edmond de Pressensé, and "Le Pessimisme philosophique et l'Optimisme chrétien," by M. Léo Quesnel, are very characteristic of the *Revue*, which, without being religious in its tone, is addressed to a community in which Protestant Christianity is respected. Among the lighter articles is one by M. G. van Muyden, "Les grandes Régates anglo-américaines." The various *chroniques*, Parisian, German, English, Swiss, are, as usual, very readable.

—The tenth volume of 'Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon' (New York: B. Westermann & Co.) has been completed, and the eleventh far advanced, ending with the article on Minting. The profusion of engraved and colored plates, among which latter we remark one of insect mimicry, and of maps, is well maintained. The articles on the colonial strivings of Germany; on Corinth and its canal, to be finished in 1891; on Krakatoa, etc., show the editing to be abreast of the times. So do the biographies of Prince Krapotkin and of Robert Koch, with his comma bacillus; but the notice of Dr. Morell Mackenzie makes no mention of his attendance upon the Emperor Frederick, and the subsequent unpleasantness. The article on running (*Laufen*) is illustrated by Muybridge's plate of the galloping horse. In general, American achievements are apt to be slighted, as for example in the sketch of the development of the pianoforte. The Knights of Labor are postponed to a later stage of the alphabet. Since cyclopædias are the great disseminators of error, it is worth while to point out two typographical slips in the article on Gen. McClellan: Brenton stands for Brinton, and Grange for Orange. Kossuth is severely judged; and in reply to a subscriber the editors say in their correspondence sheet that the *day* of Kossuth's birth was, and may still be, unknown to himself. Through the same channel they affirm against Vapereau that ex-President Grévy was born in 1807, not in 1813; and they add that his baptismal name was Judith François, which he took the liberty of exchanging for Jules.

—The Convention of the American Library Association, just held in the Catskills, was, as usual, a success. The weather was, as at every other convention, most accommodating. Though there was a violent storm on the coast, no walk or drive among the beauties of the Catskills was hindered by wind or rain. We have always said that there were too many papers at these meetings, leaving no time for discussion. This year there were only two papers, sent by members who could not come. Topics were suggested by the President, or introduced by short talks from some one who desired information, and were then discussed in a very informal manner. The result was eminently satisfactory. Some very unexpected facts came out, and in one case the discovery led to the most important action taken. It was found that a list of portraits other than those separately published, that is, of portraits contained in collections, in biographies, in art periodicals, and the like places where they might be overlooked, had made considerable progress in a certain large library, and that others had done more or less work in the same direction. It was agreed that such isolated work, leading necessarily to considerable duplication, was unwise, and that such a list ought to be prepared in coöperation, as was Poole's 'Index to Periodical Literature,' and with a view to publication when finished. A committee was appointed to report at the next convention (to be held at St. Louis next spring) what works of this sort are going on. The preparation of such a general list of portraits was suggested some years ago by Mr. R. R. Bowker of the *Publishers' Weekly* to the English Index Society, and the Index was put upon their list; but that Society has frittered away its energy on the production of little indexes of extremely limited value, and nothing has ever been done, so far as we know, to organize that coöperation without which a scheme of this magnitude could not be carried out. It is to be hoped that the coming report will not confine itself to enumerating all the bibliographical work that can be discovered to be going on in this country, though that of itself would be of great value, but will outline a method by which the iconographical index can take its place as the third of those useful labor-savers of which Poole's 'Index' is the first, and Fletcher's 'Essay Index' is to be the second.

—One session was devoted to architecture. The plans of the new rooms destined for the State Library in the Sta e House at Albany, prepared by a librarian, were approved; the plans of the Howard Library just finishing at New Orleans, one of Richardson's latest drawings, were riddled with objections. All of Richardson's designs for libraries are, from the library point of view, failures. We do not know whether that famous architect ever gave any thought to the object for which his buildings of this sort were intended: there is little indication that he did in any of them. He appears to have been satisfied if he drew a beautiful design, and to have left it to some draughtsman to fit in the books and the service. When shall we find an artist who will plan for use first and beauty next; who will see where his book-shelves and his reading-halls and his work-rooms ought to go for the highest efficiency, and then will mould his library building around them? Looking at such plans as this of the Howard Library (where, for instance, an attendant must go 320 feet to get a book within 10 feet of the delivery desk), and scores of others like it, not excepting even the magnificent structure just begun for the Boston Public Library, one may say, as did the President of the Association, "The architect is the natural enemy of the librarian."

—The late report of the Astronomer Royal, Mr. Christie, to the Board of Visitors of the Greenwich Observatory, exhibits a gratifying state of activity in that institution. The structure itself has been undergoing extensive repair, and is now modernized quite as much as is desirable, the chief addition being a new dome made by Sir Howard Grubb. The comparatively recent introduction of spectroscopic and photographic branches of the work necessitated temporary arrangements which are replaced in the completed building, and the whole of the astronomical establishment is now brought together. As in Paris, the neighboring traffic has rendered the astronomers solicitous as to the foundations of their instruments, and the subject of approaching railways thus engages their serious attention. Railway interference with observatory piers varies much with the character of the geological formation, but the nature and amount of the disturbance near Greenwich were settled once for all by noting the effect of passing trains upon a reflecting mercurial surface which the astronomer has frequent occasion to make use of: the tremors were found to produce exceedingly deleterious results while trains were passing at a distance of some six hundred yards; and up to distances of one mile, the effects were distinctly marked. As a consequence of this work, the recommendation of the Astronomer Royal to the Admiralty led to the abandonment of the construction of a new railway across Blackheath.

—As everywhere else, very bad weather during nearly half of the year is found to have disastrously affected the number of observations; but the calculations of results are in a most forward state. No progress has been made for a year in the construction of the great refracting telescope, of 28-inch aperture, as the glass-makers have not as yet succeeded in producing the crown-glass disk for the objective. The measurement of the motions of stars from or towards the earth by means of the spectroscope is continued with very interesting results; while, in the photographic department, it is noteworthy that, by combining Greenwich solar pictures with those from India and Mauritius, records are at hand for 361 days out of 365. During 1887 the spotted area has rarely amounted to 1-2,000th of the sun's visible hemisphere, and the average is less than one-sixth that recorded in 1883, near the time of maximum spots. Preparations are making for a redetermination of the difference of longitude between Greenwich and Paris. A photographic refracting telescope is needed to enable the Observatory to bear its share in the international work of mapping anew all the stars of the sky; some thirteen observatories, in both hemispheres, have already ordered their instruments of like dimension for coöperation in this great undertaking. This need has just been met by a Treasury-grant. A year ago, the Astronomer Royal referred to the increased demands upon the Observatory by the scientific and the general public, and he now calls attention to the fact that in 1835 there were six assistants, having no computers to superintend, no extraneous work worth mentioning, no magnetic and meteorological observations, no altazimuth observations, nor any spectroscopic and photographic work. At present there are but eight assistants, excluding the chief assistant, having fifteen computers to superintend; and of the assistants' staff, five are absorbed by the newly developed branches of work, leaving thus practically only three assistants to do the astronomical work which in 1835 required five, and in addition to perform varied extraneous duties imposed by the public interest. Mr. Christie therefore very properly pleads for adequate provision for the primary objects of the Observatory, in default of which the voluntary work—the supply of hourly time-signals, for example—may have to be dropped.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Reverberator. By Henry James. Macmillan & Co.

A Virginia Inheritance. By Edmund Pendleton. D. Appleton & Co.

From Lands of Exile. By Pierre Loti. Translated from the French by Clara Bell. W. S. Gottsberger.

The Black Arrow. By Robert Louis Stevenson. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Residuary Legatee. By F. J. Stimson (J. S. of Dale). Charles Scribner's Sons.

The King of Folly Island, and Other People. By Sarah Orne Jewett. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A Little Maid of Acadie. By Marion Reeves. D. Appleton & Co.

Roger Berkeley's Probation. By Helen Campbell. Boston: Roberts Bros.

A Hard-Won Victory. By Grace Denio Litchfield. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Virginia of Virginia. By Amélie Rives. Harper & Bros.

Hillingdon Hall, or The Cockney Squire. By R. S. Surtees. London: John C. Nimmo; New York: Scribner & Welford.

It has long been taken for granted that the elements of Mr. James's novels shall be few and simple, the characters and phases of life typical. Nobody expects anything to happen, or anticipates emotional excitement. Perhaps his strongest book, 'The Princess Casamassima,' missed general appreciation because its strange incidents and deep feeling offend preconceived opinions, and exhibit an art less circumscribed than public wisdom permits to the author. If that wisdom was disturbed ever so slightly by the exceptional novel, 'The Reverberator' will reëstablish it triumphantly. The manuscript of the plot could be packed neatly in a nutshell, or a summary thereof engraved by an ingenious person on a dime. The subject, too, is that which the making his has made the author's fame, viz., the hopeless difference in social point of view between a certain class of Americans and another class, not so certain, but not American. The difference on which the argument rests will doubtless appear to individuals of that certain American class, if by any chance they read Mr. James, to be a flimsy and ridiculous pretext for a story. They will pronounce this judgment, not because they count themselves in that class, but because they know that the author is a finical, snobbish fellow, whose soul is dead to the glories of his own, his native land, and who is always nosing about for a chance to have a fling at it. The question is simply whether you like to have your private affairs set forth in a "society journal"—set forth, either with flattery or disparagement, always mendaciously—or whether you don't. On one side of the question stand the Dossons of America, newly arrived in Paris, and Mr. Flack, George M. Flack, correspondent of the *Reverberator;* on the other are arrayed the Proberts, originally of South Carolina, now in the second generation of denationalization. The Dossons are new-rich, yet not on that account offensively aggressive; on the contrary, of the lowest degree of humility consistent with self-respect and free-born Americanism. The treatment of the Dossons is most admirable. They have so little marked individuality that they are almost characterless, yet the author manages to characterize them perfectly. One cannot decide which is the more wonderful, his power of divination or of apparently effortless expression.

No people were ever more helplessly what nature made them than the Dossons; therefore, no people could be for themselves a fuller explanation and more cordially acceptable apology. They deserve all the sympathy that people so ingenuous as never to have thought of being pretentious can get. They thought an editor, by virtue of his office, was a great man, and George M. Flack, commanding as he did the ear and time of princes and potentates, the greatest of his guild. His explanation that he was "only a correspondent" served only to exalt him; for how much greater an editor free to roam abroad than an editor doomed to stay at home! There was only one position in life which he was not fitted to adorn, and that the position of husband to Miss Francie Dosson. Then it was really Miss Dosson who created this limitation, and she was moved thereto not so much by a doubt of Mr. Flack's greatness as by the knowledge gathered from *Reverberators* at home, that the grandest matches were made by American girls "over there," which knowledge had fired her with vaulting ambition for her beautiful sister, Francie. Thinking Mr. Flack great, they thought, in natural sequence, that it was a splendid thing to have a column in the *Reverberator* all about Francie and her portrait, with the skeletons in the closets of her Franco-American *fiancé's* family, exposed in cold type to a gaping world. It was distinction! It was fame! They were obliged to see that the three demoiselles Probert, by marriage ennobled, took a different view of it. Miss Dosson was "mad" with Flack because he had apparently broken off the grand match, but, to save their collective lives, they couldn't see why the Proberts should go on so, and to the end of time they never would. Francie herself never knew that these family secrets had been confided to her chiefly with kind intention to make her feel herself one of them. She got no nearer to the heart of the disturbance than to perceive a fulfilment of her prediction when she had become engaged to Gaston Probert—that "she knew she would do something," and "now she had." As for the assassin, Flack, what could he have but contempt for antediluvian frumps, who made a row because their doors had been forced, their shrines desecrated, for the increase of the *Reverberator's* circulation, and incidentally for the enlightenment of mankind?

Mr. Flack is a monster, and more monstrous still is the fact that he had excellent grounds for the assumption on which he plied his disgraceful trade. He said, in all sincerity, that he knew "what the people want," and he did. By hook or by crook he proposed to supply that want. Mr. James, holding himself aloof from the controversy, neither preaching nor scolding, simply narrates the effect of Flack's most brilliant stroke on a family whom Flack would not have counted among the people. The Proberts are shocked and furious, and each manifests rage in characteristic fashion. Francie, brought to the family bar, is bewildered. It doesn't occur to her to deny innocent complicity with Flack nor to feign sympathy; and it doesn't occur to the Proberts to admire her honesty. To the Gallic mind, that was shameless avowal of shame. One word of exaggeration here would convert a serious scene into a farce, but that word is not written. Francie, whose fascination for Gaston Probert is a matter of fine lines and color, is endeared to the Anglo-Saxon reader by this splendid exhibition, not of courage, but of natural-born incapacity for lying. It makes her worth Probert's reluctant sacrifice, and worth, too, the incomparable ease, grace, and brilliancy with which her fortunes are narrated.

The interest of 'A Virginia Inheritance' centres in the conflicting claims of the Northern inheritor of Chatterton Manor and the Southerner in possession. As in 'The Reverberator,' it is a question of point of view. The case is an amusing one, and the argument on both sides is clever, impartial, and clear. There is left no room for doubt that an irreconcilable difference of opinion exists between North and South, not about the war (we are spared that), but about whether, in the words of Mr. Leigh, the erratic champion of the Virginia Chesters, "the right of eminent domain, founded on association, is at least equal to hereditary title." The chapters describing the adventures in Virginia of Perry, legal representative of the New York claimant, are delightful. The gravity with which the Virginian propositions for compromise and friendly adjustment are set forth heightens their intrinsic absurdity, and there is a warm sympathy between the author and his characters and scenes which communicates itself to the reader. For the time, the legal right of the pompous, meanspirited Chatterton is of no consequence, except to magnify his hatefulness, and the more cordially to identify us with the sentiments and prejudices of the "hospitable, out-at-elbow, irrelevant, sympathetic South." In these chapters there is a naturalness and ease lacking in the rest of the story. When the action is transferred to New York, the author becomes more intent on generalization than on creating men and women. The eagerness of his people to say good things about themselves and each other detracts from their naturalness. It conveys the impression that fashionable society speaks spontaneously in epigrams, or else that its scant leisure is given to thinking them up. The suspicion arises that the Mesdames Denvers and Underdunk of New York, the Chattertons and Perrys, may even pass around contemplated conversations in manuscript for suggestion or approval, as Shakspere's sugared sonnets were handed about to his favored friends, or La Rochefoucauld's maxims submitted to the De Sablé coterie. If this precise and elaborate manner of expression and the habit of liberal quotation from the Bible are indeed common, then fashionable society is not in such a bad way as the unfashionable are prone to believe it. The making of epigrams is not a wholly frivolous folly, and study of the Bible, even for the purpose of embellishing conversation, cannot be barren of otherwise good results.

It is a pity that Mr. Pendleton did not limit himself to his question of point of view, and to the perpetration of epigrams which, irrespective of the mouths that utter them, embody wise thought and a perception of human follies and frailties, modified by kind charity for them. He has, however, made the mistake of throwing in some incidents, apparently for excitement, and of introducing an intrigue wholly sensational in character, and not excused by adequate connection with his main theme. He does not deliberately "play to the gallery," yet he does not preserve that equable indifference to its cravings which, for instance, distinguishes Mr. James. The discovery by Perry, in Virginia, of the picture of his old love, Barbara, is good for nothing except to startle. It makes no trouble between him and his new love, and Barbara dead was just as useful as Barbara raving in a lunatic asylum, besides being a pleasanter object for contemplation. For the figure of a daring social adventuress, Mrs. Dare would have stood very well dowered with one defunct husband, at most two. But when she is known to have got rid of three, and is seen trembling on the brink of more, she is no longer altogether human, actual: she belongs among the prodigies, like the "Bearded Lady," or the "Lady with feet twenty-six inches long." The complications between Mrs. Dare and the Chesters make a discordance jarring through most of the story, culminating in the destruction of Atherton Leigh in a tenement blaze. This catastrophe is lurid, and, being the catastrophe, goes far to stamp the book with a commonplace sensationalism out of keeping with its predominating tone.

Once in a while, a weary while, there comes along a book of travel which is a revelation of the capacity of language for pure description, and of pure description for captivating senses and imagination. Such a rare book is the collection of notes from the far-away Yellow Land,

from Malabar and Africa, entitled, 'From Lands of Exile.' The author, an officer in the French navy, has the quick, all-embracing eyesight of a tried sailor, the ready apprehension of a Parisian, and the dreamy, sensuous temperament of a poet. He sees all there is to see, and so there are plenty of facts which are undeniably very important aids to realization of things unknown and exceedingly odd and strange. Far more than that, he feels in one way or another all that he sees, and it is his full and rich expression of a most sensitive impressionability that vivifies his fact and plunges his readers into the atmosphere of his scene. He takes us first in a ship's boat across a bay of Anam and up a river that leads to the town of Touran. On the way we notice some queer things—a temple with "concave roof bristling with hideous and diabolical emblems, horns, claws, and in the midst the huge lotus flower;" then, a sentinel, "squatting in his little lair by a huge tom-tom, looking like a nasty old woman with a gown on and her hair in a knot." Presently we come to Touran, where we are entertained in a bamboo hut, drink tea out of tiny blue cups amidst the waving of fans and umbrellas, in a litter of bronzes and lacquer and paper rubbish which would be the despair of a Western collector. From the mandarin's, on to the market, where hosts of "senile, childish creatures" are trotting about in fluttering, gaudy rags and absurd hats. Their chatter is maddening, their filth and squalor are disgusting, and the air is laden with their smell, that heavy, musky smell with which the Chinese curio shops at home have already acquainted us. Passing from the streets to the pagodas, Chinese art does not appear so eccentric, unaccountable, and anomalous as when regarded piecemeal, isolated in the incongruous West. It seems natural that such travesties on humanity should express themselves in writhing, nightmare monsters, and in pudgy little demons with bulging eyes and malign grin. Our impressions of China are not pleasurable but they are intense, and they do most forcibly suggest to us thoughts of the "wide gulf which parts us from the men and things of this land; the different darkness in which we had our birth; the disturbing dissimilarity of our primeval origin." On the whole, we do not regret China, and at Singapore are irritated that it is not yet quite behind us. Here the Chinese mingle with every nationality and predominate. It is all "yellow, bustling, greedy, simian, obscene." Once at Mahé, on the Malabar coast, a kingdom of calm and beauty is ours.

"At about five in the afternoon," says the author, "I disembarked there on a sandy shore, at the mouth of a little river which makes a cutting, a winding bay through the dense wood. I had come from afar, from farthest Asia, and had almost forgotten the charm and splendor of Hindostan. At such a time it is enchantment to see it again, unique as it is and matchless. The sun was already low, and shed a glory of color on the river up which I had come; the palms, where it touched them were gold—wonderful gold—and the air seemed full of gold dust. On the slope of each bank, at the foot of the palms, which form vast green hangings, sat groups of Indians watching my boat pulling in. They took grand attitudes, like gods, wrapped in white, red, or orange-colored draperies; and they and their trees and their land and their sky were all bathed in the radiance of an apotheosis."

From India to Obock there is no stop, and here, beneath a fierce sun, on the shimmering, sandy edge of the only continent that still preserves any mystery, for us the journey ends. The sketches of "The Death of Admiral Courbet" and "An Old Salt," included in the volume, are profoundly pathetic. The spirit of melancholy that lurks in all the pages dominates these; yet it is a gentle and tearful melancholy, not that loathed thing,

"Of Cerberus and blackest midnight born."

Boys with an appetite for tales of violent adventure—that is, all healthy boys—will doubtless get considerable comfort out of 'The Black Arrow.' The scene is in England during the Wars of the Roses, and the personal exploits of the hero, Dick Shelton, have the national struggle for background. Dick fights, and loves, and also runs away, in manly fashion. He is the eternal boy, with nothing mediæval about him, except his doublet and hose. There is a certain monotony of hacking and killing in his career which, in the mature mind, begets a listlessness as to its catastrophe. Few are the men and women who retain that youthful joy in deeds of physical daring which the author appears to carry with him from the shooting of the first Black Arrow to the last. The narration is all alive. Dick is always up and doing, always too busy for dull thinking, or for making critical observations on the radiance of the sun by day or the shine of the stars by night. His physical bravery is no greater than his moral courage, which he proves gallantly when his royal namesake, Richard of Gloucester, qualifies a favor granted, with—"By the glory of Heaven, there your favor dies." "Mine be the loss," says Dick, and turns his back upon the glittering future so recently opening before him. In his treatment of Gloucester the author takes no heed of the report of ancient men of the fifteenth century, who had seen the Duke and who affirmed that he was of "bodily shape comely enough, only of low stature." His Richard is entirely the Shaksperean, the popular Richard, and is memorably drawn in the scene outside the church of Holywood, when, behind the files of his army winding along the road, "girt by steel-clad knights, the bold, black-hearted, and ambitious hunchback moved on towards his brief kingdom and his lasting infamy."

The little comedy of 'The Residuary Legatee' is very well managed, and, by way of compensation for the flatness of John Austin's posthumous joke, has the happy, true comedy ending. The tale is based on an extravagance, yet there is no good reason why the hero should not have been endowed with a slight measure of common sense, not to say something like brains. He is represented as an actual, an every-day young man, and a Bostonian besides. He is fastidious about what he drinks, and wears garments, or a garment, which the author is pleased to describe as "Poole-built trousers." He has an obsequious valet named Schmidt, whose name would never disclose the fact that he is "a sinuous Oriental." Yet, with all these advantages, the abused donkey has a splendid intelligence compared with that of Mr. Austin May, and, beside him, a monkey is a figure of virility.

'The King of Folly Island' includes half a dozen sketches of New England life, all so like previous sketches by Miss Jewett that we might as well be reading the last volume, or the volume before that. The fishermen, the countrymen, the old maids by hill and shore, are familiar friends, and there is no obvious reason for presenting them under new names, except to keep before us the author's skill in the delineation of them. The last sketch (there is not a story in the volume), "Mère Pochette," is of French Canadian life, somewhere between the settlements, the Eastern States, and the St. Lawrence country. The location is indefinite, but it serves. The sketch does not indicate any more definite acquaintance with the people than with the topography. Mère Pochette, the several curés, and the rest are conventional peasants, not *Canadiens*. The sweeping characterization of the habitants as "hardening into stolid farmers," growing "stupid and heavy," "drinking gin and bad beer," is an unjustifiably severe criticism of the French in the Province of Quebec. It betrays almost as superficial a knowledge of their actual condition as the reference to "merry, vine-growing ancestors" does of their history. It is not recorded that their ancestors were gloomy, but it is set down with exactness that the vine-growing provinces furnished but few colonists for New France. There were forests and snows and savages to be encountered in the new land—not a prospect seductive to vine-growers, merry or sad. The best that can be said for Miss Jewett's tentative excursion into foreign territory is that she has not the blighting tendency to misrepresent for romantic effect, and that thus far the Canadians are fortunate in her hands.

Miss Reeves is possessed by this tendency, and the Acadians in 'A Little Maid of Acadie' are the sufferers. Such a family as her De Landremonts nev er took root in Acadie. Fine folk roamed in Acadian wilds in their day, but few of them founded families there, and none have continued fine for two centuries and a half, as her De Landremonts presumably have done. The Acadians to be found near the scene of her story, Madawaska, about the head-waters of the River St. John, are descendants of those who fled towards Canada, escaping in the untrodden wilderness the deportation of 1755, the year still known to the people as that of the *grand dérangement*. The seigneurial system never prevailed in their settlements, and though they are as a rule well-to-do, wealth, power, fashion, are practically unknown words to them. Great allowance should be made for a novelist's assumption, but the allowance is the more easily made when the assumption is not too evident. Nevertheless, Miss Reeves's misrepresentations are harmless, and, for an essentially artificial romance, the incongruity between fact and fiction matters not at all.

"Harmless" is the word that describes most comprehensively 'Roger Berkeley's Probation' and 'A Hard-Won Victory.' The authors of these stories are alike animated by a desire to enforce the necessity of self-sacrifice in order that the whole world may be benefited. In the first instance, a young man is the self-castigator, in the second, a young woman. Mrs. Campbell's Roger uses the scourge with more reason than Miss Litchfield's Jean, for he performs a family duty, whereas Jean only permits herself the luxury of unnecessarily assuming an extremely disagreeable position. The conduct of these admirable young persons in trial is all that could be desired, and there is enough interest in their experiences to hold the attention and stir the sympathy of amiable and patient novel readers.

'Virginia of Virginia' is the old tale of a lowly maid who loved without requital above her station, suffering through that love excruciating torment, and for the loved one's sake a most dreadful death. The loved one, as usual, has no qualities that excuse a mad passion. He is a particularly stolid and insensible Englishman, whose chief attraction for Virginia seems to have been that he took so many baths, that his "ole blue shirt" smelled "good, kinder briery and soapy." The incidents of this story, expanded into a thick book by kindly aid of type and margin, are cheaply sensational, Virginia's character is hysterical and an offence against taste and common sense, while the descriptive language is superlatively extravagant. A modification of the coarse and fleshly quali-

ties marks the only improvement on 'A Brother to Dragons.'

It is scarcely probable that the individual exists to-day who could read through 'Hillingdon Hall, or The Cockney Squire.' Any interest in this reprint of a novel written forty-four years ago is of the kind attached to literary curiosities. It is a truism to say that posterity is the infallible judge of literary greatness, but if any one should desire personally to test the truth of that truism, let him compare 'Pickwick' and 'Hillingdon Hall,' Weller and Jorrocks. If that doubting person should also wish to satisfy himself that the general readableness of our second-rate novels is some compensation for our paucity of first-rate, let him select 'Hillingdon Hall' first among a bundle of the second-rates of the first half of our century. It appears from the illustrations of the novel that humor, expressed by pictorial art not of the highest excellence, retains the power to amuse longer than that of inferior literary art. The Flathers and Jorrocks, the Marquis of Bray and the Duchess of Donkeyton, are to us caricature of an insufferably dull kind; but it is just as easy to laugh at Wildrake's pictures of "The Guests Departing from Donkeyton Castle" and "The Surprise," as it was the day they were drawn.

GERMAN HISTORY, BY A FRENCHMAN.

L'Empéreur Guillaume et son règne. Par Édouard Simon. 8vo. Paris: Ollendorff. 1886.

The Emperor William and his Reign. From the French of Édouard Simon. 2 vols. 8vo. London: Remington & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1886.

Histoire du Prince de Bismarck. Par Édouard Simon. 8vo. Paris: Ollendorff. 1887.

L'Empéreur Frédéric. Par Édouard Simon. 12mo. Paris: Hinrichsen. 1888.

THE biography of the Emperor Frederick furnishes a natural pendant to M. Simon's previous books, and affords a welcome occasion briefly to notice the same author's 'Emperor William' and 'Prince Bismarck,' which together constitute an excellent history of the making of the new Germany. M. Simon possesses some of the best qualities of an historian: patience in research, accuracy in presentation, and fairness of judgment. The latter quality could not be put to a severer test than in these biographies; for the writer, himself a Frenchman, describes the men who worsted France in diplomacy and in war, deposed her from the first place among Continental Powers, and despoiled her of two of her best provinces—and all this in his own day. We scarcely expect a Frenchman to write dispassionately about Pitt or Metternich, Wellington or Blücher; but M. Simon has drawn three of the most typical figures of the war of 1870, not merely without bitterness, but without a sign of prejudice. An American may well find, in Bismarck's diplomacy, some sharp practice and a touch of brutality: M. Simon may think the same, but he avoids saying it. Bismarck is obviously, to him, an unsympathetic personage; but he describes him, fairly and truly, as the faithful servant of his King and country; the man who saw clearly, from the outset, the real character of the German question and the means of solving it, and who pursued the solution with inflexible determination and the highest courage.

For the Emperor William the author has evidently a warmer feeling—a feeling of reverence and almost affection. In M. Simon's pages the Emperor William appears as an honest and kindly nature and a strong character; a true gentleman and a great king. In his zeal to vindicate for the master a higher degree of political sagacity than is commonly accredited to him, M. Simon, in one case at least, does injustice to the servant. He asserts ('Emperor William,' transl., vol. i, p. 106) that "the conception of the diplomatic and military contest with Austria belongs to the King, and its execution to Bismarck, Moltke, and Von Roon." This statement is in accordance neither with the facts nor with the data elsewhere furnished by M. Simon himself. The diplomatic contest against Austria was begun by Bismarck at Frankfort, when Frederick William IV. was King; and the military contest was distinctly foreshadowed in Bismarck's Frankfort despatches. Prince William assumed the Regency (1858) with friendly feelings towards Austria, and a belief that the Prussian and Austrian crowns must make common cause against democracy. Bismarck's attitude at Frankfort compromised the friendship of the two courts, and Bismarck was accordingly transferred to St. Petersburg. In order to substantiate his theory (that Prince William had already determined to fight Austria), M. Simon treats this transfer as a "promotion," indicating the Regent's approval of Bismarck's demonstrative antagonism to Austria. But Bismarck himself, in one of his characteristic and picturesque phrases, declared that he was "put on ice" (*kaltgestellt*) at St. Petersburg—clearly implying that at Frankfort he had been too hot to suit the Government. From St. Petersburg he watched the vacillating policy of Prussia during the Italian war of 1859 with sharp and outspoken disapproval. He saw in Austria's difficulties Prussia's opportunity; and when Prussia seemed on the point of interfering to aid her rival, Bismarck's chagrin culminated in a nervous fever.

When, in 1862, the King called Bismarck to the premiership, he summoned him, not as an enemy of Austria, but as a champion of the royal prerogative. He needed such a man to defend the reorganization of the army against the opposition of the Diet and the country. The war of 1866 was Bismarck's war; the King was drawn into the struggle against his will. This M. Simon expressly recognizes (transl., vol. i, p. 177); but he explains the reluctance of the King to carry out his own policy—a policy, according to M. Simon, matured seven years before—by the assumption of sudden "scruples"!

But while M. Simon goes too far in reclaiming for the King the authorship of the policy of the years 1864-66, it is quite true that William was no puppet in the hands of Bismarck. The Prussian historiographer Von Treitschke, in his recent eloquent tribute to the "Two Emperors" in the *Preussische Jahrbücher*, puts the matter rightly in saying that King William never had a single confidant and adviser for all matters. He selected the best man he could find for each department: Von Roon to organize the army, Moltke to lead it, and Bismarck to manage the Prussian Diet and direct the Prussian diplomacy. To the men thus selected he gave great freedom of action; but nothing of consequence was done without his assent, and this assent was not always easily obtained.

After the war of 1866 it was stipulated in the Peace of Prague that the Prussian reorganization of Germany should extend only to the Main. The States south of this river (Bavaria, Würtemberg, Baden, Hesse-Darmstadt) were to remain independent, and, if they chose, form a separate confederacy. But before this treaty was signed, Bismarck had negotiated secret military alliances with these South-German States. Politically, therefore, as far as the line of the Main was concerned, the Peace of Prague was nullified before it was signed. M. Simon goes too far, however, in saying that the Peace of Prague was "broken" before it was signed. It was expressly provided, in that instrument, that the States of South Germany should be free to adjust by treaty their relations to the North-German Confederation, and the secret alliances were nothing more than such an adjustment.

M. Simon's account of the secret negotiations which filled the four years between the Austrian and the French war is interesting and clear. France was arming with nervous haste to repair her diplomatic defeat; and both France and Prussia sought the alliance of Austria in the coming struggle. The Prussian approaches were made indirectly, through the Bavarian Premier, and came to nothing. The French negotiations were direct and partially successful. No treaty was signed, because Austria insisted on the aid or neutrality of Italy, and Italy demanded a price which Napoleon could not pay—the surrender of Rome. But an understanding seems to have been reached; and Austria would probably have joined her forces with those of France in 1870 but for the menacing attitude of Russia. Russia had been completely won over to the Prussian cause, a result largely due to Bismarck's diplomacy. As Ambassador to St. Petersburg (1859-61), he had strengthened the old dynastic friendship between the Hohenzollerns and the Romanoffs; as Minister-President he had supported Russia (during the Polish insurrection) against the western Powers and against the sentiment of Germany; and down to 1870 he sagaciously held a future benefit in reserve—the nullification of the Treaty of 1856 and the freedom of the Black Sea. We know no other books in which this complicated cross-play of diplomatic intrigue is so fully and so well described.

The immediate prelude to the war of 1870, the absurd quarrel over the Spanish candidacy, is impartially narrated. In brief, according to M. Simon, France forced the war; King William made a decent effort to avoid it; Bismarck perhaps helped it on, certainly accepted it with alacrity. The details of the war are not set forth in any of M. Simon's books; he does not undertake to write military history. In his 'Emperor Frederick,' however, the author devotes several pages (138-144) to a description of the Crown Prince's life in Versailles. It was the happy fortune of this Prince, whose life closed so sadly, to make friends everywhere. His simplicity and kindliness, his care for the comfort of the French soldiers in the Versailles hospitals, and his efficient protection of the art treasures in the Versailles palaces, aroused the gratitude and won the affection of the French themselves.

The history of the German Empire since 1870 is admirably sketched in 'Emperor William' and 'Prince Bismarck.' There is no better account in any language of the movement of German politics and German diplomacy from 1871 to 1886. It is only in the description of the *Kulturkampf* that the author's customary impartiality deserts him. Such phrases as "persecution," "flagrant acts of injustice," "desecration of churches" (by the intrusion of Old Catholics) show a strong ultramontane bias. ('Emperor William,' transl., vol. ii, pp. 229, *et seq.*)

In comparing the three books, we find, naturally enough, that 'Prince Bismarck' and 'Emperor William' contain more historical material, while 'Emperor Frederick' is almost purely biographical. The old Emperor and his

Chancellor made history; their lives are inseparable portions of a great era. A biography of Bismarck is necessarily a description of European politics since 1859; and in his 'Emperor William' M. Simon has set himself to describe the career of the King, not the development of the man. In this extraordinary life the development of the man was in fact ended, and the ordinary limit of useful activity almost passed, before the career of the King began. Prince William was sixty-one years old when the illness of his brother made him Regent, sixty-three when he became King, and nearly seventy-four when he was proclaimed German Emperor at Versailles. In the natural course of events the internal development of the new empire during the next seventeen years would have devolved upon his son. But the prolonged life and vigor of the father, and the strict Prussian tradition, held the Crown Prince remote from the affairs of state. Once only, in the summer of 1878, when the Emperor was prostrated by wounds inflicted by a Socialist assassin, the Crown Prince was summoned to act as Regent; and the firmness and tact with which he discharged the duties of the office gave earnest of a wise reign. But in the autumn of the same year Emperor William resumed the exercise of the royal power, and the Crown Prince returned to private life. As inspector of the South-German armies, he held an honorable and important, but not onerous, position. He relieved the aged Emperor of much of the drudgery of royalty, receiving and making visits of ceremony; and on several occasions he was charged with important diplomatic missions. But he was best known and most often seen as the patron of letters and art, presiding over reunions and congresses, opening expositions, and distributing medals. When, at last, the Emperor William passed away, full of years and honors, Frederick ascended the throne a dying man. The great events in which he participated are associated in first instance with other names, and his biography is necessarily a record of personal experiences and a study of character. M. Simon therefore tells us much of Frederick's youth, of his marriage, of his domestic life and his foreign travels. The book is more anecdotical than the 'William' or the 'Bismarck'; but the anecdotes are well chosen, and serve to illustrate the frank and genial character, the ready tact and kindly humor of the Prince whom all Germany called "our Fritz." M. Simon's book was published immediately after the Emperor Frederick's return from San Remo to Berlin. It lacks the last sad chapter: we do not see the Emperor dying by inches; and we are spared the spectacle of the strife and intrigue of political parties, court cliques, and differing doctors about the imperial death-bed.

M. Simon's 'Emperor William' has been translated into English. If the 'Bismarck' or the 'Frederick' is to be translated, it is to be hoped that the task will be assigned to other hands. The standard of English translation is not high, but work so bad as this is fortunately rare. When an English translator is unaware that there is such an English word as "customs," and speaks sometimes of a *Zollverein* and sometimes of a union of *douanes;* when he ignores the distinction between "States" and "Estates"; when he uses such phrases as "declaring war *to* Austria," "founding himself" on a treaty (meaning basing his action thereon), "coalesced governments" (meaning allied or confederate), and "complicated in a political trial" (meaning involved); when he speaks of the republic as "prevalent" in France, as if it were analogous to smallpox, talks of "an equivalent equal to" certain provinces, and coins such an adjective as "conquerous"—the reader wonders how long and where this foreigner studied English before attempting to write it. The book is also defaced by numerous misprints, often destructive of the sense, *e. g.:* Federal for feudal (i., 101); Saxony for Prussia (i., 212); minority for majority (i., 280); Prussian for Russian (ii., 44); protest for pretext (ii., 47); agreement for argument (ii., 153); imports for imposts (ii, 250). Paper and type are good.

GRANT AND THE POTOMAC ARMY.

The Personal Memoirs and Military History of U. S. Grant, versus the Record of the Army of the Potomac. By Carswell McClellan, Brevet Lt.-Colonel U. S. Vols., on staff of Gen. A. A. Humphreys, 1862–1864. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 12mo.

THE relations of General Grant to the Army of the Potomac are, and will no doubt long continue to be, a moot question in history. Had only his 'Personal Memoirs' been written, the controversy would have been softened, though it still would have existed. The modesty of tone and the simple directness of the 'Memoirs' go far to impress the reader with the sincerity of the writer's convictions and the honesty of his expression of them. But it is impossible to forget that Badeau's 'Military History' was avowedly Grant's own story, and that he had declared himself substantially responsible for its statements of fact and of opinion, except its personal praise of himself. Badeau's systematic depreciation of the prominent officers of the Potomac army, in order to heighten Grant's greatness, has therefore (and quite naturally) been taken as the true disclosure of Grant's personal attitude towards them; and the more considerate tone of the 'Personal Memoirs' has been interpreted as meaning only that his habitual modesty of personal expression avoided the sweeping judgments of his military secretary, which he had endorsed, if he had not dictated them. Such, at least, may be said to be the opinion of a considerable party among the officers of that army, and this is the sentiment which is represented in Colonel McClellan's book.

The controversy generally takes even a wider range than this. The military soundness of Grant's plan of campaign and of his methods is drawn in question, and it is often assumed that it is necessary to argue that he is a greatly overrated man, if the subordinate officers are to be relieved from the damaging effect of his unfavorable opinion. The two subjects of controversy do not necessarily go together. Grant may have been quite as great a soldier as his most devoted admirers claim, and may yet have been prejudiced and partial in his treatment of particular men, or even in his judgment of the Army of the Potomac as a body. His colossal reputation is an historical fact, and it would seem to be in the last degree impolitic to make the vindication of Warren or the proper estimate of Meade or of Hancock require the conclusion that Grant was not the fit man to command the army. A time will come when the critical estimate of the man and his faults may be made as coldly and judicially as we make that of Marlborough, but it will hardly be in this generation. Public gratitude and political prejudices combine to put both friends and foes in a frame of mind which is anything but judicial.

There is not the same obstacle to fair public judgment when the question is carefully narrowed to one of mistake in particular facts or of unjust judgment of a particular man. Even in such a debate, however, he is a blind disputant who does not see that the reputation of General Grant will outweigh almost any individual opinion, and put any one who disputes his judgment at an enormous disadvantage. He will be extremely unwise if he lugs in any subject of discussion but the one in hand, or uses any method but the most serious and thorough appeal to clearly stated and well defined evidence.

After Badeau's 'Military History' was published, but before Grant wrote his 'Personal Memoirs,' Gen. A. A. Humphreys wrote his 'Virginia Campaign of 1864 and 1865.' Few men were so well fitted for the task by experience or by education. He was an eminent army engineer, who had also an established reputation as a brave and able commander of troops in the field. He had been chief-of-staff to General Meade during the greater part of the campaign of which he wrote, and had an intimate personal knowledge of the facts he was dealing with, so far as one man could know what took place in so great an army. His character was of the highest, and his temperament of the calmest. He differed from Badeau's version of the campaign in a number of particulars. Some of them were of more importance than others, but, taken together, they would lead to another conclusion than Badeau's on some of the controverted points to which allusion has been made—notably to that touching General Warren's performance of duty and the justice of retiring him from the command of the Fifth Corps at Five Forks.

General Humphreys's method was that of a self-respecting historian. He did not hesitate to say when he could not accept Badeau's statements as accurate, and to give the grounds of difference, either from personal memory or from his examination of official documents. He carefully avoided criticism of General Grant, and sought to make his narrative of events so explicit and clear that intelligent readers could draw their own conclusions. In short, his book comes within the lines which have been above noted, as wise discussion of points in which the author knew the reputation of Grant was in fact behind the statements of Badeau which he criticised. It was therefore a very positive and weighty contribution towards the settlement of the history of an eventful period. General Humphreys would have been the last man to claim that the personal authority of his own narrative would override that of General Grant in a matter concerning which both had personal knowledge, or in which their opinions clashed. He might, however, rightly feel that his deliberate and temperately expressed conclusions would challenge the impartial investigation of students, and suspend judgment, even in face of an opinion or statement of Grant himself.

Colonel McClellan's book purports to compare the statements of both Grant and Badeau with "The Record of the Army of the Potomac"; but at the outset of his task he declares his purpose "to use, with very little other reference, the work of General Humphreys, as embodying substantially the established record, as far as it shall be necessary to examine it." Indeed, throughout the book, when the "Record" is referred to, it will be found that a textual quotation from Humphreys is made, whether the usual marks of quotation are inserted or not. What is in fact given, is therefore a series of quotations from Grant and Badeau, compared with others from Humphreys, connected by a running comment, in which the proof of error in the first two books is supposed to be complete when their disagreement with the last is exhibited.

Justice to Colonel McClellan requires us to

note that he defends his method by reasoning which seems to him conclusive, though few will agree with him who are not disqualified as jurors by having previously "formed or expressed an opinion" on the subject-matter. He says of General Humphreys's book:

"It is believed that not one material fact as recorded by him has been questioned or controverted. To this General Grant bears silent but positive testimony. Although General Humphreys has noted and corrected some of the deviations from the record into which General Badeau had wandered, and which General Grant has persistently followed, the entire ignoring in the 'Memoirs' of the name of General Humphreys, as far as the matters treated of will in any way permit, is the only discoverable evidence that General Grant or his assistants have been aware of the existence of 'The Virginia Campaign of 1864 and 1865.' The supposition that they were in actual ignorance of this authority cannot be entertained; nor can it be believed that they would have failed to produce antagonistic authorities, had such been obtainable" (pp. 5, 6).

It will be seen that, as to Badeau, the argument is that he who has published a book must publish a refutation of any later book which controverts his own, under pain of being held to be self-convicted of inability to do so; as to Grant, it is that, though he has explicitly reiterated Badeau's original errors, he must be held to confess that they *are* errors because he has failed to add "antagonistic authorities" to his own implied contradiction of Humphreys. To any one who knew much of Grant's peculiar mental traits, it would be quite easily believed that when Grant had asserted either matter of fact or of opinion, he quite naïvely assumed that the burden of proof was on him who questioned it. Besides, it is a violent presumption that Grant had read General Humphreys's book. Even in health, it may be doubted whether he would read a book reputed to be in any way antagonistic to his own ideas of his military campaigns. He was not a great reader, and there was plenty of pleasanter reading. His quiet but undoubting confidence in himself was one of the conditions of his great successes. To "say his say," and to ignore those who disputed it, was quite in the line of his mental constitution and habit. But when he wrote the 'Memoirs' he was a sick man. His relations to Badeau's History had been such that he could properly use it as the material which he was to recast into his own language, with such variations as had occurred to him since it was published, and such additional personal matter as he judged appropriate. His reference to authorities might well be limited to official documents which those about him could consult for the purpose of verifying or correcting his memory.

Apart from all such considerations, however, Colonel McClellan's assumed principle of criticism is wholly untenable, and shows clearly that it was foredoomed that his comparison of Grant and Badeau with what he so strangely calls the "Record" could have little or no historical value. It may be a convenience to some to have the quotations from the several books brought into juxtaposition, so that the extent of the divergence may be seen without the trouble of reference to the volumes themselves; but we are not otherwise assisted in reaching satisfactory conclusions as to the controversy. A sidelight is thrown upon the feelings of young officers of that army, like Colonel McClellan and those who were in a similar attitude towards the Lieutenant-General, and one may suspect that they reflected in some degree the sentiment of the older and superior officers to whose persons they were attached. For whatever this is worth, its tendency would be to show a misjudgment of Grant's qualities and a disposition to harsh conclusions respecting him. To this extent, also, the influence of General Humphreys's book will be weakened rather than strengthened by the tone of one who was so close to him that he may be assumed to betray the deeper feelings which the more prudent general did not express.

There is a general tendency among impartial students of the history of our Civil War to believe that Grant's 'Memoirs' (and much more Badeau's 'Military History') need correction along lines which are indicated by General Humphreys. This only makes it the more desirable that nothing shall be brought forward as fact or as argument which is not solid. Lack of judgment or of the judicial temper in the disputants will only delay that settling of public opinion upon a just award which every patriotic man wishes for.

An example or two may be necessary to show the point of this criticism. Colonel McClellan devotes some pages to an effort to show that Grant had put Meade into a painfully false position by assuming personal control of the movements of the Potomac Army. He quotes with a certain fairness Grant's own views of the intolerable position of a "second in command" in the Corinth campaign under Halleck, and argues that this should have prevented Grant from establishing such relations with Meade. This is legitimate argument, though it does not meet the important question, What were the real reasons and motives that made Grant adopt that which he, at all times, recent as well as earlier, admitted to be full of embarrassment? The historical critic's task is only begun when he has shown that Grant had spoken strongly against the very thing which he did. Most people will conclude that he must have thought there were very strong reasons for doing that which was personally unpleasant to both himself and Meade, and which he perfectly well knew diminished the vigor and promptness of response to his commands. Colonel McClellan sees no good reason for it, and contents himself with showing that Grant was doing that which he had before criticised, and that both Badeau and he speak of Meade's intermediate position being the occasion of mistakes and cross-purposes at times. It is only just to remember that Grant at least insisted that Meade should be publicly recognized as having performed great services, and demanded that his promotion to be Major-General in the regular army should be simultaneous with Sherman's, which had been won by independent command in the field.

But in what he says on this subject, Colonel McClellan is within the line of fair argument. His fault is, that he concludes with criticism by insinuation or mere assertion far more sweeping than his direct attack. He says of the suggestion that Grant could have succeeded better had there been no "second in command," that it "is now, at best, no less problematic than the conviction held by many competent to judge, that the tragedy which commenced in the Wilderness on May 4 and ended at Cold Harbor on June 3, 1864, would have been unnecessary had General Meade been unhampered by the constant overruling presence of General Grant." (p. 31.) Again, on page 37, speaking of Grant's repeated flanking movements to "get south" of the enemy, he says: "Again and again the favorite movement was attempted, and again and again it was met and foiled, till the James River was reached and crossed, and the army took breath to count the strategic value of 'mere attrition.'" Once more, on page 39, he says: "The campaign and the whole responsibility were General Grant's, as his historian affirms. However much his (Grant's) views may be regretted, no one doubts the sincerity of his statement," etc. Still again, on page 40, he speaks of it as "a campaign confessedly fruitful, almost solely, of carnage." As the author makes no pretence of a strategic and tactical examination of the campaign and its results, such sweeping judgments can mean nothing but that the writer enrolls himself among the few who still hold that Grant was "no general;" and by linking them to his more extended discussion of the personal questions affecting Meade, Warren, and others, he prejudices his case in the way which we have suggested above.

THE LATEST YEAR BOOKS.

Year Books of the Reign of King Edward the Third. Year XIV. Edited and translated by Luke Owen Pike. [Rolls Series.] London. 1888.

THE filling of the gaps in the old black-letter volumes of English law reports, known as the Year Books, proceeds but slowly. This is not the editor's fault, but is traceable probably to an ill-advised economy on the part of the British Government. We have here the reports of Easter and Trinity Terms, in the year 1340, the fourteenth year of Edward III.; and the editor informs us that others are ready to be printed. The regular appearance of these excellent books is a steady provocation to the much needed work of reëditing, translating, and reprinting the black-letter volumes in a manner to match the present series. Does that project slumber in England? It should be taken in hand forthwith, by the Inns of Court or some other natural or corporate person competent to carry it through. There is no doubt that active help and pecuniary support can be secured on this side. It is of the greatest importance to anything like a mastery of our law that there should be access to the Year Books. The legal scholarship of the present day, if it would not be utterly put to shame by what goes on in other departments of learning, must thoroughly explore its own annals. The admirable fruits of this sort of research, when made by competent men, like Judge Hare, Mr. Justice Holmes, or Professor Ames, is more and more coming to the notice of the legal profession. But those who do this work do it at a fearful cost of time and labor in searching these blind, ill-printed, and incomplete records, which they should be spared. The Year Books are full of material of great value to all students of law, young and old, but they are, practically, closed to all but a very few.

Moreover, something is to be said as to the interests of philology and general scholarship, as well as of legal science. The thorough examination of all existing manuscripts of the earlier Year Books is essential to the preparation of that Glossary of the Norman-French, or, rather, Anglo-French, which is so great a desideratum.

"A glossary," says Mr. Pike, "of the French language, written and spoken in England, as made known to us by the reports in French, is an essential feature of the present undertaking. . . . The only direct sources of information with regard to the French spoken in England down to the time of the disuse of pleading in French [say twenty years later than the time of the present volume] are the Year Books, and a great portion of the Year Books is, for all philological purposes, still in manuscript. The old black-letter editions [*i. e.*, the only editions there are, excepting the few volumes of the present series] cannot for a moment be trusted in relation to delicate variations in the forms of words. . . . When, however, the MSS. are carefully compared, the language actually spoken day by day is clearly brought out. . . . There has probably never been a language which, after so long a lapse of

time, has left such a perfect memorial of itself as the French spoken in English courts of justice, and written in various instruments of the same period. There are other ancient languages which we know as they were written in history, poetry, or philosophy, and which have left such indications of ordinary speech as are to be found in the drama, or in artificial displays of oratory. But the colloquial phrases and idioms used by men of cultivation in their ordinary avocations more than five hundred years ago, have been handed down in the Year Books, which are, in this respect, absolutely unique."

This very important and interesting undertaking would seem to be included in the plans of the Selden Society. There ought to be a co-operation between this society and Mr. Pike in accomplishing this purpose, but we observe no reference in the announcements of either to the plans of the other.

In this volume Mr. Pike has followed the same excellent method as before. Four manuscripts have been collated, and occasionally more than one report is printed. A comparison of these reports with the original records is constantly bringing out important matter supplementing, correcting, or illustrating the reports. "In this way a double task is being accomplished, as the Year Books are made to serve as a guide for the selection of all that is most important in the rolls, in relation not only to legal but also to social history. . . . The reported cases are almost invariably found to be the most important for all purposes, even though the report be meagre and not easily intelligible." The editor of these volumes refers to all the cases in the Book of Assizes and in Fitzherbert which are also found in the present series.

Mr. Pike continues the good custom of pointing out in the introduction such cases as seem to him worthy of particular remark, and adds much valuable original matter of his own. Thus the subject of redressing errors in the Court of Exchequer, before the establishing of the Court of Exchequer Chamber, is illustrated by the printing of an important record of the year 1337, which shows the successful claim of the Barons of the Exchequer to correct their own errors at home, by calling into the Exchequer "other the King's lieges, among whom were included the Justices of the two Benches." In discussing the case No. 45 in Trinity Term, the editor refers to the four men from four neighboring townships, who are summoned in to inform the Court of King's Bench more fully as to the facts relating to the obligation to repair a certain bridge—as having a function nearly akin to that of modern witnesses. This seems hardly so, for their information appears to have been given to the court during the process of pleading; an issue was subsequently reached and a jury of trial summoned. These seem to be our old friends who figured, *e. g.*, in the previous century at the Gloucester Iter of 1221 (Maitland, 'Pleas of the Crown,' xlii–xliv), and their function in this case seems more like that of the *secta* than of modern witnesses. But the subject is dark.

A highly interesting case is an assize of Novel Disseizin (No. 11 Easter Term) in which the jury gave a special verdict, and were questioned by the judges as to how they knew certain things which were matters of record. They stated how they knew it, not saying that they had ever seen the record, but, according to one report, that they knew it by hearsay, and, according to the record itself, that "they had no certain knowledge that there was such a plea or judgment, and they would not absolutely say that there was any; but by the summoning and resummoning of Walter and Margery and by the view of the land and because it was generally said in the country, . . . they understood that there was such a plea and judgment." The court refused to give judgment on this verdict till they saw the record, and when it was brought in they declared that, although there was such a record, yet it related to a different piece of land from what the jury assumed; and so they disregarded this part of the verdict. It is noticeable, however, that in point of substantial justice this jury were right and the court was wrong; the land really was the same. This case will be found to illustrate the great benefit that these volumes are conferring upon legal scholars by that comparison and publication of different reports and of the original record to which we have already referred.

In another case the editor notes that a deed executed on Sunday appears to have been recognized as good, and he rightly remarks that Coke's quotation of ante-Norman laws to show that Sunday had always been *dies non juridicus* is misleading. The first "Sunday law" since the Conquest appears to have been the stat. 27 Henry VI., c. 5 (1448-49). "After the Reformation, statutes relating to the observance of Sunday or the Lord's Day increased and multiplied, but there seems every reason to believe that, from the reign of Richard I. to the reign of Henry VI., the distinction between Sunday and other days was but little recognized even by the Church, and, of course, not more by laymen than by the clergy." About a quarter of a century later than the Sunday law of Henry VI. we find it stated as the law of the period, in an argument by Serjeant Pigot, in 1472 (Year Book, 12 Edw., IV., 8, 22), that "a market cannot be held every day in the week, for on the Lord's Day no market can be held as matter of common right, since it is against the law of God. If a return day falls on Sunday, no court will be held until the following day. . . . And if a man counts on a contract that on the Lord's Day he became bound to do so and so, it is void, for the contract is unlawful. And moreover there is a statute 27 Henry VI., c. 5, that merchandise shall not be shown on the Lord's Day," etc. This was in part denied by counsel on the other side, and there was no decision, for the matter was not in issue in the case. But as regards the practice of holding court on Sunday it may probably be taken as correct.

Mr. Pike has interesting comments upon a practice, which some of the cases disclose, of lending money to another to use in merchandise for the profit of the lender: "The liability was limited and could not possibly extend beyond the amount originally risked. In this respect our forefathers enjoyed all the advantages of the 'Companies Acts, 1862,'" etc.

The only criticism of this excellent volume that occurs to us relates to a mere mechanical device of reference. It would help the reader if the numbers of such cases as are carried through several pages were placed at the top of each page.

The Capitals of Spanish America. By William Eleroy Curtis, late Commissioner from the United States to the Governments of Central and South America. Illustrated. Harper & Bros. 1888.

THE South American Commission of 1884 was, diplomatically, so complete a failure as to be laughable. But the mission on which Stevens went in 1839 was politically barren, while its literary results were highly important. There, we are sorry to say, the parallel does not hold. Mr. Curtis has got together much interesting information. Several of his chapters, judged as fugitive magazine articles (and in that form many of them first saw the light), make a favorable impression. For a half-hour's skipping reading, the book, with the help of the numerous illustrations, would be fitted to almost all tastes. But beyond that it does not seem to us to go.

Its name is not happily chosen. Of course, an author should be given great liberty in the selection of his own title ordinarily, but he ought not to choose a misleading one. This is far from being a handbook to the capitals of Spanish America. Of Mexico, for example, fifty fuller and more accurate descriptions have been published. In general, but the vaguest impressions are left by Mr. Curtis's handling of the subject proper of his book. Bogotá and Quito he did not see, yet his accounts of those cities are only a little more indefinite and devoid of local color than in most of the other cases. The title of the book, in fact, seems to have been a despairing recognition of the impossibility of giving a unifying name to the miscellaneous collection of statistics and history, anecdote and narrative, odds and ends about climate, customs, architecture, government, trade, and politics, drawn from the author's note-books and reading. It is but fair to the reader to advise him that if he expects to get either a good description of the cities, or a satisfactory account of the history of the countries and the habits of the peoples, he will be disappointed.

If we were to speak of the minor inaccuracies we have noted in the book, there would be no end. A few of the graver faults should be mentioned. Mr. Curtis appears to have carried the habits of a Washington newspaper correspondent into his writing of history. Misunderstandings of authorities, frightful mistranslations—above all, a readiness to take an idle tale as demonstrated fact and to print all sorts of rumors as veritable occurrences—are frequent. A good instance of the competence of the author as an historian, and, at the same time, a sample of his ideas about Spanish, is found in the account he gives of the origin of the name Nicaragua: "Here he found on the borders of the lake a vast population of Indians under a cacique named Nicaro, and called the country in his reports *Nicaro's Agua*, or waters; hence the name" (p. 154). Mr. Curtis makes unwarrantable charges against public men, in the true style of an anonymous and irresponsible newspaper despatch. Such, at least, in the absence of a shred of proof, we must account his grave accusations of President Cárdenas (p. 106). The fact that he states wrongly the date and many of the incidents of the revolution in Costa Rica, of 1870, affords a fair presumption that his whole account of the motives leading up to that occurrence has no historical basis. Not once in the whole book, we believe, is an authority cited.

It may also be to Mr. Curtis's newspaper work that some of his errors in taste and faults of style are traceable. Among the former are to be noted the truly Jenkins-like descriptions of the persons and possessions of certain prominent Hispano-Americans, who must, we should think, take great offence at the liberty with which their names are used, if they should see this book; among the latter, the too frequent witticisms, which are usually cheap, often salacious, and occasionally indecent.

In point of paper, print, and binding, the book is very attractive. The illustrations, too, are abundant, and most of them successful. They suggest, however, a word as to the proper limits to be observed in the use of old plates. The publishers have drawn pretty freely on their stores. In particular they have laid

under contribution the late Prof. Orton's 'The Andes and the Amazon,' Holton's 'New Granada,' Page's 'La Plata,' and Bishop's 'Old Mexico and her Lost Provinces.' This is legitimate enough (except that the cuts from the old plates are too often inferior in execution), were it not that sometimes acquaintances of other days are made to masquerade under new names. Thus, the picture on page 316, called "A Passenger Train," is taken from Holton, where it is called "Riding on the *Sillon*," and is meant exactly to illustrate the Peruvian side-saddle in use. In Curtis, it neither explains nor is explained by a word of the text. Holton's appropriate "A Priest on his Travels" becomes Curtis's vague "Across the Continent" (p. 437). Bishop was pretty thoroughly pillaged to set out Griffin's 'Mexico of To-day,' but had then to undergo no such surprising and painful transformations as are now wrought with some of his pictures. On page 106 of Bishop is a picture of "A Mercería at Puebla." In Curtis (p. 9) this is transported bodily to the City of Mexico. A still more worthy rival of the Loretto miracle is the carrying of some of Bishop's buildings from Orizaba to Guatemala, and of an entire street from the City of Mexico to the capital of Honduras. We refer to the pictures to be found on pages 99 and 132 of Curtis and 196 and 49 of Bishop.

The Heart of the Creeds: Historical Religion in the Light of Modern Thought. By Arthur Wentworth Eaton. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1888.

MR. EATON'S volume is a sign of the times, and there are many like unto it. That it is not unique, is clearly shown by the succession of anthologies which precede the several chapters. They greatly enhance the value of the book; they indicate the sources of the writer's inspiration, and, while they include many sentences and passages from Unitarian writers, so many others are from contemporary writers in at least nominal fellowship with evangelical churches, that Mr. Eaton is clearly seen to be one of many—the exponent of theological tendencies which are very deep and wide, and which derive their volume and momentum in part from tributary streams as far apart as Schleiermacher and Matthew Arnold. The problem is how to keep up "the *form* of sound doctrine" and observance when all they once contained has vanished into thin air. Schleiermacher, a master of the Hegelian metaphysic, had great success in doing this. It was really doubtful whether any of the points of the doctrine were believed by him, but his last act was to call for cup and platter to administer the Eucharist, and he had never any difficulty in using theological terms which had for him no particle of their traditional meaning.

Dr. John Caird's 'Philosophy of Religion' and Dr. Elisha Mulford's 'Republic of God' are the books—one in Great Britain and the other here—that represent the Hegelian Neo-Christianity in its most engaging forms. Mr. Eaton places them first upon the list of books that have done much to shape—or rather to unshape—his thought. If he had not named them, we should have known that he had been with them. Matthew Arnold's scheme for resolving the Church of England into "a society for the promotion of goodness," retaining creeds and articles and liturgy, while abandoning belief in miracle and immortality and the personal God, however intellectually remote from the Hegelian school, had much in common with its moral tendency. But his was a clear-eyed perception and clear-voiced insistence that "the former things had passed away." This is perhaps the reason why he does not shine with Mr. Eaton's other lights.

The first of Mr. Eaton's nine chapters is upon God. It reproduces the thought in Prof. Alexander Allen's 'Continuity of Christian Thought,' which Mr. John Fiske found reason to approve in his 'Idea of God,' to the effect that the theology of Eastern Christendom was much less anthropomorphic and much more a "cosmic theism" than the theology of the West. This proposition, which is fundamental to Prof. Allen's book, is returned upon again and again, and Augustine and the Western theologians generally are treated so contemptuously by Mr. Eaton that one's sympathies with them are quickened. Certainly, if the tree can be known by its fruits, the Christianity of the East was no better than the Christianity of the West. If the West was lacking in philosophic insight, it had something of moral earnestness to which the East did not attain. A very doubtful statement in this chapter is that "the so-called Apostles' Creed" was made under the influence of the larger and freer and more rational theology of a time nearer to Christ and the Apostles than the fourth and fifth centuries, when Augustine lived and wrote. There is no evidence of its existence before the end of the fourth century, and none of its acceptance by the Church before the eighth.

Mr. Eaton's second chapter brings out more strongly than any other the anti-Calvinism that pervades his book. In view of certain phrases of the New Testament Epistles, he is much too severe upon Augustine and Calvin, as if they had got their doctrine of human depravity entirely from their own inner consciousness. It is interesting here, as elsewhere, to find Emerson quoted as a good authority—sometimes the very phrases that were anathema to his Unitarian brethren in his Divinity School address of fifty years ago. What is not clear in the chapter upon Christ is why, if all men have something in them of the divine, he should receive a homage so peculiar and unique. How far the adumbration of the traditional dogma has proceeded with Mr. Eaton may be inferred from his statement that Christ's atonement was his "revelation of the light and freedom of the obedient soul," and that his divinity is "*truly believed* by every one, however defective his philosophy may be, who, loving reason and goodness and faith, seeks the liberation of his own soul from sin."

A chapter on the Creeds brings out even more sharply than the preceding chapters the easy-going way in which the traditional dogmas are entertained by Mr. Eaton's ideal Episcopalians. The Thirty nine Articles are not a doctrinal standard, we are told. Mr. Eaton does not see "why the broadest thinker should not feel able to subscribe them as a whole"; but, in point of fact, they stand on the back of the Prayer-Book as an historical document. The only doctrinal standards of American Episcopalians are the Apostles' and Nicene Creeds. The substance of the latter is the Trinitarian symbol, and, as Mr. Eaton explains it, we are all Trinitarians, but the Unitarians much better ones than the Calvinists. Mr. Eaton is generally very gracious with the Unitarians, evidently considering them much nearer the Church, as he apprehends it, than the evangelical sects. Certainly, any one could conscientiously accept the Apostles' Creed if he could conscientiously accept Mr. Eaton's understanding of its force; but there are many who could not do this. For it is thus: "When we say of Jesus, 'Conceived of the Holy Ghost, born of the Virgin Mary, suffered under Pontius Pilate, was crucified, dead, and buried, and *went into the place of departed spirits*,' we simply mean to declare our belief in the *facts* of his history, whatever they are." Moreover, there are many, Unitarians and others, who will consider Mr. Eaton's explanation of the Trinitarian symbol as wholly without warrant. That the Father stands for "the majesty and mystery of God" is a misreading of the Christian consciousness, and so is it that the Son stands for "the tenderness, patience, and pity of God" more than the Father.

The instances already given will convey a sufficient idea of the method and spirit of the book. They are further illustrated by chapters on the Bible, the Church, the Sacraments, the Liturgy, and the Future Life. The spirit is as catholic as one can ask. The opinions are as liberal as any can desire. Theodore Parker's opinion of the Bible is quoted, and the account of it is such as he would have approved. For the sacraments nothing is claimed but a symbolic assertion of the sacredness of the meal and bath. "Heaven and hell are states of the soul, not places of reward and punishment." Our author is hard upon the Calvinistic doctrine of eternal punishment—we should say too hard, considering the testimony of Jesus, which men have seldom felt at liberty to dissipate into mere rhetoric or to call "accommodation" to the superstition of his time. In the argument for immortality there is no mention of the resurrection of Jesus, but Emerson's is quoted as an authoritative word. And yet we can conceive that, for all the catholicity of spirit and the liberality of opinion, this book will be as little to the taste of the average liberal as to that of the average conservative.

Das nachgelassene Werk Immanuel Kant's: Vom Uebergange von den metaphysischen Anfangsgründen der Naturwissenschaft zur Physik. Von Albrecht Krause. B. Westermann & Co. 8vo, pp. 425.

THIS posthumous work, which created so much interest among philosophers in 1882 and 1884, during its serial publication in the *Alt-Preussische Monatsschrift*, now appears in book form, accompanied by a popular exposition and commentary of equal length with the original, and extending into the whole philosophy of Kant. It is very conveniently printed for the reader: the original text occupies the left- and the commentary the right-hand page. The chief importance of the work will be for specialists in the Kantian philosophy, and even for them it will not modify but confirm their conclusions from the older and greater work, the 'Critique of Pure Reason.' Hence we may notice but one or two of those characteristic features in which Kant's general reputation is concerned.

His paradoxical conceptions of space, and the consequent transcendentalism which they involved, have given the cue to most of the criticisms which have been directed against his whole philosophy by physicists and the school of "common sense." A great many features of his style made it impossible to penetrate his meaning except at the expense of greater time and study than the uninitiated have to devote to it. The result has been, by the consent of ordinary minds, to relegate his system to that limbo of philosophic cloud-land where the shades of Plato have been content so long to dwell. But a hasty judgment of this kind entirely mistakes the problem before Kant's mind, and is usually determined by an assumption that will not bear examination. It is too generally supposed that Kant was ignorant of physics, and "projected his system from his own consciousness" in the interests of a purely

introspective philosophy. Nothing could be more unfounded. He lectured on the physical sciences for forty years before beginning his philosophy, and was a rival of La Place for the honors of the nebular hypothesis. This fact ought to disarm criticism based upon the presumptions of physics. Kant was perfectly aware of the offence to "common sense" which his position offered, and hence this effort to point out the connection between metaphysics and physics. Besides, he is entitled to the benefit of a second and equally significant fact, which ought to have much *ad hominem* force with the physicist. Kant's theory of space was but an extension of Locke's and Descartes's view regarding the "secondary qualities" of matter—light, sound, etc. They idealized these, and Kant had only to put the question, Why not the "primary qualities" also, space and time? The physicist everywhere accepts the Lockian and Cartesian doctrine, while Kant's view has the merit of completeness and consistency, whatever may be said of its correctness.

To scholars the evidence that Kant constructed his idealism with a view to recognizing the most extravagant claims of physical science will be very strong in the contents of this work, for it is largely occupied with questions for which the physicist will look in vain in the 'Critique,' and which indicate the very problems to be solved by all subjective systems of philosophy. It is here, too, more than elsewhere, that the scholar will discover the affinities between Kant and Leibnitz; and this fact is interesting because the compatibility of Leibnitz's philosophy with the physical sciences has never been questioned. Although Kant says nothing about "monads," "preëstablished harmony," and other Leibnitzian conceptions of the kind, the influence of Leibnitz is unmistakably present in the discussions of force and matter. The commentary helps very much to make this apparent.

Highways and Horses. By Athol Maudslay. London: Chapman & Hall; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

THE title of this book is likely to raise expectations that will be disappointed by its contents. There is hardly anything in the whole five hundred pages concerning the breeding, selection, or care of horses, and very little about the construction of highways. What there is under the latter head relates principally to the old Roman roads, a subject upon which more satisfactory information can be obtained elsewhere. In fact, the author seems to have had no clear purpose in writing, and to have jotted down whatever occurred to him without regard to continuity. He does not hesitate to quote page after page of Dickens, upon the ground that everybody enjoys reading whatever Dickens wrote; he makes long extracts from the adventures of Dick Turpin; he inserts "The One-Hoss Shay" entire; and in general he fills up the gaps between his own observations with miscellaneous clippings from the newspapers.

The proper title for this book, or for so much of it as should remain after a severe pruning, would be 'Coaches and Coaching.' Upon these subjects the author has really something to say, and, in spite of his lack of system, he often says it pleasantly. Some of his stories of bygone days upon the road are worth preserving, but they are generally too long for quotation. There is nothing better, however, in this line than the remark, made some forty years ago by Will Bowers, the Oxford coachman, to Sir Henry Peyton, a famous whip and member of the Four-in-Hand Club, upon the superiority of coaching to railroading: "Why, you see, Sir Henry, if an accident happens to a coach, why, there you are; but if an accident happens to a train, where are you?"

The time made by coaches immediately before the introduction of railways was very good, averaging eight and a half miles an hour. The Exeter day-coach made 165 miles in seventeen hours, and the Manchester day-coach ran 186 miles during the day. A coach called the "Beaufort Hunt" maintained the extraordinary speed of eleven miles an hour between London and Bath, except where it encountered steep hills. The "Quicksilver" once went down to Brighton on the opening day of Parliament, with a copy of the King's speech, in three hours and forty minutes—fifteen miles an hour. The regular time of this coach was four hours and a half. With the revival of coaching in recent years, this line has been reëstablished by an amateur, but the time is now six hours, with a half-hour's rest.

As to the details of coach-building and furnishing, Mr. Maudslay supplies a good deal of information that may be of interest to amateurs in this country. The proper kinds of timber for the various parts of the coach, their seasoning and painting and varnishing, the axles and wheels and tires and springs, are all described, and directions are furnished for the guidance of purchasers in obtaining what is most approved in the shape of harness, lamps, coach-horns, etc. But, except to those who are specially interested in coaching, the book is not likely to be of much service, and it can hardly be recommended to the general reader.

The Story of Ohio. By Alexander Black. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 1888.

THIS is the second volume published in the "Story of the States" series, the first having been the 'Story of New York.' The book, like Hinsdale's 'Old Northwest,' lately reviewed in these pages, is a centennial monument to the settlement of Marietta by the passengers of the second *Mayflower*, in April, 1888, and covers to a great extent the same ground as President Hinsdale's book. The thirty-six very pretty illustrations, and the omission of everything that is dry or unpleasant, betoken a semi-juvenile work, and it can hardly be criticised from any other standpoint. The body of the "story" comprises 300 pages in large print, followed by ten pages of a chronological epitome, an abstract of the Ordinance of 1787 and of the present Constitution of Ohio. Then follows a short list of books bearing on the subject, and a copious index. How difficult it is for the "story" writer to arouse an interest in the doings of an established American commonwealth may be judged from our author's compressing into 146 pages the history of Ohio from its admission down to our own day, while giving up 154 pages to the *origines*. Among these may be found Washington's first campaign to the forks of the Ohio; the expedition which wound up in "Braddock's defeat"; the defeat of St. Clair, and the victory of Mad Anthony Wayne—all of which, though of great importance to the settlement of Ohio, took place beyond its borders. But the expedition of George Rogers Clark, by which the revolting Americans took possession of the Northwest, is wholly ignored. The establishment of the Moravian missions among the Delaware Indians at Gnadenhütten, by Heckewelder and Zeisberger, is not related in the narrative; we only read how the settlement was destroyed and the "praying Indians" were massacred in the "last winter of the Revolution" by a party under Col. Williamson. Gov. Arthur St. Clair is to our author not a hero, but a meddlesome, overbearing blunderer, who made the powers of the Executive, and above all the veto power, for ever odious to the people of Ohio. But his daughter Louise comes in for so much the more admiration, not only by reason of her beauty and grace, but also of her courage, her horsemanship, and her skill with the rifle. One of the illustrations shows her sitting on horseback, while young Brant, son of the mighty Mohawk chief, passes by and throws sheep's-eye glances at her. The old story, that by refusing to marry him she brought an Indian war on the first settlers of Ohio, is given for what it is worth.

The story of Ohio, when it entered upon Statehood and since, is told with a strong bias against slavery and slaveholders. Due praise is bestowed on Ephraim Cutler (son of Dr. Manasseh Cutler, the founder), who, in the Convention of 1802, by his word and vote, turned the scale towards the total exclusion of slaveholding. A long chapter is devoted to the "Underground Railroad" and its worthy President, Levi Coffin. Mr. Black gets the origin of Mormonism within his jurisdiction, not only by reason of the short stop which Joseph Smith with his little band of "Latter Day Saints" made at Kirkland, in Lake County, Ohio, but also, and mainly, through the circumstance that a young poet, Solomon Spaulding, living at Conneaut, in the Western Reserve, wrote an unpublished poem, under the title, "The Manuscript Found," which the shrewd "prophet" came across and turned into his Book of Mormon. Blennerhassett's Paradise, and the serpent Burr who entered and ruined it, also find their way into our story, though the island on which the refined Irishman lived was a part of Virginia. The Germans of Ohio, notwithstanding their powerful influence in shaping public sentiment in Cincinnati and other large cities of the State, are disposed of in a few lines of foot-note on page 298. The struggle between temperance and free liquor, which has for nearly forty years held the foremost place among local questions, is not alluded to at all. The faction fights, growing out of the entry of the Standard Oil Company into State politics, are passed over in silence. But the great men whom Ohio has furnished to the nation are mentioned with much pride—Grant, the Shermans, Sheridan, Hayes, Garfield, Chase, Waite, and Wade, and the late George R. Locke (Petroleum V. Nasby).

Peninsular California: Some Account of the Climate, Soil, Productions, and Present Condition chiefly of the Northern Half of Lower California. By Charles Nordhoff. Harper & Bros. 1888.

IN this unpretentious narrative of a hundred pages, Mr. Nordhoff relates the steps he took to satisfy himself of the wisdom of making an investment in land lying along Todos Santos Bay, and gives the results of his inquiries and personal observation as to the situation and prospects of the Mexican Territory. He opens with a brief historical summary, which will do till Bancroft's promised volume on Lower California appears, when, of course, it will be but a cockle-shell to a royal seventy-four; has a chapter on the query which ninety-nine readers out of a hundred would at once put—why the peninsula was reputed a desert; and then proceeds to display his evidence of the Territory's wealth and development, particularly under the operations of the International Company holding vast grants from the Mexican Government, and to make a clear and satisfactory statement of the legal rights and privileges of settlers and purchasers under the Com-

pany's titles. The author frankly writes as an advocate, but, so far as our knowledge goes, with scrupulous fairness. His prophecies are not too glowing, and may very easily all be fulfilled, we should think. But no one ought to imitate the author's example without imitating his caution. No schemes of colonization have been more disastrous than some tried in Lower California. Some of Mr. Nordhoff's Mexican authorities are belated. Following a publication of 1874, he puts the population at 23,000, or under. It was officially declared last year to be 34,668. Señor Pacheco is mistakenly called the Secretary of the Treasury (p. 96).

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, G. The Devil's Die. Chicago: T. S. Dennison.
Atkinson, P. The Elements of Electric Lighting. D. Van Nostrand.
Cadman, H. W. The Christian Unity of Capital and Labor. American Sunday School Union.
Cannan, E. Elementary Political Economy. Macmillan & Co. 25 cents.
Dunn, J. P., jr. Indiana: A Redemption from Slavery. [American Commonwealths.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Énault, L. The Captain's Dog: A Story for Young and Old. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Everett, Prof. C. C. Poetry, Comedy, and Duty. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Ewald, A. C. The Tattler: Selected Essays, with Introduction and Notes. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.
Farrington, Margaret Vere. Tales of King Arthur and his Knights of the Round Table. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.
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Alphabetized, first, by States; second, by Towns.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 11, 1888.

The Week.

THE Senate Tariff Bill marks an era in the great political controversy now going on and which is to continue for some years to come. When the Chicago Convention met in the month of June last, it was under the influence of the House debate on the Mills bill, in which the Republican position had been that of stiff and unbending opposition to any lowering of the rates of duties on any protected articles. It was also under the spell of the Oregon election, which held out the hope that the "cyclone of fear" would sweep the whole country as it did sweep one small State on the Pacific, where there had been no discussion of the tariff, and where two special interests, wool and lumber, were all-powerful. Under these false guides, the Convention committed the stupendous blunder of resolving that there should be no reduction of protective duties on any article, and that rather than reduce any such duties the whole internal-revenue system should be abolished. This public declaration of the party creed was made only four months ago. Nothing could be plainer or more imperative. It forbade any reduction of the duties on sugar, or steel rails, or structural iron, or barytes, or jute, or anything else that is produced in this country. It commanded the Republicans in Congress, when confronted by the necessity of reducing the surplus, to proceed in a certain way, viz., first to reduce the taxes on tobacco and on alcohol used in the arts, then to reduce the duties on articles not produced in this country (except luxuries), and third, to repeal all the taxes on distilled and fermented liquors and oleomargarine.

Now, what has the Senate Finance Committee done? How has it carried out its instructions? It has knocked this precious platform into flinders by reporting a bill to reduce the duties on sugar one-half, and to reduce those on steel rails from $17 to $15.68 per ton, those on structural iron from $28 to $24.60 per ton, while the same bill puts several articles produced in this country and now protected by the tariff on the free list. Henceforth the *principle* has gone out of the Republican creed. The party no longer has any guiding and governing idea. It has "spit upon the platform" as contemptuously as Horace Greeley and the Northern Whigs performed that office for their platform when Gen. Scott was running for the Presidency in 1852. But although the Chicago platform has been thus abused and defied by its own high-priests, the party remains true to its favorite protégés. The duties on wool, the very abomination of the tariff, the main hindrance to the expansion of the woollen industry, and the chief oppression of the poorer classes, are actually increased in this bill, and, what is more wonderful, the duties on carpet wools, which are not produced in this country, are increased also. The reason for the latter increase is that some carpet wools can be used for the coarser kinds of clothing, and thus come into competition in a round-about way with clothing wools. The carpet makers have been hoping for a reduction or repeal of the duties on Donskoi wools on protectionist grounds. They have been asking for bread and they have got a stone.

The Hon. Wm. B. Allison of Iowa was chosen by his colleagues in the Senate to present the Tariff Bill and report of the Finance Committee. Mr. Allison's record on the tariff question is such that anybody familiar with it would naturally be surprised to find him in his present rôle. We can hardly account for the incongruity except upon the theory that all the other members of the Committee, or, at all events, all who are of sufficient prominence to serve as leaders, are "tarred with the same stick." This is certainly true of Mr. Sherman and is partly so of Mr. Morrill, who is, we believe, prevented by illness from attending to his public duties at this time. Mr. Allison's great speech on the tariff was delivered in the House of Representatives, March 24 and 25, 1870. We say "great speech" in no ironical sense. It was the speech of a ready debater who had studied his subject until he was saturated with it. It was calm and dispassionate, bristling with facts, earnest, fearless, and convincing. It was the same kind of a speech as that made by the Hon. Roger Q. Mills when he reported to the House the bill that bears his name. If Mr. Mills had delivered Mr. Allison's speech instead of his own, the difference would not have been noticed, except in matters of detail. The line of argument was the same in both cases, and even as to many of the details. It is a matter of wonder to us that the Democratic National Committee have not printed Mr. Allison's speech as a campaign document on their own side, instead of selecting from it one or two paragraphs on the subject of wool, in which the honorable Senator showed how the high duties on wool had cramped the manufacturer and led to increased importations of woollen goods, and thereby caused an unexampled slaughter of sheep in his own State of Iowa.

Among the remarkable things brought out by Mr. Allison in his speech was his showing of the monstrosities of the iron and steel schedules of the tariff as then existing, and of the rates of duty proposed in the measure then pending, as reported by the Committee of Ways and Means, of which he himself was a member. He concluded with these words, which seem wonderfully applicable to the present time:

"Our policy should be to so cheapen manufactured products that we can revive our export trade, now swept away because we cannot compete with other nations in the markets of the world. If we could restore what we have lost, and in addition greatly enlarge our exportation of manufactures, we would then have an enlarged home market for our agricultural products, which would then be exported in a concentrated form in exchange for other products which we do not and can not produce."

The Boston *Journal* gives great prominence to the annual report of T. Jefferson Coolidge, Treasurer of the Amoskeag Cotton Mills. Mr. Coolidge reports a net profit for the Amoskeag Company of $425,566 for the year, out of which 10 per cent. dividends have been paid, leaving a surplus of $125,566, or nearly 5 per cent. more on the capital stock of $3,000,000, This is certainly gratifying, and Mr. Coolidge would be satisfied but for "the growth of the free-trade feeling in the country." This, he says, gives him some anxiety. We have heard many people say that this growth of free-trade feeling was all moonshine. Indeed, we hear scarcely anything from the Republican speakers and newspapers indicating that there is any such growth. We are surprised, therefore, that Mr. Coolidge should deem it worth noticing in his annual report unless he intended it for the employees rather than the shareholders. In order to show how the growth of free-trade feeling would affect the Amoskeag Mills, Mr. Coolidge makes certain statements about wages, which we print in conjunction with Mr. Blaine's more careful investigations on the same subject:

WHAT MR. COOLIDGE SAYS.	WHAT MR. BLAINE SAID.
According to the most exact figures that I have been able to get, picker hands, carders, mule spinners, and weavers receive in this country from 40 to 80 per cent. more than they do in England, while carpenters, machinists, and masons are paid double. If, therefore, the products of English labor could be imported free, we should have to reduce our labor about 33 per cent. In other words, the English could manufacture for 83 cents what under free trade, at the present price of labor, would cost us 96 cents.	The hours of labor in the Lancashire mills are fifty-six, in the Massachusetts sixty per week. The hours of labor in the mills in the other New England States, where the wages are generally less than in Massachusetts, are usually sixty-six to sixty-nine per week. Undoubtedly the inequalities in the wages of English and American operatives *are more than equalized by the greater efficiency of the latter and their longer hours of labor.*

The difference between Mr. Coolidge's statement and Mr. Blaine's is very striking, but we are bound to give the preference to Mr. Blaine's because he gave his authority for English wages, while Mr. Coolidge gives none. He only says, "the most exact figures I have been able to pick up." We have before us the figures of a man who has been picking them up systematically and very lately, viz., Mr. J. Schoenhof, American Consul at Tunstall, England. Mr. Schoenhof's report having been published by the State Department, and a copy of it having fallen into the hands of the editor of the Liverpool *Daily Post*, that paper is moved to say, in its issue of August 6, that, notwithstanding *the higher*

wages paid in England to cotton operatives than in the United States, English spinners can more than hold their own on account of the finer yarns used by them. "Thus," it says, "125 yards of cloth here will take fourteen pounds of yarn, and in America eighteen pounds—a clear gain of four pounds to the English manufacturer. If this difference was equalized, it is calculated that there would be a balance left in favor of America *sufficient to cover the higher labor cost of this country.*"

The St. Louis *Globe-Democrat* takes pains to explain how a reduction of the duties on sugar is consistent with the national Republican platform. It says that the growth of sugar shows no tendency to increase in this country. The production is no larger now than it was years and years ago. Therefore there is no reason to suppose that further protection would lead to increased production. Well, does your blessed platform say anything about articles that show no tendency to increase in the amount of the product? Not a word. It says:

"If there shall still remain a larger revenue than is requisite for the wants of the Government, *we favor the entire repeal of internal taxes rather than the surrender of any part of our protective system* at the joint behest of the Whiskey Trust and the agents of foreign manufacturers."

Of course we are in favor of knocking this platform into smithereens, but we want you to acknowledge that that is what you are doing. Moreover, we beg to inquire how much the production of carpet-wool has increased in this country, and how much it tends to increase—this article upon which your Finance Committee proposes an increased duty of one cent per pound.

What is this? A whole speech from Mr. Blaine, the first formal effort of his in the Western States, and not a word in it about the tariff? Yet this same Mr. Blaine said, in his first speech after reaching this country from Europe, on August 10, in defining the issue for the present campaign:

"It is not, in the ordinary sense, a contest of partisan against partisan. It is a contest which entirely transcends party motive; it is a contest as to whether the great mass of American citizens, who earn their bread in the sweat of their faces, shall have their wages seriously reduced from day to day. That is the whole pith and moment of this question, and *anything that diverts the attention of the American people from that single point tends, in my judgment, to weaken the campaign.*"

If this was so in August, how can Mr. Blaine devote a whole speech in October to the veto power of the President, without "diverting attention" and "weakening the campaign"? Is the American laborer to be deserted at the very crisis of his wages in order that Mr. Blaine may assail the President's previous record, and thus make the contest one of "partisan against partisan"?

Mr. Blaine's latest campaign lie, embraced in his Third Series since his return from Europe, is the following, uttered at Detroit, concerning the deposit of Government funds in national-bank depositories:

"Now, I have known something about the Government of the United States—have had some little to do with it; but if that had been done any time within the last twenty years by a Republican Secretary of the Treasury, the Democrats in the House would have tried to impeach him. I repeat it. I don't say that I would vote to impeach Mr. Fairchild—that is another question; but if any Secretary since Salmon P. Chase was first appointed by Lincoln had done that with $60,000,000 of the public money, I say that the Democratic House, if in power, would have moved his impeachment."

Let us see how this statement tallies with facts. In a public document entitled 'Specie Resumption and Refunding,' sent to the Forty-sixth Congress by the Hon. John Sherman, Republican Secretary of the Treasury, at pages 984 and 985 is a statement of "Assets of the United States Treasury." Among these assets are the following items for seven successive months.

DEPOSITS HELD BY NATIONAL-BANK DEPOSITORIES.

Feb. 1, 1879		$166,357,141 26
March 1,	"	249,586,805 22
April 1,	"	226,681,802 01
May 1,	"	260,760,430 69
June 1,	"	276,442,471 36
July 1,	"	201,402,860 97
Aug. 1,	"	97,078,837 26

The intelligent reader will observe that at each of these months the amount held by national bank depositories was larger than the largest amount deposited therein by Secretary Fairchild, and that at three dates, viz., March 1, May 1, and June 1, 1879, the amount was more than four times as large. The matter is of no importance, except as a fresh illustration of Mr. Blaine's recklessness on the stump.

Panels in the cars of the Metropolitan Elevated Railroad are now occupied with Republican electioneering placards, one of which has recently appeared with one forgery and three lies in four sentences. The forgery is the extract from the London *Spectator*, which has been repeatedly exposed in our columns, but is still, with extraordinary effrontery, issued from the Republican headquarters. The use of these panels has been rented by the railroad company to the Manhattan News Company, with, we are informed by Superintendent Hain, no restriction except as to indecency. It would appear, however, that this restriction is not enough. There ought to be a restriction directed against forgery and libellous matter. Also, we will add that we think it is gross abuse of its franchise on the part of the elevated railroad company to permit the appearance in its cars at all of advertisements in any way offensive to any large class of its customers. The great majority of its customers are Democrats, and it is of course annoying to them to have lying or abusive electioneering placards issued by their opponents staring them in the face every time they travel in the elevated trains. The company ought to observe a strict neutrality in political as well as in religious matters. It has no more right to surrender its space to party diatribes than to attacks on a particular religious creed or denomination; and it ought to call on the news company to remove these placards, whether their contents be forged or not.

It is perhaps not so strange as at first thought it seems that the Republicans should cling so stoutly to their forged quotations. The quotations in question could by no possibility be expected to influence any but the most ignorant and prejudiced of voters, but it is evident that only among such voters can the Republicans expect to make any gains this year. Among intelligent and impartial men the drift against them grows stronger every week. Two evidences come simultaneously to our notice. Hugh McCulloch, Secretary of the Treasury under the first Republican President and the last, has declared his purpose to support Mr. Cleveland on account of the latter's policy on the tariff, which he regards as simply carrying out the principles which the Republican party advocated in its prime. Prof. H. M. Whitney of Beloit (Wis.) College, a lifelong Republican, has written a letter giving his reasons for voting with the Democrats this fall, which are briefly these: The prominence of Mr. Blaine in the canvass, and the intention to make him "the commanding influence in the Harrison Administration," "the extraordinary badness of the Republican platform," "the likelihood that Mr. Cleveland, if reëlected, will do more than Mr. Harrison would do to rescue the public service from the spoilsmen," and "the difference between the two parties as to the reduction of taxes and the reform of the tariff," as to which issue he considers the Democrats right and the Republicans wrong.

Prof. Whitney concludes his statement with this interesting passage:

"It seems better to vote with a party that is advancing out of a bad record into a good one, than with a party that is sinking from a good record into a bad one. The Scripture authorizes us to 'forget those things which are behind' in 'reaching forth into those things which are before.' The attitude of the Democratic party, under President Cleveland's lead, seems to me to afford much better hope for the future of the country."

This is a view of the matter which merits the careful consideration of Republicans of the Dr. Storrs school, who admit that the party is all wrong now, but say that it ought to be supported because of its "majestic history." There is something very curious about this advice of a teacher of morality, that one must forever follow the lead of an association of men because this association was once controlled by noble men actuated by lofty purposes. Dr. Storrs would never for a moment think of telling people that they ought to follow a particular man who had taken to drink and was up to all sorts of evil performances, because twenty-five years ago he used to be a most estimable citizen. But he seriously advises people to vote for the association of men called the Republican party, when it means the dominance of such men as Blaine and "Pat" Ford, because twenty-five years ago the association of men then called the Republican party had such a leader as Abraham Lincoln. There certainly is no rule of conduct laid down in the teachings of moralists without claim to

inspiration, that justifies such action, and Prof. Whitney declares himself unable to reconcile it with the teachings of Scripture.

Gov. Hill appears to have prepared a very long and labored defence of his veto of the Ballot-Reform Bill, to have furnished the newspapers with printed slips of it, and then to have "cut it down" in delivery at Monday night's meeting. This was unnecessary. He gave some very long-winded "reasons" for his act at the time he vetoed the bill, and then forgot himself and gave his true reason by sneering, not at the bill, but at the principle of it, by calling it a "mongrel foreign system." He declares now that he is in favor of the principle of electoral reform, and declares that he "would cheerfully approve a well-considered measure" securing such reform. The friends of Ballot-Reform will take that promise for precisely what it is worth—nothing. Gov. Hill made a formal promise in a message to the Legislature to approve a high-license bill that should contain specifications which he enumerated. A bill was drawn on the lines laid down by him, and when it reached him he vetoed it in defiance of his formal pledge.

Mayor Hewitt may well be proud of the popular assemblage which put him in nomination for reëlection at Cooper Union last week. It is entirely safe to say that no body of citizens more fairly representing the intelligence and character of the community was ever gathered in that hall. They came together without the aid of political machinery, and for the single purpose of expressing their approval of a faithful official and of demanding his continuance in office. It would be difficult to devise a plan for nominating a candidate for office which would be more in accordance with the spirit of popular government than this was. That it was a representative body no one can deny, nor that it expressed the will of an overwhelming majority of the "virtue and intelligence" of the city. Speeches were made by both Democrats and Republicans—all citizens of recognized power in the community—and the assemblage itself was composed of people of all political creeds. Here we have precisely the conditions which the most unprejudiced and thoughtful students of the problems of municipal government have declared to be necessary if we are to secure needed reform—that is, complete obliteration of party lines, and the agreement of the friends of honest government in all parties upon the candidate who is best fitted for the place.

The most encouraging piece of news from Indiana for a long while is the announcement that the Republican and Democratic State Committees have reached an agreement regarding the constitution of election boards which is fair and sensible in itself, and which must operate against election frauds. It is in the following terms: "It is hereby requested and directed that in all election precincts where the inspector is a Democrat, he shall appoint a judge and clerk to be selected by the Republicans of such precinct; and where the inspector is a Republican, he shall appoint a judge and clerk to be selected by the Democrats of the precinct." This is an adoption of the non-partisan principle that ought to govern the conduct of elections everywhere, and it is the more significant from the fact that it occurs in a State where each party has been in the habit of seizing exclusive control of the machinery at the polls whenever it could get a chance. The Chairman of the Democratic State Committee has also made a further proposition for united action by all parties to secure a fair election in Indianapolis, where frauds have in the past been notorious. His suggestion was the formation of a committee composed of 100 members, 50 of which should be named by the Democratic Committee and 50 by the Republican Committee, or, better still, 45 by each of the old parties and 10 by the Prohibition State Committee, all to be reputable citizens of Indianapolis, whose business it should be to discover and punish illegal voting and election frauds of every description, and to establish branches under like conditions in every county in the State. The Republican managers have declined the proposition, on the ground that an organization formed a year ago for similar purposes could do the work equally well; but the Democrats complain that they are not fairly represented on this latter committee, while the Republicans can give no sufficient reason for not accepting a suggestion which is obviously fair.

Mr. Theodore Thomas's experience proves that in order to keep an orchestra together in New York, it is necessary to travel with it, not only to neighboring cities, but to those in the far West. It is impossible to secure orchestral players on contract except by guaranteeing them at least four performances a week. New York has never shown itself willing to support even one performance a week during the winter, and the result has been that, in order to play in New York, the orchestra must spend two or three nights a week in railway trains. The tax of travel like this upon men whose work is of so delicate a character can easily be imagined. When, moreover, it has been endured in order to make it possible to play in New York, and it turns out that New York does not care enough for the music to pay the expenses of one concert a week, it becomes difficult to see why the work should be continued. It is an actual fact that for many years Mr. Thomas has striven with all the energy at his command to earn money enough with his orchestra outside this city to defray the losses which he has incurred in a brief season in New York. Is it any wonder that he has grown tired of this? Ought New York music-lovers to exact this heavy tax from him for the privilege of playing to them?

One of the few persons who saw Marshal Bazaine in his latter days describes, in a letter to the *Figaro*, his last end, which was certainly—even if he were guilty of everything charged against him—pathetic enough, in all conscience. He married a young and pretty Mexican before his downfall, and she assisted him with great devotion in making his escape from the fortress in which he was confined, and they settled in Madrid. At that time they apparently had some money, and she for a while dressed well, went into society, and they entertained. But as the years went by, their resources began to fail. They moved from one lodging to another, each time to a cheaper one, and saw fewer and fewer people. Finally his wife left him for good, and returned to Mexico, taking one of their two children with her, and the poor old fellow moved into a mere half-furnished garret, without other attendant than his son, a non-commissioned officer in the Spanish Army, on whose scanty pay he lived. One of the strange sights of Madrid during the past year was the ex-marshal tottering to the market in the morning, and bringing home under his arm the brown-paper parcel containing the meat and vegetables for his dinner. He died, finally, quite alone in his garret, and was carried to the grave in a cheap coffin, followed only by his son and half-a-dozen other persons. The myth of Belisarius and his obolus is hardly so striking an illustration of the vanity of human greatness as this. Bazaine was really no more of a traitor than a score of others, but he had the ill-luck to surrender more men and guns to the enemy.

There has been almost until now a disposition to sympathize with Bazaine's chief, the late Emperor Napoleon, as a man who was deceived by his generals as to the condition of the army, and bore his overthrow with dignity and fortitude. It was in England particularly that this view prevailed, but the Crown Prince's diary has completely exploded it, and in doing so has thrown some light on the causes of Bazaine's strange behavior in surrendering Metz. As is well known, Napoleon made an attempt to secure an alliance with Germany for the partition of Belgium after the Luxembourg affair, and Bismarck had the cruelty to get the French ambassador at Berlin, Benedetti, to put it in writing in his own hand, and when the French denied it, Bismarck published the document. But what was not known was that after the surrender at Sedan, and while Napoleon was a prisoner at Wilhelmshöhe, he renewed this proposal in some shape—"quietly seeking a 'rapprochement' with us," the diary says—"moderation of the peace conditions on promise of a common war against England." This was in March, 1871, six months after Napoleon's capture. There can hardly be a doubt that this idea that some better political use might be found for the army than continuing to fight the Germans, was not confined to the Emperor himself. It ran in the heads of his immediate followers as soon as they discovered what tough customers the Germans were.

THE LATEST PROTECTIONIST SPOOK.

THE protectionist argument, as brought down to date, consists of the following propositions, knit together in the closest logic: With our high rate of wages we cannot compete with the cheaper products of foreign countries, and must lay heavy duties to keep them out; yet this duty is not a tax on the consumer, for all manufactured articles are cheaper in this country than anywhere else in the world; but it would never do to take off the duty thus proved unnecessary, for, once admitted to our markets, the foreign manufacturer would first put down his prices so low as to crush out all our industries, and then, having us at his mercy, would exact our uttermost farthing with his exorbitant monopolistic prices. This combined improvement of Porter on Harrison, and refinement of Wharton over Porter, so far as it is based upon anything but the imagination, is, we suppose, a vague recollection of what took place in 1814–'15. Manufactures which had sprung up in the entire absence of competition, owing to the embargo and the war, no sooner had the consumer by the throat than the importations began again. For twenty years they tried to get their grip on again, making taxation restore the blessings of war and non-intercourse. Even then, however, nothing like what Mr. Joseph Wharton's warm imagination pictures took place, and never will, while either maxims or markets exist.

It may, nevertheless, help to show what total lack of discrimination, and what blissful ignorance of "abroad," mark this beautiful argument, if we call to mind the fact that there is no such thing as a unified foreign competition from which American manufactures have, or will have, to suffer. That is but another bogey. When we turn from the hysterical shrieks over it to inquire what it really is, we find it has no more substance than a Brocken spectre. The fact is that the manufacturing nations of Europe are engaged in the bitterest kind of commercial warfare with each other. So far from plotting together to make a united swoop upon this country, if the Mills bill passes, they are dealing each other just the ugliest blows they can devise, and are too eagerly intent on watching their immediate antagonists to trouble themselves very much about what is going on here. Europe is at this moment one great battle-field of tariffs. Its industries are pitted against each other in the sharpest competition, and are straining every nerve to win an advantage in neutral markets.

Every one who reads the foreign trade journals will know how jealously each country scrutinizes the returns of the commerce of every other. The figures of the Board of Trade, given month by month, are looked for with the eagerness with which important news from a war is expected. They are discussed in Paris and in Berlin as much as in London. Similarly, the French and German returns are made public, and are studied with more interest than the stock reports. Every sign of advance brings exhilaration at home, and carries dismay abroad. A Berlin correspondent of *Le Nord* recently described the anxiety caused to the Germans by their diminishing foreign trade this year, especially as compared with the steady gain of England. The reciprocity treaty between France and Italy came to an end last year, through the initiative of France, and the economists of the latter country are studying the effects of this action, as revealed in the trade of the current year, with an almost feverish interest. Everywhere are signs of sharper rivalry and more stringent retaliatory legislation. Mr. Wharton's portentous combination of foreign manufacturers is all in the clouds.

If they ever had any idea of conspiring, according to his fancy, or if they were in search of convenient fields for the display of their greed, they would have tried it in South America or in Asia and Africa long ago. All the conditions would have been just to their mind, as Mr. Wharton understands the case. They would not even have had to suffer a temporary loss in crushing out native manufacturers, for there were none. All they would have had to do would have been to agree upon the dizziest prices they could think of, and then divide the profits. How far they are from having done this, or even thinking of it, everybody at all acquainted with the facts understands perfectly. The strife of English, French, and German manufacturers is just as keen in all South America as it is in Europe, and that means that it is as keen as can be. With remarkable zeal and patience and skill have the Germans, in particular, worked up a foreign trade in competition with their great rivals. To the results of their superior technical education, they have added the advantage of a vast system of skilled solicitors of trade in foreign countries, have endowed chairs of Oriental languages for the express purpose of raising up trained and competent commercial travellers, and have, in fact, put all their intellect and genius for details at the service of their exporters. As a consequence, the English have undoubtedly lost relatively in some markets where they had held an unquestioned supremacy. They themselves admit this, and are doing their utmost to recover their advantage. One measure adopted with this end in view has been the establishment of a sort of co-operative society for the promotion of foreign trade. Its aim is to gather the fullest and latest trade statistics, to receive information from foreign countries at the hands of special agents, to give publicity to every trade opening that the world furnishes—to do, in short, on a large scale and for a great number, what each of the great exporting houses has had to do for itself.

It is, of course, possible that an international syndicate may control for a time an article of limited production like copper. Even this is a costly and dubious undertaking, as the London *Economist* has recently shown. But that any of the great lines of manufacture can be "cornered" even for a time is so improbable, in the face of existing conditions, that a reasonable man will entirely dismiss it from the account. We may add that we do not expect Mr. Wharton to dismiss it. His fears, however, might be allayed by the reflection that we should have time enough, when we saw the combination forming, to defeat it by promptly putting up the tariff again. On second thoughts, though, we fear that our manufacturers would not consent to that, since, if an international pool were in the wind, they would want to be in it, as Mr. Carnegie is reported to be going into the international steel-rail pool; and then, we will freely admit, the last state of the American consumer would be worse than the first.

PROTECTIONISM RUN MAD.

THE Rev. Edward Everett Hale has made a contribution to the literature of this campaign in the shape of a little book called 'Tom Torrey's Tariff Talk.' It does not call for special comment as regards the economic arguments which are brought forward, or rather insinuated, by Mr. Hale's bucolic but crafty spokesman, for these have been discussed, in one form or another, scores and hundreds of times. But it does seem worth while to call attention to the illustration which this production affords of the sacrifices of dignity and moral tone and national pride which the protectionist superstition demands of its votaries.

It is saying much, but we think not too much, to assert that Mr. Hale goes further than any other writer we have had the privilege of reading, in maintaining that few if any of the things which have made this nation great would have been accomplished had it not been for the blessings of the tariff. He is not content with pointing to high wages and extensive manufactures and flourishing market-gardens, and exclaiming, Behold the fruits of protection! He is not ashamed to put into the same category with these American literature and education. One of his eight chapters is devoted to "Books and Authors," and is intended to convey the idea that had it not been for protection, we should now be teaching our children to read from English primers, and that we should have had no more than a straggling handful of American authors, who would have to send to England to get their books printed. Mr. Hale is unquestionably a patriotic as well as an educated American; and it is not less astonishing than it is humiliating to think that such a man should be willing to ignore all the mighty forces which have made American literature and American learning what they are, in order to swell the list of American achievements which the tariff system impudently claims as its own.

Along with the extravagance of such claims, it is natural to find the prejudice and Jingoism which partisan demagogues so persistently aim to foster, but which one might have hoped to find absent from the work of a philanthropist and minister of the Gospel. The following extract will in some measure illustrate these points:

"I was brought up to consider Charles I. a saint and a martyr, and Oliver Cromwell a fanatic and a murderer, simply because the

people who wrote the books which I read as a child chose to think so, and lived in England. Why, as lately as when Agassiz first came to this country, he went into a Cambridge printing-office, where they were printing a book of natural history. They showed him the sheets with some pride, and Agassiz said, 'Yes, I see. An American school-book, with pictures of three butterflies, and not one of the butterflies was ever in America!' That is the way to bring up children in a colony. . . . And when my friend Cobden comes over here, and wants me to continue that system of education, I do not fancy it."

Mr. Hale is fond of speaking of "the emancipation of 1861," meaning the initiation of our present high-tariff system; it would be interesting to get his private opinion of the work our colleges and authors and publishers were doing during the dreadful "free-trade" period of fifteen years preceding that date.

Mr. Hale expresses himself as sorely tempted to wish there were a sea of fire which would keep foreign novels out of the hands of our young people. Strangely enough, he only remembers to mention three foreign novelists, two of whom are Zola and "The Duchess"; his opinion as to the desirability of excluding Dickens and Thackeray and George Eliot, Tolstoi and Turgeneff, is not set down. Neither does he have anything to say as to whether the best way of keeping out Zola and The Duchess is the permission of literary piracy for the "protection" of our printers, though his definition of "the American System" would seem to indicate that he approves of that interesting feature of our protective institutions. "One part of that system," he says, "is protection; another part is homesteads; another part is free schools; another part is cheap books. It all belongs together. It hangs together." However this may be, it seems to us that this kind of talk "hangs together" remarkably well with such reckless and ignorant libelling of one of the great names in the intellectual history of the Anglo-Saxon race as Mr. Hale indulges in, when he says of Adam Smith that "the French do say that he stole everything he had to say from Turgot."

Mr. Hale says that the Mills Tariff Bill "proposes to transfer to Europe about half a thousand various industries." Is it possible that Mr. Hale believed this when he wrote it? We can only suppose that the state of mind which a man must get himself into when he writes tariff talks of the Tom Torrey variety precludes the exercise of those mental powers by which men are enabled to ascertain the proportions of things in the world about them, and to measure the significance of their own utterances. But we can tell Mr. Hale of one industry which the passage of the Mills bill would be pretty sure to transfer to Europe—or to limbo. That event would put an end to the occupation of the howling dervishes of protection, of the men who uphold tariffs in the bloody-shirt fashion. The triumph of the Mills bill will not mean free trade, but it will mean free thought; it will mean that hereafter, when the wisdom of a 100 per cent. duty on blankets is called into question, its upholder will no longer attempt to shut his opponent's mouth by calling him a British free-trader and an enemy of our public schools, but will have to stand like a man and show rational cause for the maintenance of that particular feature of our tariff laws.

RELIGION IN THE BACK TOWNS.

THE interesting papers published in the *Evening Post* two years ago on the decay of religion in the "back towns" of New England provoked by their appearance some unregulated comment, and even contradiction, but no serious refutation. The facts in the case, indeed, were notorious, and they were stated in the papers under mention with entire sobriety of expression. Those statements find fresh justification in late numbers of the *Andover Review*, published pretty nearly in the centre of the region of "back towns," which has printed recently several articles on "The Problem of the Country Church," the first by the Rev. John Tunis in the September number, and four others in the October number by the Rev. Samuel W. Dike, LL.D., the Rev. Charles M. Sheldon, the Rev. M. J. Allen, and the Rev. Charles L. Merriam.

All of these writers take the "problem" for granted. Dr. Dike says it is of "present vast proportions." How great it is may appear from Mr. Sheldon's remark that "in very many cases, the more odd and impracticable the method seemed [of solving it], the more fruitful it has been of good results." Some things proposed are: Distribution of printed copies of sermons; regulation of church music by the pastor; greater variety in prayer-meetings; short sermons, and "a violin and cornet," with "a talk on the Chinese Bill, and the main incidents in the life of Gen. Sheridan" on Sunday evenings; a blackboard, to contain a summary of the forthcoming sermon; a "Church Wagon" or "Gospel Sleigh," very like the political method of "getting aged and infirm voters to the polls"; libraries and reading-rooms; public entertainments and lectures; a gymnasium and evening school; a musical and literary society; amusement-rooms; drawing-schools; "a wide-awake, able, and thoroughly consecrated man," to be appointed "superintendent" of "three or four very weak churches whose parish boundaries are contiguous," who shall enjoy "a good salary" and a parsonage, and be assisted by young men from the seminaries who "would, no doubt, be willing to assist in this work if their expenses were paid."

These things are all proposed seriously. They show the apparently hopeless nature of the problem. To incite to religion by public entertainments, gymnasiums, amusement-rooms, drawing-schools, and musical and literary societies, is like acquiring the knowledge of scientific taxation by sprint-running and the study of botany. Or, it is even more grotesque than that, since the study of botany will communicate some notion of the benefit which the natural world derives from freedom of exchange. And as for the things urged which do bear directly upon religion, why, a great part of the "problem" is to get them. If you have them, the problem disappears. If you can give "a good salary" and a parsonage to a superintendent, you must have religious interest to begin with, and the trouble is that you have not got it. Yet this device in essence is only a shift of making one minister suffice for three or four churches, which is but "confession and avoidance," and not a triumph over any difficulty.

We are bound to say that more useful ideas than these are advanced. Dr. Dike says:

"Such supplementary study, counsel, and direction must be provided as will make the work of the Church complete—complete in the views of truth she gives, complete in the range of forces and agencies she uses, and complete in the life her work shall reach. Next to lack of divine power and consecration, it is due to her present incompleteness in these various directions that the religious problem of the country church has grown to its present vast proportions. The broadest possible study, with thoroughly scientific methods, looking to readjustments by which the most harmonious and fullest uses of every possible Christian instrumentality shall be secured, is the first great necessity."

Mr. Sheldon (of Waterbury, Vt.) remarks:

"One of the first things that a country pastor should settle for himself and the community is this: the church as a church must be *interesting*. By that is not meant that it must be the centre of amusements or entertainments, but that the church, as an organization with Christ at its head, must be, in all its service of preaching and song and ritual, a genuine source of the best kind of moral excitement. A country parish is of necessity much more in need of the best sensational preaching, for example, than the city parish. The pastor must occupy the position of stimulator far oftener than that of instructor. If he can furnish a community with the interesting phases of moral problems, he is making the church in the country a more powerful factor in its place than the same organization in the city, for he is making it the *one* centre of attraction in spiritual awakening."

And the same writer, whose article shows much power of suggestion, puts stress on the need of pastoral acquaintance with the people. "He obtained the permission of his people to board around with them, one week with a family at a time, lodging and taking breakfast in his own home, and going out to dinner and tea. This plan was continued one entire winter, and nearly twenty families received their pastor into their homes, not as a guest, but as one of the family. One of the best things about this experiment was the opportunity it gave for visiting and getting acquainted with the *men* in the community, as they very seldom failed to be present at meal times!" There is the right note of good inventiveness about this. Mr. Sheldon says also:

"The country pastor may well devote a large amount of time to the careful preparation of preaching material, not fearing to depart from the ways of the fathers; for there is no place where new things may be more successfully and fearlessly tried than in a country church. (This is contrary to general tradition.) In the large majority of cases, novelty in methods, combined with a genuine love of men and consecrated common sense, will be acceptable. There must be a change in pulpit methods before the country church will assume in the community its right place and distinctiveness."

Suggestions of other writers also are useful, such as permanent pastorates (which means resisting the temptations of "larger fields of usefulness"), turning "the noble consecration" of home or foreign missionaries "towards the depopulated and almost discouraged rural town," church recognition of the weaker by the stronger parishes, sympathy between city and country pastors,

etc., etc.; and, finally, local missionary work —the country church to "send the Glad Tidings" to places "three or four miles from the central villages." But the people within three or four miles from the central villages have been born and bred within sound of the glad tidings, yet they do not care for them. The question is, How are they to be made to care? In other words, how is the feeling for religion to be diffused again generally?

Nearly all the methods proposed require the condition desired to begin with. If right religious feeling were common, pastorates would be permanent, sympathy would be perfect between both churches and ministers, the New England people would go to meeting even three or four miles away. Mr. Sheldon says: "The Church of Christ can be made the most interesting organization on earth." Why is it not so, and why—as we think must be allowed to be the case—is it receding further and further from that rank? It is not for us to say that too much "new theology" unsettles men's belief, or that the spirit of the age is intolerant of so much of the old theology as is retained, or in fact anything further than this—that something there is, deeper than any of the *Andover Review* writers have sounded, which must be found before we shall know the reason why, in our day, there is no more power in the force which subdued the Roman world—the force, unique in history, of which a writer in another part of this same *Review* says: "It was the most fiery energy the world had ever seen. It seized upon everything within its reach—the speech, and wealth, and buildings, as well as the manners and hearts of men."

COLUMBIA COLLEGE.

President Barnard's annual report to the Trustees of the College touches on a number of very interesting topics, and on none more interesting than "the graduate department" —that is, the department which contains those who are prosecuting their studies after having completed the ordinary course exacted for the pass degree. He says:

"A resolution is now pending before the Board, inquiring whether it is not advisable that the whole scheme of education in Columbia College should be raised to a higher plane, and which involves the further question whether it is not advisable to discontinue the Department of Arts. So long as this question remains under discussion before the Governing Board, it would not be becoming in the undersigned to pronounce an opinion upon it here. It may be permitted, however, to say in this place, that if the question were merely as to the sufficiency and importance of the work proposed, there could be no doubt that our faculties could find ample and adequate occupation if they were confined to giving instruction exclusively to graduate students. On the other hand, such has been the excessive multiplication of undergraduate colleges in our country in recent years, that the business of these colleges is greatly overdone, and it would certainly be a material benefit to the educational interests of our country if a large proportion of the existing colleges could be suppressed. From statistics gathered by the undersigned in former years with great labor, it was made manifest that while in the last half century the proportion of students in arts in American colleges has been gradually but steadily diminishing, the number of colleges has, on the other hand, more than correspondingly increased. Since about 1837 the population of the country has increased four-fold and the number of colleges three-fold, while the number of students in arts has in the meantime only doubled. In the country generally the number of students under instruction at any given time is in a proportion of about 1 to 2,000 or 2,500. In 1830 the average attendance on the existing colleges was sixty-seven each, and in 1880 about forty each. There is not a State in the Union in which the number of colleges is not greatly in excess of the educational needs of the population. This city itself may be taken as an illustration. New York has about 1,500,000 of inhabitants. It should be capable of furnishing, therefore, at the ratio of 1 to 2,500, 600 undergraduate students in arts. This is not a number greater than could be comfortably provided for in a single college. Nevertheless we have three, not counting the minor colleges under the care of the fathers of the Roman Catholic Church. It would not be, therefore, educationally a misfortune if Columbia College should cease to exist as a school for undergraduate students. The city would still be fully supplied with educational advantages, while there could be no doubt that this institution could be more profitably employed by confining itself to the field of superior education. Whatever be the policy pursued in this matter, nevertheless it is the unavoidable tendency of things to press upon Columbia College more and more constantly from year to year the duty of providing for the wants of the superior class of students—that is to say, the business of proper university instruction. The location of the institution in the greatest city of the continent is peculiarly favorable to such an undertaking; and though the College is not possessed of funds sufficient to enable it to carry out this complete design, it is hardly to be doubted that provision may sooner or later become sufficient to accomplish this object. One advantage which we already possess towards it consists in the library, which, although incomplete in some details, goes far towards supplying the needs of students engaged in literary or scientific research; and this is a possession which in the nature of things must constantly improve in value."

What this means, it may be necessary to explain to those who have not followed the discussion, is that enormous amounts of money and the time of a very large body of learned and able men are now spent, all over the country, in giving a very slender education to the class known as "college boys"—that is, the youths who haze, and have "cane-rushes," and who "bury Legendre," and cut those other childish pranks which make President Barnard rejoice that so many of the undergraduates of Columbia "live at home with papa and mamma," as Mrs. Micawber said. The curse of these youths for collegiate purposes is their youthfulness, not so much in years as in character; and this youthfulness of character is largely a tradition of earlier days when American colleges were really boys' schools, in which it was a question, when even a Senior misbehaved, whether to flog him or expel him. That is to say, we still have "cane-rushes" and "burying Legendre," in a very large degree because past generations of students nearer to the nursery than this one used to enjoy them. Traditions are strong in schools and colleges, and the more childish a custom is, the deeper its roots are apt to be.

Now, a great many thoughtful people have begun to mourn over what seems the waste of talent and money on these youths, so many of whom do not really care for instruction, which goes on throughout the Union, and to ask themselves whether the time has not come to devote more of both the talent and money to providing for the wants of real students—that is, for maturer youths who are undeniably eager to learn, on whom "the higher education" is well bestowed, and who would repay the country for giving it to them some sixty and some an hundred-fold. Of the little colleges, in which the college boys practise their little games, there will evidently never be any lack. Munificent rich men seem never to weary of providing and endowing them. The country, as President Barnard points out, swarms with them already, and their number increases annually. They undoubtedly have their use. Every neighborhood which has one benefits by it in some degree, morally or intellectually. The youths who frequent them are in some degree improved by them. But in so far as they pass for universities, and the education which they give passes for a university education, and the men who establish them fancy that in establishing them they are doing the best that can be done for American intellectual culture, they are a hindrance. They interfere with the creation of real universities, to which only those would go who were eager to learn, and in which every dollar spent would be spent fruitfully, and in which the time of learned professors would not be frittered away in seeing that their disciples behaved like grown-up people in the streets and the campus, and knew their "lessons" in the recitation room.

A good start in the direction of such universities has been made by the Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore, and also by Columbia, Yale, and Harvard, in so far as they have provided post-graduate courses and special professional schools. It is only such colleges as these which really can grow into universities, and get rid of the little men who "rush," and "haze," and "bury Legendre." It is absurd to waste magnificent endowments, and great libraries, and costly apparatus, and learned professors —most of them fit for the work of original research—on boys who could get all they want in any village academy or city high school, and still live at home with papa and mamma. The country needs all the help it can get from the very highest culture in resisting the torrent of materialism which has, ever since the war, been flowing over the land; and for such culture nothing would do so much good as two or three real universities.

THE "PAUPER LABOR" TROUBLE IN FRANCE.

The difficulties into which a protectionist policy plunges a government which is staggering under its burdens, are being gradually illustrated in France in a curious way. Two years ago, in obedience to the demands of the farmers, who were suffering both from a series of bad harvests and from American competition, duties were placed on agricultural produce. The objection to such duties in a great manufacturing country is, of course, that they raise the cost of living to the artisan, and therefore the cost of production to the manufacturer. Accordingly bread became rapidly dearer, and bread plays a more important part in the popular diet in France, probably, than in any other country in the world. It is not uncommon for French workingmen to breakfast off bread and wine alone. Therefore, when it became dear, the city population in Paris became

furious, and applied to the Municipal Council to fix a maximum price, which it did. Thereupon the bakers closed their shops, and then the bread-eaters became riotous and broke some of them open. Some sort of compromise has been reached in Paris, under which the sale of bread has been resumed, but the situation remains a very delicate one. The bakers are not content, and cannot find their business very profitable as long as flour is so dear. But flour must be kept dear to please the farmers, and the vicious circle is thus maintained.

This is only one trouble. Another and more serious one is the influx of poor foreigners, or, as we call it, "pauper labor." These foreigners, mainly Italian, Belgian, and Spanish, flow into France to fill a vacuum caused by the crowding of the native French farm laborers into the towns. This drift has been in recent years something very remarkable, and has greatly increased the difficulties of French farming. It has been partially met by Italian and Belgian immigration. But this immigration of course cannot be confined to the country districts. It makes its way into the cities also, and thus brings a very low class of labor into direct competition with the already discontented, jealous, and comfort-loving native *ouvrier*, and crowds him out of some of the less skilled trades altogether, and he resents it bitterly.

In the skilled trades as well as in the shops and counting-houses and banks, the French are finding formidable rivals in swarms of Germans, who are on the whole more industrious, more painstaking, more manageable, and not less skilful than the natives. The Germans are much sought after by employers, but thoroughly hated and suspected by the people, and the irritation caused by their presence is increased by the stern precautions adopted by Germany against any influx of Frenchmen into Alsace and Lorraine. In one way or another, in fact, there are now about 2,000,000 of foreigners resident in France. A few thousands are travellers, or people who draw incomes from other countries and live on them; but the rest are competitors with the natives in the labor market, and probably the great bulk of them mean to return home with savings. This is undoubtedly true of the Italians, though probably in a less degree of the Belgians.

To meet this state of things—that is, to satisfy the workingmen of the great towns, who are already suffering for the sake of the farmers — President Carnot has drafted a decree placing serious restrictions on all sorts of foreign immigration. Persons intending to become residents have to file a declaration of their intention, with an elaborate account of their birth, parentage, and occupation, and give notice every time they move. In fact, it is a renewal of the passport system in a more odious form; and although persons visiting France for "business or pleasure" are exempt from its operation, of course they may have to show that they came for business or pleasure in order to secure the exemption. It constitutes such a remarkable break in the French tradition of hospitality to foreigners that there are already doubts whether any attempt will be made to carry it out, or rather whether it will not undergo serious modifications before it is put into force.

The problem it tries to solve is one which is vexing all the richer nations of the world. France, England, and America are all annoyed by the influx of "pauper labor," and this influx of pauper labor is one of the natural results of that wonderful cheapening of transportation, both by sea and land, over which we all rejoice so much. It brings the products of every corner of the globe to our doors, at an extremely low rate, which we enjoy, but it also brings a large human "residuum" which we do not enjoy at all, but hardly know how to get rid of. An annual Italian immigration, coming over in the spring and going home for the winter with its savings, and living like savages, in huts, while here, is something which even ten years ago would have seemed an impossibility; but it is to-day a very conspicuous industrial phenomenon along our whole eastern coast. So, also, when forty years ago Christians began to attack the Chinese for being so exclusive and refusing to trade or associate with their betters, we all thought that the only result of compelling them to open their frontier would be the opening of their markets to foreign trade. As time went on, however, they began to turn the tables on us and gave us more intercourse than we could stand. Accordingly, both England and America, after having bullied China into letting her people out, are now bullying her into keeping them at home. It is not surprising if under these circumstances she is a little puzzled to know what the "Foreign Devils" really want. In truth, the new facility of travel promises to impose on all the more highly civilized countries a complete revision of their attitude with regard to the reception of foreigners. They find they cannot afford to share their civilization on a broad scale with newcomers who have lived on a much lower level, or have not the same social standards.

CAMPAIGN LIES FOR IRISHMEN.

One of the lying cards issued by the Republican Committee, and "copyrighted by the Yale Publishing Co., 126 William St., New York," contains, besides the forged extract from the London *Spectator*, this from the London *Star*, the Irish home-rule paper, edited by T. P. O'Connor: "We desire Cleveland's reëlection." This may be also a forgery, but our belief is that it is also an amusing blunder, for the card is addressed solely to Irishmen, and the quotation, real or fraudulent, was undoubtedly ascribed to the *Star* in the belief that it was an English paper. The card is entitled "What Free Trade Has Done for Ireland," and then, with curious fatuity, proceeds to show what protection has done for Ireland. Here is most of the stuff:

"In earlier times the Irish devoted their attention to the raising of cattle for English markets. In the seventeenth century it became a remarkably lucrative business and the source of great Irish wealth. But the members of the English Parliament saw this coming element of power, and passed a law prohibiting the importation from Ireland of all cattle, sheep, and swine—of all beef, pork, bacon, mutton, butter, and cheese. This destroyed Ireland's industry; but she had a few ships and indomitable perseverance—consequently built a few more, and betook herself to commerce with the Colonies, the East and West Indies, and the Continent. Again England interposed, and Parliament passed the infamous 'Navigation Laws,' prohibiting the Irish from trading with the Colonies! Thus was her Colonial trade cut off and for ever destroyed.

"England now kept her in subjection by the aid of troops and superior naval power. But the pluck that never deserts the Irishmen led them to turn their attention towards sheep-raising for the manufacturing of wool products. Irish wool and Irish cloths, says Foude, the historian, were the finest in Europe, and eagerly sought after. . . . Ireland next attempted to develop her fisheries, and when this promised a profit and support, John Bull pounced upon them again with legislation compelling them to fish in English ships manned by English sailors, and to pay tribute to England to such an extent that this industry became unprofitable and worthless. Finally, a few strong leaders came to Ireland's rescue—such as Gratton, Flood, and Charlemont. Demands were made upon England, and once more Ireland was free. One of the first acts of her newly-enfranchised legislature was a protective act of duties upon imports. Soon her prosperity was greater than it had ever been. Her ports were alive with ships from every nation, and happiness and contentment reigned. This was Ireland under Protection! But, alas, the foul Pitt came, and English free trade was forced upon her, and she was joined to England! English manufactures glutted her markets, undersold her, and turned 5,000,000 operatives out of work!"

What is wonderful in all this is, that the composer did not perceive that the exportation of the beef, pork, mutton, butter, and cheese to the English market and the trade with the colonies were the result of unprotected Irish enterprise, and that the English legislation of 1665 and 1680, absolutely prohibiting the importation into England—Ireland's only foreign market—of all cattle, sheep, swine, beef, pork, mutton, and even of butter and cheese, was part and parcel of that infernal policy of protection for home industry which England practised so long. Ireland was rapidly rising, under free trade, from the ruin wrought by the Cromwellian conquest, when these protective acts crushed her only industries at a blow.

The same thing may be said of the Irish colonial trade. Under the English Navigation Act of 1660, Ireland had equal rights of trade with England, and was rapidly creating a shipping business both with England and the Colonies. In 1663 the English Protectionists had Ireland struck out of the Navigation Acts, and thus excluded her ships both from English and colonial ports, and confined the colonial trade exclusively to English ships, manned by English sailors. In 1670 and 1696 other English protective acts were passed forbidding any direct importation from the colonies to Ireland in any ships whatever, so as to give the English protectionists, not only the carrying of the goods, but the "handling" of them in England.

The unfortunate Irish, being thus cut off from the shipping business, and being deprived of all foreign markets for their agricultural produce, turned their attention to the woollen industry, in which they still enjoyed free trade. The native wool was excellent, and under free trade the manufacture grew rapidly. Large num-

bers of Scotch and Englishmen emigrated to Ireland to take part in it. Now listen to the Irish historian Lecky's account of what the English protectionists did next:

"There was an important woollen manufacture in England, and the English manufacturers urgently petitioned for the total destruction of the rising industry in Ireland. Their petitions were speedily attended to. The House of Lords represented to the King that 'the growing manufacture of cloth in Ireland, both by the cheapness of all sorts of necessaries of life and goodness of materials for making all manner of cloth, doth invite your subjects of England with their families and servants to leave their habitations to settle there, to the increase of the woollen manufacture in Ireland, which makes your loyal subjects in this kingdom very apprehensive that the further growth of it may greatly prejudice the said manufacture here.' The House of Commons in very similar terms urged William 'to enjoin all those you employ in Ireland to make it their care, and use their utmost diligence to hinder the exportation of wool from Ireland, except to be imported hither, and for the discouraging the woollen manufactures.' The King promised to do as he was requested." (Lecky, Vol. ii., p. 229.)

A law was accordingly passed in 1699 (10 and 11 Gul., III. cap. 10) by the English Parliament, forbidding the exportation of Irish woollens to any other country whatever; and this industry was accordingly crushed also, and Ireland was finally plunged in a sink of wretchedness which, under the Penal Laws, lasted through the eighteenth century, and from which she has never since emerged. The linen manufacture in Ulster was not touched, because it did not compete with any English industry, and its good social and moral effects on that province are actually used to-day by anti-Irish writers as arguments to illustrate the unfitness of the Irish in other parts of the island for industrial pursuits. But Ulster was not allowed to enjoy entire free trade, for disabling duties were imposed on Irish sail-cloth imported into England, and Irish checked, striped, and dyed linens were absolutely excluded from the colonies, and had a 30 per cent. duty put on them in England.

The Republican card which lies before us asserts (what we must quote again):

"One of the first acts of her newly enfranchised Legislature was a protective act of duties upon imports. Soon her prosperity was greater than it had ever been. Her ports were alive with ships from every nation, and happiness and contentment reigned. This was Ireland under Protection! But, alas, the foul Pitt came, and English free trade was forced upon her, and she was joined to England! English manufactures glutted her markets, undersold her, and turned 5,000,000 operatives out of work!"

The shortest way of disposing of this is to say that it is a campaign lie. The independent Irish Parliament imposed no protective duties whatever. It offered a bounty on the production and exportation of corn, in order to revive cultivation, which had almost ceased under the Penal Laws, owing to the conversion of the large estates into pasturage, which the disturbed state of the times made more manageable and safer than the growing of crops. This did stimulate greatly the production of grain; but whatever other industrial progress was made in Ireland during the brief period of Parliamentary independence was made under free trade. In fact, it would not be possible to find, in the history of modern civilization, an illustration as striking as that which Ireland furnishes of the rapacity and unscrupulousness and selfishness which influence, in a greater or less degree, the creation and maintenance of all tariffs. Scientific protection has been very rare indeed. Most legislative protection has been due to the widespread, ancient, and deeply rooted desire of man to live on the earnings of his fellow-man; and Irishmen, of all men, as the greatest sufferers from it, should loathe the very name of it.

COMPETITION IN FAST TRAIN SERVICE.

THE running speed of the Scotch express, which we discussed two months since, was even better than the New York *Times* cable despatch at first led American readers to suppose. The West Shore performance of three years ago, whatever its merits in certain sections, by no means equalled the English train for the whole run. Yet this first English record has since been much improved, and trains have been run on both routes to Edinburgh at speeds of nearly 53 miles an hour including stops, or 58 miles excluding stops. This experiment has now been discontinued, and it is not likely that it will be soon repeated. The cost of such extremely fast services is so great, directly and indirectly, that the railroad companies obtain no adequate return. It is simply an instance of competition run riot, and belongs in the same category as the attempt on the part of some of our railroads to carry wheat or cattle at ridiculously low rates. Competition in rates in England has pretty nearly ceased, the necessity for a stable rate agreement having been recognized by all parties concerned. The only form in which rivalry can show itself is in the matter of facilities; and these attempts at high speed are an extreme manifestation of such competition.

But while these unusual speeds are not worth what they cost, either to the railroads or to the community, the effect of rivalry in maintaining an efficient standard of train service is in general wholesome. Mr. Ernest Foxwell has taken the trouble to collect a number of facts with regard to train service in England and in Continental Europe; and his investigations, published by the *Pall Mall Gazette*, bring out most clearly the wonderful results which English railroads have accomplished. While the fast Scotch expresses at 58 miles an hour do not pay (any more than the excesses of competition in wheat rates pay in America), it is nevertheless true that English railroads run trains at 45 and 50 miles an hour and make them profitable. On every route where there has been active competition there have been such trains, furnishing a great convenience to the public without loss and often with positive gain to railroads themselves. Their number is too great for us even to attempt to count them. The *Gazette* gives a list of more than twenty towns over fifty miles from London whose inhabitants can journey to and from the metropolis without a stop and in almost all cases at running rates of 50 miles an hour.

It is needless to say that this is a much better showing than we can make in this country; but the contrast becomes far more striking when England is compared with Continental Europe. The railways of the Continent ought to give a better train service than those of the United States, because their population is denser; yet in point of fact they are very far from so doing. The only train which really approaches the English standard is one in Holland, from Rotterdam to Amsterdam, making a speed of 46 miles an hour in spite of five partial stops. Two other Dutch companies also run trains which would be considered good by the American standard if not by the English. Next comes France. The finest French train is on the Orleans Road. This maintains for a distance of 364 miles a speed, including stops, of 42 3-5 and a running average of 44 1-5. On one section of the road its schedule speed rises to nearly 46 miles an hour. This train, it is hardly necessary to say, runs only first-class cars, and charges 50 per cent. above the regular first-class fares. The next best train in France is the London-Paris express via Calais, but its highest running speed is less than 45 miles an hour, and its general speed from Paris to Calais is hardly 42 miles. The Eastern Road does not do so well, its best performance being on an express train from London to Switzerland, running nearly parallel with the frontier, instead of radiating from Paris, as is the case with most French fast trains. The Western, Southern, and Lyons Companies are far from reaching the standard, their best trains not having an effective speed as high as 40 miles an hour, nor a running average of above 42 miles. In Belgium the best results are about 40 miles an hour, including stops, or 41 miles of running speed. The Belgian train service is, however, praiseworthy on account of the number of fast accommodation trains, if we may so term them, which make a comparatively large number of stops, but which have a high speed between stations. In Germany the case is much worse. Almost the only line with even tolerable service in matter of speed is that between Berlin and Dresden, where the average time, including stops, is about 38 miles an hour. The St. Petersburg express makes fairly good time from Berlin to the frontier. The trains from Berlin to Cologne, which carry the most important mails in the country, are not at all what they should be. It is said by the *Pall Mall Gazette* that the speed of the fastest express train from Berlin to Cologne is barely 40 miles an hour, excluding stops, and only 36 1-3 miles an hour actual time. It is a somewhat curious fact that Austria shows better results in this matter than Germany. The fast express from Berlin to Vienna has a running speed varying from 39¾ down to 29 miles an hour until it crosses the Austrian frontier; on the other side the variations are from 31 miles to 41 2-3, and the average speed is very much improved. For more than 100 miles after leaving Prague the train nowhere drops to a running speed of less than 40½ miles an hour.

This completes the list of countries in Con-

tinental Europe which can make good railroad time. In some, like Italy or Russia, the general standard of service is not properly developed. In others, like Switzerland, the character of the country forbids it. Taking those parts of Europe which we have described, we have the means of making a curious and interesting generalization with regard to the effect of competition on speed. Trains are fastest in England, where competition exists, but is only allowed to take this form. They are next fastest in the United States, where competition exists and takes this form among others. To an almost equal extent competition prevails in Holland, not merely on account of the different companies which manage the Dutch lines, but also because of the number of available water routes by which the country is intersected, and which, if they do not compete for passenger traffic, at any rate prevent the railroads from feeling that they have a monopoly of the transportation interests of the community.

After Holland comes France, where the railroads are mainly in private hands, but where competition is much checked. Next among the large countries comes Austria, where the railroads are partly owned by the State; and last of all comes Germany, with its exclusive system of Government ownership. In France itself it is instructive to see which lines give the fast trains. First we have the Orleans Road, which has been and still is subjected to actual competition from independent lines. Next we have the Northern train services, and particularly the one parallel to the north-eastern frontier, which are affected by international competition that no monopoly can control. Again, in Belgium, we see the remains of a train service developed under the most active competition in the period previous to 1873, and still affected by international rivalry which the country is too small to prevent or to control effectively.

The lack of fast-train service in Germany is one of the almost inevitable results of State monopoly. It is a penalty for the ownership of railroads by the Government. A fast train does not seem to pay: the Government therefore offers none. In ceasing its efforts to give first-class train service it loses the power of so doing. Deprived of the stimulus of competition, it is in great danger of failing in the matter of efficient management. Not merely are the German trains slow, but they are ceasing to be punctual. The writer of this article, in travelling through Germany in the summer of 1887, made nine distinct railroad journeys. On only one of these was the train on time. In the majority of cases, in spite of the slow schedule speed, the train made no pretence of being on time and no effort to recover lost ground. On one of these occasions the London-Berlin fast mail was stalled for more than an hour on a straight track and very moderate upgrade, through mere insufficiency of engine power. Moreover, this did not occur without warning. The train came into Hanover under such conditions that any competent official could have foreseen the probability of such a result. Any well-operated railroad in America would have provided against this contingency; but official red tape was too strong, and the train was allowed to leave Hanover without additional locomotive power or other provision against the danger. We mention all this at some length because the claim of military punctuality is so often made for the State railroad administration. In point of fact, the evidence goes to show that the standard of Government service, even in so well administered a country as Prussia, tends to deteriorate. Since the Government of that country has owned the railroads there has been practically no increase in the passenger-train service; there has been perhaps an actual diminution in speed; and in the international comparison the system makes the pitiful showing already given in detail. Whatever may be the bad results of competition, those of State railway monopoly are not such as the American public would for an instant tolerate.

THE WHITECHAPEL MURDERS.

The interest excited by the Whitechapel murders in London is so great that it has almost thrown "Parnellism and Crime" into the background, and continues to furnish the newspapers of that city with their leading topic. Most of what appears in the daily press on the subject has the usual qualities of the composition known in journalism as a "calamity article." It describes the horrible nature of the crime, speculates on the motives of the murderer, and his build, and calling, and the way he made his escape, and usually winds up with some abuse of the police, leaving a very distinct impression that had the writer been in the neighborhood on the night of the murder he would have caught the murderer in the act, and that, as matters stand, the failure to put him in charge of the London detective force is a case of continuing negligence. Nearly all our "calamity" writers on this side of the water who have taken the matter up, strongly suggest that if the English do not like being murdered so often, all they have to do is to substitute the New York police force for their own. This suggestion is due to the well-known fact that no murderer ever escapes in this city, and that whenever a man is going to commit a murder here, Inspector Byrnes, or one of his subordinates, is pretty sure to arrive at the critical moment and take the knife away from him and box his ears.

As to the London police force, nearly all the English commentators agree that it is too small for the adequate protection of the city and suburbs. It numbers only 13,000 men, and they hold that 20,000 would not be too many for the work. They acknowledge, too, that on the detective side it is, and always has been, extremely weak, and this not so much owing to any defect in discipline or training or command, as to a certain want of fitness for detective work in the English character and temperament. Of courage and tenacity the London police has abundance, but the want of finesse and adaptability, and of power of entering into other people's feelings, which makes Englishmen so unsuccessful in assimilating foreign races, odd as it may seem, makes the supply of really ferret-like, rusé men for the police force very short. The Irish, who with the English compose the London force almost exclusively, are better at the work, but are discredited in English eyes for nice jobs by the brogue, which almost always prepares an Englishman's ears for blundering of some sort. There was a good deal of trouble from this source at the time of the Phoenix Park murders, when good detectives were of the last importance in Ireland. Englishmen were admittedly worthless for the special work required, their accent betraying them, and there was a short period when the authorities were afraid to trust almost any Irishman; but they got over this fear very rapidly. Nevertheless there is just the same complaint in Ireland. The Irish constabulary are a splendid force to fight or march, but they do not supply detectives to catch "moonlighters" and murderers.

The philanthropists and social reformers have, of course, appeared at Whitechapel in considerable force, to improve the occasion, as the clergymen say. One of them suggests that the murderer may be a fanatical Socialist, so disgusted with licentiousness and sexual disorder generally that in order to call the attention of society to it in an impressive manner, he endeavors to murder one prostitute every week or thereabouts. The venerable Lord Sydney Godolphin Osborne, now over eighty, who forty years ago, as a country clergyman, did noble work in calling attention to the condition of the agricultural laborer in the southern counties, writes to the London *Times*, pointing out, with some of his old fervor, that these murders are but the natural outcome of the bestial condition of vice and misery in which the population of East London are allowed to live. Mr. Barnett, a minister in that region, confirms this, and adds that overcrowding is at the bottom of the whole matter—that where one whole family, or more, live in one room, morality perishes, and all crimes become possible. Then comes that old suggestion that the landlords, or somebody, should be compelled to furnish decent tenement-houses to the city poor, which, however, as a complete remedy, the *Spectator* ruins by the very sensible remark that if overcrowding were such a very bad thing as the London philanthropists maintain, the race would have perished from vice ages ago, because, as far back as we can trace its history, the rule has been one room for one family—in other words, the great bulk of mankind has always lived in huts or cabins without partitions. Separate chambers for each sex is a luxury born of modern civilization.

But in front of all schemes for improving the physical condition of the city poor, there rises up the old difficulty, which nobody has ever fairly met, that the more attractive you make the city for poor people, the more of them you draw from the country districts, so that you find yourself contending with a constantly rising tide. Whitechapel is now called a "congested district," but the more there is

done to make Whitechapel a pleasant place to live in, the more congested will it be. Some of the poor who drift into great cities can always be saved and elevated by help, but there will always be an immense residuum who, for want of moral and mental constitution, cannot be helped, and who must either be driven out of the city, or taken care of in it.

THE MARGRAVINE OF BAIREUTH.

PARIS, September 17, 1888.

ALL the events of our time tend to add a sort of retrospective interest to the time of the Great Frederick, to his person and his surroundings. The great work of the Duc de Broglie, as well as the publication of many memoirs of persons of Frederick's time, is a proof of this increasing interest. Eighty years ago were published the memoirs of Frederica Sophia Wilhelmina, Margravine of Baireuth, the sister of the Great Frederick. These memoirs extended from 1706 to 1742, and in the manuscript they were entirely in her own handwriting. This first edition was read with much avidity; it was a living picture of the manners and of the situation of Germany in the eighteenth century. The book is now extremely rare, and a new edition has been published in Leipzig, only 300 copies being issued. In it, with the help of authentic letters and documents, the life of the Margravine has been completed till her death in 1758. The new edition has a pretty portrait of her. She sits in a chair, with a book in her hand and a pet dog in her lap; she has a dress lined with fur, and a muff. Curiously enough, she has on her breast a collar of shells, such as were worn by pilgrims, and which were among the attributes of St. James of Compostella. Her hair is in small curls and powdered. Her face is thin and delicate, and has a very intellectual expression. Her forehead is large and uncovered, her nose well chiselled, her mouth very small, her eyes large and fiery. Altogether, it is the portrait of a person of a very uncommon appearance. The publishers end a small preface with these words: "In publishing this new edition, we have been anxious to present to the public a portrait of this Princess, after having removed the stain of infidelity which disfigured it. We wish to show in her true light a woman, thinking and acting as a queen, great in her heroic affection for her brother, true in her friendship. Let us hope that we shall see the opinion disappear which made her considered as a woman without a heart and without a soul."

Frederick William married in 1706 Sophia Dorothea of Hanover. He was then Crown Prince, and had been educated by Gen. Dohna. Frederica Sophia Wilhelmina was born of this union in 1709; and in 1712 was born a prince who was to become the Great Frederick. The dramatis personæ of the first volume of the Memoirs are more or less known to history. The Prince Royal became King in 1713, his principal ministers being Grumkow and the Prince of Anhalt, who were his favorites, and became complete masters of him. The Queen did not live very happily with him. She is thus described by her daughter:

"The Queen has never been handsome. Her features are marked, and none of them is good. She is white, her hair is dark, her waist is of the handsomest. Her noble and majestic demeanor inspires respect in all who see her; a great hatred of the world and a brilliant mind seem to promise more solidity than she possesses. . . . Everybody has defects, and she is not exempt from them. All the pride and haughtiness of the house of Hanover is concentrated in her. Her ambition is excessive, she is extremely jealous, of a distrustful and vindictive humor, and she never forgives those who have offended her."

All the portraits are in this style; the Margravine spares nobody. If she wrote thus about her mother, Sophia Dorothea, you can imagine what she has to say about her father, who was a drunkard, and whose violence seemed at times to be inspired by madness. As for the favorites of the Court, they are described with unsparing severity. Some of these petty personages assume enormous proportions in the Memoirs. The young Princess suffered at their hands, and she takes her revenge. She was first placed under the care of a person whom she calles Letti, the daughter of an Italian monk who had fled to Holland, where he had changed his religion. "She had an Italian heart, that is to say, very supple, very bright, and very dark; she was interested, proud, and bad-tempered. Her coquetry gave her many lovers, and they had not to languish long." There was a state of perpetual warfare between her and Letti, as well as between Letti and her brother. Frederick had a feeble constitution, was taciturn, and often ill. He seems always to have had the greatest attachment for his sister Wilhelmina. He kept nothing secret from her.

It is difficult to imagine a court more full of intrigues than that which the Memoirs describe. The King had his favorites, who were jealous of everybody; the Queen had hers also. Grumkow chose mistresses for the King. "The Queen had among her ladies a Mme. von Wagnitz, who at that time was her favorite. Mme. Wagnitz concealed under an air of devotion the most scandalous conduct; her love of intrigue led her to prostitute herself as well as her daughters to the favorites of the King and to those who mingled in affairs. Thus she learned secrets of state, which she immediately sold to Count Rottembourg, the French Minister." One of the King's favorites, Kreutz, Minister of State and of Finance, "was an assemblage of all the vices. . . . He had secret emissaries round the King. These miserable people tried to disgust him with the Queen. They vaunted to him the beauty of Wagnitz," etc.

The marriage of the Princess Wilhelmina became the subject of great and long intrigues. She tells how, when she was still a child, an officer, famous for knowledge of astrology, looked at her hand, and told her that four Kings would ask for it—the Kings of Sweden, England, Russia, and Poland—but that she would marry none of them. This prophecy was accomplished. Her marriage with Charles XII. of Sweden became the subject of negotiation when she was only eight years old; but the negotiation was broken off for political reasons. This question of marriage filled all the youth of the Princess; she heard of all the candidates, she knew some of them, and did not even know the others. She was of delicate health, and was several times at the point of death. She says things which seem almost incredible about the life she was made to lead with her father, and about her father himself. At Potsdam, she with her brother was obliged to enter her father's room every morning at nine, and neither of them could leave it, as he had the gout, and could not go out himself. "The whole day was spent in invectives against my brother and myself. The King never called me by any other name than 'la canaille anglaise' [it was the time when her marriage with the Prince of Wales was being negotiated], and my brother was always 'le coquin de Fritz.' He forced us to eat and drink things for which we had some aversion, or which were contrary to our systems." The King one day threw a dish at the head of his son Frederick, and another at the head of Wilhelmina. "The King starved us both; he took the office of carver, and helped everybody except my brother and me, and when accidentally something remained in a dish, he spat on it to hinder us from eating. We only lived, both of us, on coffee and milk and dried cherries, which completely spoiled my stomach."

One day Wilhelmina received a letter from her brother announcing to her that his father had beaten him most cruelly with his stick, and that he was resolved to escape. The confidant of Frederick was a page named Katte. The Margravine tried all she could to dissuade her brother. The history of the arrest of Frederick and of Katte, and the condemnation of the latter, is well known. The Margravine tells it with very minute details; she tells, also, how she and her mother succeeded in burning many letters which were written confidentially to her brother by herself and by the Queen. The tragedy of Katte's death would have broken a weaker mind than Frederick's. Many of the faults of this great man must be excused by the horrible treatment to which he was subjected in his youth; and we find also, in the sad events which the Margravine speaks of, the secret of the constant affection of the brother and sister. They had been companions in misery, and remained always united in heart.

The Princess's marriage with the Prince of Wales did not take place, owing to the violence of the King, who treated the English negotiator in the most brutal manner. All the earlier plans which were formed for her were successively abandoned; the King was much incensed at the English refusal, and determined to marry his daughter instantly. He chose for his son-in-law the hereditary Prince of Baireuth. Wilhelmina had hoped to wear a crown: she was reduced to a coronet.

"It must be confessed that my marriage was the most extraordinary thing in the world. The King, my father, made it against his better thoughts, and repented of it afterwards, every day. He could have broken it off, and he accomplished it against his own desires. I need not speak of the sentiments of the Queen [she was very desirous of the English marriage]; I have said enough to show how adverse she was to it. The Margrave of Baireuth was as discontented as the others. He had only given his consent in the hope of great advantages, and he found himself frustrated by the avarice of the King. He found me married against the wish of the three principal persons who could decide my fate, and, nevertheless, with their consent."

The portrait of the Margrave of Baireuth, the father-in-law of the Princess, is not flattered. Her account of her arrival in the territory of Baireuth is most amusing; and no better picture can be found of the life which was led in the eighteenth century in the small courts of Germany. It must be confessed that many of her pictures seem to be caricatures; they are coarse and cynical. She mixes her colors with the greatest liberty; a minute after she has said, for instance, that her father-in-law, the Margrave, drank from morning to night, "which helps to enfeeble his mind," she says, "His popularity has made him beloved by his subjects." "Though he had little genius, he had much penetration, and he knew well the men who composed his ministry and his court." He had no application for public affairs, and had been spoiled by the reading of 'Télémaque.' Such is the rambling style of the Princess, but, with all their defects of composition, her Memoirs are interesting, because here and there are extraordinary facts and traits of character. The story of the intrigues of the Court of Baireuth is told with as much mi-

nuteness as if this court had been the greatest theatre in the world. Fortunately for the reader, the Princess often speaks of her brother, with whom she kept up a constant correspondence, and nothing that concerns the Great Frederick is indifferent.

The Margrave died in 1735, and the Princess became the Margravine of Baireuth, the name under which she is known to history. The Memoirs end in the year 1742; the editorial supplement extends from 1743 to 1758. The collection of the letters which the Great Frederick wrote to his beloved sister fills eleven quarto volumes; the letters of the Margravine to the King of Prussia are even more numerous. The Margravine was also a correspondent of Voltaire. She was acquainted with all the men who formed the philosophical, literary, and scientific court of Frederick. Her married life was not of the happiest; she found her consolation in fraternal love and in intellectual culture. When she died, Voltaire wrote these verses:

"O Bareith! o vertus! o grâces adorées!
Femme sans préjugés, sans vice, et sans erreur,
Quand la mort t'enlève de ces tristes contrées,
De ce séjour de sang, de rapin, et d'horreur,
Les nations acharnées
De leurs haines forcenées
Suspendirent les fureurs;
Les discordes s'arrêtèrent;
Tous les peuples s'accordèrent
A t'honorer de leurs pleurs."

Correspondence.

MR. BLAINE AND HIS HISTORY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If the writer of the opening editorial of the issue of the *Nation* dated October 4 had read the entire chapter on the subject of American tariffs in Mr. Blaine's 'Twenty Years of Congress,' a blunder might have been avoided which not every one will be charitable enough to attribute to ignorance.

A failure to mention, in the explanation of a fact, the existence of circumstances which subsequent investigation may have revealed, is no argument against the effect of those circumstances if they actually did exist. However, no such explanation is necessary on behalf of the author of 'Twenty Years of Congress.' All of the causes mentioned in Mr. Blaine's speech at the Polo Grounds on September 29, in explanation of the "apparently genuine prosperity of the country" after the enactment of the tariff of 1846, are set out fully in the chapter devoted to American tariffs, just seven pages after the passage quoted at length in the editorial to which this is an answer. If the writer of the editorial will turn from page 196, volume i., of Mr. Blaine's work, from which the passage quoted was taken, to page 203, he will find due mention made "of accidental circumstances, such as the Mexican war, the discovery of gold in California, and the Crimean war"; and, in addition to these, will find also a reference to the famine in Ireland and the revolutions of 1848.

The italics which abound throughout the quotation in your paper, and for which the public is indebted to the marvellous acumen of the editor, some people may characterize as an attempt to lead the readers of the *Nation* into those "false paths" into which we are informed Mr. Blaine has led *his* readers.

"Mutato nomine, de te fabula narratur."

Your obedient servant,

James M. Willcox, jr.

Philadelphia, October 8, 1888.

[We make our apology to Mr. Blaine and our readers. The latter can be trusted to set down our delinquency to oversight and not to partisan suppression.—Ed. Nation.]

A DISTINCTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You have of late lost no opportunity to expose Republican sophistry and rebuke Republican wickedness, and in your last issue justly call the attention of respectable Republicans to "Pat" Ford's propinquity to Mr. Blaine. Now will you allow a Cleveland Republican of 1884 to ask why you are not equally severe upon Democratic demagoguery and corruption, of which you may find an abundant supply in this State and your own; and particularly what you think of the repeated presence of one Eugene Higgins and one Senator Gorman at the headquarters of the Democratic National Executive Committee?—Truly yours,

S. Lauer.

Baltimore, October 5, 1888.

[Do you not think yourself there is some difference between even corrupt politicians, like Gorman and Higgins, whom we have repeatedly denounced, and a man like Ford, who has collected money for and publicly applauded murder and arson, and has, as a soldier, deserted in the presence of the enemy? If you do not, you may rely upon it your moral training has been grossly neglected.—Ed. Nation.]

THE PRESIDENT AND THE CIVIL SERVICE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read your paper with considerable care for some weeks past, with the hope of finding some defence to the alleged abuses in the civil service of Cleveland's reign. Are you not one of his partisans? At all events, it would seem to be your *duty* to find some answer to the numerous (at least in this section) attacks made by Republicans upon Cleveland's administration of the civil service. He was elected to reform the civil service. Has he done it, or is he doing it? If he has, these numerous attacks should be answered.—Very truly yours,

L. S. Berry.

Chicago, October 5, 1888.

[If we were partisans of the President, as you intimate, it *would* be our duty to explain away his shortcomings in the matter of the civil service. This, however, we have never done, as a little more extensive reading of the *Nation* on your part will convince you.—Ed. Nation.]

THE CHINESE AND THE HOODLUMS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On page 184 of your issue of the 6th inst. is an article entitled 'The Chinese Treaty.' In this article, with reference to the sudden passage by the House of the Scott Bill, occurs these expressions (the italics are mine):

"Here was a rare chance for somebody to 'get ahead' in the scramble to gratify the *hoodlum element* on the Pacific coast. . . . A great game had been played for the *hoodlum* vote. . . . We shall sacrifice both in an unseemly scramble for the votes *of the hoodlums*."

I can scarcely hope to make you understand how such expressions as these hurt the feelings of your readers on this coast, but I am going to try to.

Let me premise, however, by telling you that my husband and myself and my husband's father take a great many papers; indeed, between our two families we have the reading of over twenty publications, monthlies, weeklies, and dailies. Among all these there is none we respect more or read more attentively than the *Nation*. To know your paper, and to read it intelligently from cover to cover habitually, we think to help largely towards a liberal education. We have more than once been the means of getting others to subscribe for it, and these phrases are often heard in our family when we meet people who are narrow-minded or ignorant on some of the great questions of the day: "They don't read the *Nation*," "I'd give a good deal to get them to read the *Nation* for a year or so," etc., etc. Now, this isn't "taffy I'm giving you," but honest sentiment. You are like a respected friend, with whom we have long corresponded, as it were, but never met. Hence, when you say unjust, ill-considered things, we feel it as we should not did we not esteem you as we do.

But as to the *raison d'être* of this letter. It seems to me nothing can be more unfair than for you to take the attitude that all those who object to the Chinese on this coast are "hoodlums," and that it is all the "hoodlum vote" which is cast against them. *I* cannot vote, to be sure, but women are credited with influence. My influence, if I have any, shall be persistently used in favor of excluding the Chinese. This is the mind of all my family. But we are not "hoodlums." Indeed, I never was introduced to a hoodlum, nor talked with one; and yet I have talked with many people—men and women, fathers and mothers and respectable property-owners—on this subject, and I have yet to meet one who differed with me, or us, in their sentiments on the subject. Oh, yes. I might make just *one* exception, that of a very old, retired clergyman, who came to this coast a few years since, and tried for a while to do missionary work among "the heathen" here. It amused him, and didn't do them any harm.

When we came to the coast seven years ago, I was full of the sentimentalism on the Chinese question with which so many of the Eastern papers are rampant to this day (yours among the number, begging your pardon). Time and observation—experience—have cured me of all that. I have long since been ready to say, with others, "Sentimentalism go hang"; and I am satisfied that if you should settle down here for a number of years, as a thrifty citizen, expecting to make this your home for life, you, too would change your views.

It is not that we, as a family, have had any serious trouble with Chinamen. It is not that we have not employed them and made them useful to us in many ways. I buy vegetables and strawberries of them, and my husband has employed them in his raisin vineyards, and otherwise on the ranch. Barring the fact that their small frames make them, as a rule, incapable of doing as heavy work, or the same amount in the working day, that one expects from the same class of laborers East, I should say that they, as help, compare favorably with the Irish, Italian, and negro, and are no more eye-servants than these. The Chinese I have met have impressed me as being more cleanly in their person than the same grade of help East. I have never employed them as house-servants—I never would. But I have had plenty of experience with them as laundrymen—too much.

Why, then, do I object to them? Why am I so opposed to allowing them to overrun our coast? Because I think we should be better without them. Because I think that now, and

more than ever in the future, we should be safer without them. Because I am convinced, through acquaintance and observation, that the *Chinese as a class are inimical to our civilization, our development, our prosperity, and that they can never be anything else.* And lastly, because I do not want my State to become as Honolulu is now.

But, say some, it is unfair to talk so, for the Chinese have helped develop this coast, its railroads and improvements, and you could not be where you are now if it were not for them, and it is real ingratitude to turn against them now. So? Did not they have their pay—a pay, compared to that which they could have got in their own country, that was a bonanza to them, enabling them to carry out ambitious schemes they could otherwise have hardly dared to dream of? We are quits, as far as that is concerned. If they were useful and have served their day, it is nothing but a wishy-washy sentimentalism that would retain them now, if convinced that they are deleterious to the public weal. What is China to us that we should employ her spare millions of hopelessly degraded laborers, if it is not well for us to do so? But as to those Chinamen who worked here during the early days, they have gone back with their "pile," and if we do not need such labor for such work now, why should we be taken to task?

Years ago, during the Turco-Russian war, I read an interesting editorial (in your paper I am quite sure), showing how un-assimilative is the Turk; how for hundreds of years he had been close neighbor to the civilizations of Europe, and was still—a Turk. The problem I have met here in California has shaped itself in my mind much after the same fashion. It is the incompatibility between Occidental and Oriental civilizations. And of all Oriental civilizations, that of China is perhaps the most "set," *i. e.*, the most "pronounced." It is the oldest, is it not? If I thought that the Chinese were to be allowed to overrun this coast, I should be sorry I ever came here to settle; for I believe that they would in time run the American out, and that my posterity would perish in a bitter race-war. For it is true, though you do not seem to know it, that the Chinaman, seems he never so "meek and unresisting," never so "child-like and bland," when in the *minority*, will, as a rule, when he can, be domineering, insolent, and cruel. Did you not read at the time how the Chinamen at the Sacramento fisheries fought to oust the workmen put in their places? Instances could be cited, were it worth while, columns long, showing that they are, *whenever they dare*, anything but "meek." Women and children on the coast, who have chanced to be temporarily unprotected, know this to their cost. That instances of Chinamen abusing them are as rare as they are, is because we here all seem to learn by instinct to seek to guard against danger whenever we meet them. It becomes second nature to us. Our children are taught to be on their guard about them, from infancy—and wisely, too. At the same time, all I know try to train children to treat them with kindness and courtesy. For all decent people are alike in this, that, while here and behaving himself, John Chinaman should be met fairly and honorably.

You close your article by saying: "The Chinese are a meek and unresisting race; hence the contumely and cruelty heaped upon them in California. But every Italian carries a dagger, and nobody harms him with impunity." The logical inference of these sentences clearly shows that you do not know what you are talking about. Besides our ranch, my husband owns one of the two gun-stores in town. He and my oldest son, who clerks there, can testify that there is no class in our valley who go so "well-heeled" (as the phrase is) as the Chinese. Every one knows this, and that they are very quick-tempered, too. They invariably carry bowie-knives, and buy the very best revolvers my husband sells. In short, for personal arms, or concealed weapons, they are the best customers he has.

The longer I live in California, the more afraid I am of the sly, subtle, treacherous, and smiling Chinaman, who lies, steals, and cheats the "Melican man" on principle; whose criterions and standards of morality are for ever and ever as different from ours as black is from white; and whose heart no man can read.

Respectfully, MRS. A. J. TOWNER.

SANTA ANA, September 23, 1888.

[We have never said or implied that the Pacific Coast hostility to the Chinese proceeded solely from the hoodlums; least of all was it in our mind in writing the obnoxious passages cited by our correspondent. The action of Congress which we deprecated, and for which both parties fell equally under our censure, was demagogic, was a bid for the electoral vote of the Coast States. It was performed in a manner utterly discreditable to our civilization—the manner of hoodlums and the mob. Had England, Germany, Spain, or any Continental Power been in question, the passage of the bill while a treaty was pending would never have been dreamt of. Towards a weak, distant, and home-bound power, it was cowardly and brutal, like the treatment of the Chinese by our "hoodlum element" in all parts of the country. Make what division you please between classes of the population agreed in clamoring for the exclusion of the Chinese, it is true of the best that they have given their sanction to the *mode* in which this end has been attained by successive statutes. Denis Kearney on his sand-lots and Mr. Blaine in Congress have joined hands with one another in this business, and thousands of respectable and upright people, like our correspondent and her friends, have coöperated or silently approved. The hoodlums have set the tone.—ED. NATION.]

IF THEY WERE TRUE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The forgeries of articles from English papers, intended to show that the English are in favor of free trade in the United States, are very disgraceful in so far as they are forgeries. But suppose now that those articles were genuine: would they furnish any argument against a reduction of our tariff and the proper disposition of our surplus revenue?

Free trade, theoretically, is advocated by economists of all countries, not because it is good for any one particular country, but because it would be good for all. When the question was in England about abolishing the Corn Laws, it is believed that there was not one paper in the United States which did not ardently advocate such abolition, because it would also be very favorable to our country. The landowners in Great Britain opposed abolition most obstinately, predicting that it would utterly ruin the country. But the Tory press did not use the favor which the measure found in the United States, or in Russia, or other wheat-raising countries, as an argument against the abolition of the Corn Laws, nor did they charge the Opposition with being bribed by American dollars or Russian rubles. They had too much sense to believe that they could humbug the English people by such foolish arguments.

Most of the Continental governments have of late years raised their import duties. They have deeply injured our American trade. In all these countries there is now a great struggle going on against these high-tariff measures, and the contest is a bitter one. We have diplomatically and in every other way loudly denounced the action of these governments, our press gives every encouragement to the Opposition. Yet we do not hear from the high-tariff men that their opponents are bribed by our people, that they are fighting under the American flag and in the interest of foreigners. It requires such men as Blaine, who believe the people ignorant enough to be deluded by such base demagogy, to make such charges.

G. K.

BELLEVILLE, ILL., October 2, 1888.

MR. WHARTON AND HIS NICKEL MINE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Is Mr. Joseph Wharton's late statement, that nickel mines are numerous in this country, ingenuous? I take it that, for the present purpose, a nickel mine may be defined as a body of mineral matter of such dimensions, and containing such a percentage of nickel, that there is a reasonable prospect that nickel can be extracted from it with profit. Few granite quarries are free from iron: that does not make them iron mines. Though familiar with many deposits falsely hoped to be nickel mines, I believe that Mr. Wharton owns the only, or almost the only, American nickel mine of any economic importance. Will he inform us where these numerous nickel mines are? Or does he quibble, posing as the protector of other mines, while protecting himself only?

H. M. H.

BOSTON, September 28, 1888.

PROF. PAYNE ON GERMAN BOOKS ON PEDAGOGY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A number of graduates of the University of Michigan some years ago formed the "Michigan Schoolmasters' Club." As the name suggests, its members are all engaged in teaching, and, it may be added, belong to the most intelligent and earnest workers in the field.

At the May meeting (1888) of this club, Prof. W. H. Payne, formerly Professor of Education in the University of Michigan, and at present principal of a normal school at Nashville, Tenn., read a paper in which occur the following words, which since then have been allowed to appear in print (the italics are mine):

"*To be even approachable, a German work on the philosophy of education needs to be translated twice—first into English and then into English common sense.* This has been done for Rosenkranz by Miss Brackett and Dr. Harris, and we have a book, still not altogether comprehensible, but yet full of wholesome food for thought."

What are we to conclude from such a statement, coming from one of the leading teachers and best-known writers on education in this country? Is it to be supposed that the italicized lines express the judgment at which Prof. Payne has arrived after an extended study of German pedagogical works in the original? The unanimous answer of all students of German pedagogical science, to whatever nation-

ality they may belong, would be an emphatic No! "For two centuries Germany has been the classical land of pedagogy," are the opening lines of a chapter in a work which Prof. Payne himself has thought worth translating from the French. Or, is it possible that Prof. Payne, being unable to read in the original any of the valuable contributions of Germany to the philosophy of education, wishes to cast ridicule upon that which to him is a *terra incognita*? The mere thought that a man in his position and of his reputation would be guilty of such an unscholarly, not to say unprincipled, act is saddening. Are we, then, to come to the conclusion that a stale joke on the abstruseness of German thinkers had such allurements for the lecturer as to lead him to utter the disparaging words above quoted?

By whatever motive he may have been actuated, does it not seem unpardonable in a man who for several years filled the Chair of Pedagogy in one of our greatest universities, by such means to discourage university students and graduates from a thorough pursuit of the science which he professes? Or is it not true that—to borrow the language of a reviewer in the (Syracuse) *Academy*—"no thorough reading of pedagogy without German is possible"?

X.

A CHAUCER CONCORDANCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Chaucer Society is engaged with the compilation of a glossarial concordance to Chaucer's works, based upon the texts published by the Society. The coöperation of a considerable number of hands will be required, if this important labor is to be seasonably executed. Eleven ladies and gentlemen in England have offered their assistance, but more help is wanted. Americans who may be disposed to give aid are invited to send their names to Wilson Graham, Esq., 64 Mount Pleasant Road, Southampton, England. F. J. Child.

Cambridge, Mass., October 7, 1888.

THE GREENS OF NORTHAMPTONSHIRE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I may perhaps be trespassing on your space if I ask you to publish the following "simple tale."

I happen to be rector of the parish of Green's Norton, Northamptonshire, England. In the parish church are several mutilated tombs belonging to the family of "Green," who, for six generations between the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, were lords of this manor. The first, Sir Henry Green, was Lord Chief Justice of England about the end of the thirteenth century; the last, Sir Thomas Green, was father of Maud Green, who married Sir Thomas Parr of Kendal, Westmoreland, and was the mother of Kate Parr, Queen of England by marriage with Henry VIII.

The only information I can arrive at, by inquiry from the "oldest inhabitant" of this parish, about the descendants of the Green family is, that many years ago a gentleman from *America* (my informant mentions *Boston* doubtfully) came to this church, presumably to inspect the beautiful tombs and brasses belonging to the Green family.

We are about to undertake the rearrangement of the church. I write to you to know if it is within the limits of your rules, as editor, to allow this letter to appear in your columns, as perhaps some member of the family of "Green" would wish to have a voice in the disposal of the effigies which still remain as witnesses of their wealth and position.

I may only add that I am "a constant reader" of your paper, and an occasional contributor thereto.—Yours sincerely,

S. Beal, D.C.L., etc.

The Rectory, Green's Norton, Towcester, England, September 29, 1888.

Notes.

The Moses King Corporation, Boston, have in preparation a 'Handbook of Public Art Galleries in the United States,' edited by Walter Rowlands. It will embrace even the smaller local collections, and those connected with educational institutions. The book will be illustrated.

Charles Scribner's Sons publish directly ex-Secretary McCulloch's 'Men and Measures of Half a Century.'

Clara Bell's translations of Galdós's 'Court of Charles IV.' is ready for publication by W. S. Gottsberger.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, begin shortly the issuing of a series of leaflets for the study of English literature of the present century, prepared by Prof. Louise Manning Hodgkins of Wellesley.

Dr. Morell Mackenzie's 'The Case of the Late Emperor of Germany, and the Relation thereto of the German Doctors,' will be published in New York by Brentano, simultaneously with its appearance in England.

The great collection of the Popular Ballads of Denmark, which was brought to a stand by the premature death of Svend Grundtvig, is now to be continued, and, let us hope, completed, by Axel Olrik, who is vouched for as a competent man.

The works of Ibsen, the Scandinavian dramatist, are not as well known here as the novels of Björnsen, and it is with pleasure that we find three of them translated in a single volume. 'The Pillars of Society and Other Plays,' by Henrik Ibsen, edited with an introtion by Havelock Ellis, has just been published in the "Camelot Series" by Walter Scott (New York: Thomas Whittaker). The "Pillars of Society," which had a vogue in the German theatres almost like that of "Pinafore" in ours, has been translated by Mr. William Archer, who has also revised the version of "Ghosts." The third play is "An Enemy of the People," translated by Mrs. Eleanor Marx-Aveling. Of the trio, "Ghosts" is the most powerful, and our readers have had some opportunity of judging whether it might not be pronounced by far the strongest play of the past decade—simple in its movement, direct in its language, trenchant in its characterization, scientific in its handling, and profoundly and pitilessly moral; a play to set men thinking, yet undeniably repulsive for stage presentation.

These plays of Ibsen's are, as we have said, included in the "Camelot Series"; and here occasion serves to note yet another disadvantage of our present defective copyright laws. In any country where there is general education, there is a demand for cheap books. With us now this demand is met by the reprinting of contemporary foreign fiction, most of it worthless. In England this demand is met by several "libraries" or "series" for reprinting really good literature at a low price. The volumes of the "Camelot Series" are comely little books, bound in vellum cloth, with a neat paper label, and are sold at a shilling each. Among the other volumes of the series are books by Emerson, Thoreau, Longfellow, Lowell, and Walt Whitman.

The latest issues of the "Canterbury Poets" (London: Walter Scott) is devoted to Southey, from whose voluminous works passages of 'Thalaba,' 'The Curse of Kehama,' and 'Roderick,' with about a dozen short pieces, have been selected. There is no hope that even this little collection will restore the green to his laurels; yet the editor, Sidney R. Thompson, does well to remind us what Southey's repute once was—how Landor praised him, and how Cardinal Newman, in the critical moment of his career, used to repair to this dull bard for strength such as poetry could give him. His influence, too, upon Shelley, both in verse and in philanthropy, has never been adequately acknowledged—a sign of which is the lack of any mention of it here. Poetry which had three such readers could not have been without some virtues at the time; and Mr. Thompson's critical remarks, starting from this text, are very excellent, both in temper and substance It is too much, we fear, to ask for a Southey revival; but literary students may well take so excellent an opportunity to have a farewell glance at Southey's epics in their wreck, and to remember the other pole of the poetic world. The discouraging thing, the insurmountable difficulty, is that one page is so marvellously like another.

In the "Chandos Classics" Mr. Ewald publishes a selection from the *Tatler*, with notes (New York: Frederick Warne & Co.) uniform with his selection from the *Spectator*. There are four hundred and fifty good-sized pages, which represent all that is worth preservation as literature; but this is very well worth preservation, and the volume should help to bring back these essays, so admirable both for taste and feeling, into the hands of young readers. It will be an excellent addition to every small popular or home library.

The first-fruit of the holiday season is at hand, but is hardly of a savor that promises much for the annual crop. The illustrations of 'The Courtship of Miles Standish' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) are many, but the best of them are not above, and the worst are far below, mediocrity. Those which approach nearest to excellence are by Mr. George H. Boughton, but they will not add to his reputation; the others sink through various stages to pretty positive badness, and some of them have a curious, old-fashioned air, as of survivals from an earlier state of American art—like resurrections from the early numbers of *Harper's Magazine*. The heavy paper is printed upon one side only, and the constant presence of a blank page opposite that which one is reading is annoying to the eye; the letter-press is crowded unpleasantly near the top of the page; the cover is good neither in color nor in design. In short, nothing of the book but its title-page is in really good taste. Ten or even five years ago it might have been accounted a "sumptuous holiday publication," but it signally fails to reach the standard that has been set for such work of late years.

'Embroidery and Lace,' by Ernest Lefebvre and Alan S. Cole (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.), is beautifully illustrated and printed, and is bound in a pretty and tasteful cover, and that is almost all that one can say of it. The text is a disappointment. It contains very little real information, and that little is lost from the want of any index or glossary, or even a full table of contents. The translation is slovenly. On the whole, it appears to be a rather ordinary piece of book-making, and, except for its charming drawings, can be of little use.

Fifty years and more have elapsed since the late Thomas Kibble Hervey's 'Book of Christ-

mas' first appeared in England. It is now republished in pretty shape by Roberts Bros., Boston, without hint of its age, yet with incapacity to deceive any judge of literary styles and epochs. The mildly genial, learned, and dignified text wears as plainly the stamp of a bygone generation as do R. Seymour's illustrations—a poor reflection of Cruikshank. Folk-lore has made great progress since 1836, and one would be excused for preferring Mr. Thiselton-Dyer to Mr. Kibble, who is, in truth, a little dull, respect him as we may. It is noticeable that Christmas Day gifts are ignored in this account of the season, and the donations known as Christmas boxes are distinguished "from New Year's gifts in this, that the former, passing from the rich to the poor, and from the master to his dependents, are not reciprocal in their distribution, whereas the latter are those gifts, for the mutual expression of good will and congratulation, which are exchanged between friends and acquaintances." In this country, the Christmas box is unknown, and Christmas gifts have superseded New Year's.

A perennial classic, the 'Essays of Elia,' puts on a new garb in the "Knickerbocker Series" of the Messrs. Putnam, where its fitness will be called in question by none. So the 'Vicar of Wakefield' passes from the older Bohn edition into the olive-green "Select Library" now being quarried from the "Standard" (Scribner & Welford).

The merest glance at Mr. Edward T. Cook's 'Popular Handbook to the National Gallery' (Macmillan) shows it to be a very thorough and scrupulous performance, carried out with great intelligence and equal self-restraint. Its distinguishing feature is that wherever a painter, a school, or a picture has been mentioned by Ruskin in his various works, his words are quoted in the fitting place. Thus the guide-book not only gives all needful details about artist and canvas, but enables the visitor to have Mr. Ruskin at his elbow. It is Mr. Ruskin, to be sure, in his different stages of art feeling, and Mr. Cook makes no attempt to reconcile his discrepancies. The editor's own function is descriptive rather than critical or technical. He furnishes an index list of painters, and another of pictures, arranged by their numbers, each opposite the name of the painter, the room in which it is hung, mode and date of acquisition, and price. Of the 1,250 pictures, 536 have been purchased at a cost of two and a half million dollars. Mr. Cook's 'Handbook' is extremely valuable for reference as well as for use in the Gallery.

Fords, Howard & Hulbert have begun a uniform reissue of Henry Ward Beecher's sermons under the title, 'Plymouth Pulpit.' The four volumes before us cover the period from September, 1873, to September, 1875. These memorials of a great preacher lack the personal delivery which made his discourses so entertaining and impressive, and will never convey to posterity a just idea of his power in the pulpit, nor certainly of his intellectual capacity.

From the Outing Co., 239 Fifth Avenue, we have 'A History of American Amateur Athletics and Aquatics, with the Records,' 1829–1888, by Frederick Wm. Janssen, in collaboration with officers of the various associations throughout the country. It has a table of contents but no index.

President Adams's annual report on the condition of Cornell University during the past year notes the rapid increase in attendance, with a slight gain from New York State; justifies by the results admission on certificate from approved schools; calls for greater accommodations and an increase of the force of teachers; records the success of the first year of the Law School and the beginning of a system of general heating of the college buildings from one station; and in other ways points out the advance and the pressing needs of the institution. The instructor in physical culture provides some curious graphic charts, comparing the physique of the average American student, the Cornell Freshmen, and the Cornell students of all classes, and exhibiting in divers ways the good effect of gymnastic training.

Prof. Albert S. Cook, of the University of California, has just published a monograph on 'Cardinal Guala and the Vercelli Book' (Library Bulletin No. 10), which marshals all the evidence that would account for the passing of the Codex Vercellensis containing the metrical Anglo-Saxon legend of St. Andrew from England to Italy. Prof. Cook will, if addressed at Berkeley, Cal., send a copy of this brochure to any student of the English language, so long as the edition holds out.

In the October number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* will be found a portrait and biographical sketch of the late Israel Ward Andrews, D.D., well known in the educational annals of the West, and author, among other painstaking works, of the admirable manual of the Constitution of the United States; his last historical address, on the Marietta colony of 1788; a list (following those of Harvard and Yale) of the alumni of William and Mary College who have held official position; and the usual instalment of Mr. H. F. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings in England," here of principal interest to Virginian families.

The supplement to *Harper's Weekly* for October 6 is occupied with colored political maps of the United States, of the doubtful States, and of New York city, very usefully contrived for present information.

The new gold fields in the Transvaal are the subject of the opening paper by Fr. Jeppe in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for September. These are mostly in the town of Heidelberg, thirty-six miles south of Pretoria, and are known as the Witwaters Rand Mines. Though work was not fairly begun till late in 1886, there are now 118 companies, with a capital of over $15,000,000; and a town, Johannesburg, of 12,000 inhabitants has sprung up. The machinery in use is chiefly of English make, but is now in competition with American. Judging from the amount of gold mined in the first quarter of the present year, there can be little doubt that the total output for 1888 will be five million dollars' worth. An excellent map of the district, showing the position of the various companies, illustrates the paper, which gives an interesting account of the discovery and development of the mines. Dr. W. Weber contributes a chart with descriptive text of the Red Sea, showing its various depths, and J. Menges takes up the cudgels, apparently successfully, in defence of the African elephant, whose usefulness to the explorer was recently assailed by the well-known traveller, G. Rohlfs. H. Semler continues his discussion of the changes wrought in the flora of California by artificial cultivation, dwelling principally upon the larger fruits, as oranges, apples, pears, peaches, etc.

The second issue of *Sun and Shade* (Photogravure Co., 853 Broadway) is dated October, and a regular monthly issue is contemplated. Like the first, the employment of other processes than the photogravure produces an inharmonious impression. By the former there is a fine portrait of Mr. Edward Atkinson, with which is thrown in a "Study in Statistics," by this writer—a diagram denoting the decline in the rate of interest since 1860, the gain in the purchasing power of wages, loss in the purchasing power of income, etc.

Any of our readers having complete volumes of the *Nation*, bound or unbound, which they are ready to bestow for better preservation and a wider use, are requested to send them to the Reform Club of this city, at No. 12 East Thirty-third Street.

—The portrait of Emma Lazarus, with which the October *Century* opens, will recall to lovers of poetry some firm, vigorous verses, often remarkable for imagination, especially when inspired by the fiery intensity of her Jewish nature. The somewhat full sketch of her life in the body of the magazine relates an interesting early career; but the noticeable point in it is the extraordinary change brought about in Miss Lazarus when the persecution of the Jews in Europe recreated for her the race-idea, which, seizing on her imagination and sympathies, immediately absorbed her life. Literature up to that time had been for her an academic exercise, and, notwithstanding her talents, she had not made a real impression. Now it became the instrument of living ideas, and the increase of her faculty was at once plain. She did more, however, than write: she joined in the actual philanthropic work done in this city in aid of the refugees from foreign hatred, and from that time was identified with a real and an ennobling cause. The fine vitality of her last, and by far her best, literary work was the result of this. The present sketch is one which, by making her personality known, does the best justice to her short career. The article which, next to this, will attract literary readers, is Walt Whitman's notes upon the scenes in the hospital service; they are extracted from his letters home, and retain, therefore, the intense feeling of the time. Whatever may be thought of the author's claim to be a poet, he has remarkably acute powers of observation; there could be no more living transcripts from life than these brief memoranda of dying men and boys, their faces and words, and the way they met death. They are inexpressibly painful; but so clear, so naked a laying bare of the horror of war, has its own definite value. Mr. Kennan's description of the Tomsk forwarding prison is also a very painful picture of misery; and, in view of what he draws from his own observation and official reports, his criticism of Mr. Lansdell's light-hearted account of these matters is a crushing rejoinder. The remainder of the number is rich in excellent articles; Mr. Roosevelt's "Frontier Types," the review of McClellan's military operations in the Lincoln biography, and the account of the dynamite gun, being the more noteworthy.

—"John Wise, the Forgotten American," is the title of the opening paper, by the Rev. J. H. Crooker, in the September number of the *Magazine of Western History*. Very few persons have ever heard the name of John Wise: it will be found in Drake's 'Dictionary of American Biography,' but it is not contained in 'Appleton's Cyclopædia,' it is not mentioned by Duyckinck, Griswold, Frothingham, or even by Mr. Ellis in the 'Narrative and Critical History'; but Prof. Tyler tells us that he "was the most powerful and brilliant prose writer produced in this country during the colonial times," and his gravestone at Essex, Mass., calls him "a star of the first magnitude." He has also received worthy tributes from Dr. J. S. Clark and Dr. Dexter, and Mr. Crooker's article aims, in a more popular presentation, to set forth the two particulars in which the work of the Essex pastor was of de-

cisive and critical importance to the American people. In heading the resistance to the tyranny of Andros, for which he was imprisoned and fined, he first proclaimed the doctrine of no taxation without representation; and a few years later, in resisting the centralizing scheme of the Mathers, he triumphantly vindicated the congregational polity of the New England churches. His 'Vindication of the Government of New England Churches,' published in 1717, contains his matured thoughts upon the subject of church polity, and also that "remarkable exposition of the principles of civil government which made it the text-book of liberty for our Revolutionary fathers." In 1772 this book was reprinted, as an agency in the controversies of the times; and the sale of two editions of a thousand copies each "is one of the most remarkable events in the whole history of the American book-trade." Among the subscribers to the second edition were Samuel Eliot, Nathaniel Appleton, John Scollay, William and Thomas Dawes, Artemas Ward, Rev. Edward Emerson of Concord (who took twenty-four copies), and Timothy Pickering. In the same number of this magazine Mr. George W. Julian calls attention to a wilful passage in Mr. Blaine's 'Twenty Years of Congress,' in which the Republican leaders in Congress are severely censured for organizing the Territories of Colorado and Nevada in 1861 without insisting on the Wilmot Proviso. This might pass, for Mr. Julian admits that he cannot himself defend the concession to the peace panic of the hour (the last months of Buchanan's administration). But Mr. Blaine absurdly uses the incident as a pretext for whitewashing Webster's delinquency in the case of New Mexico in 1850, and for this he is rightly scored by his former political associate. Mr. Julian objects to Blaine's commendation of the Missouri Compromise as "wise and patriotic," and says with truth that "there is no conclusive evidence that his [Blaine's] devotion to the colored race rests upon any inwrought principle or real sympathy."

—In his opening address as President of the Library Association of the United Kingdom, Professor Dickson of Glasgow University made some very pertinent remarks concerning the trouble cataloguers experience in finding the full names of authors, which librarians would like to have copied as widely as possible. He said:

"Another grievance is, that, when we have got our author's name, we have too often but half got it. Why should a man hesitate to give his name in full, or at least—what is most important for our purpose—his Christian name, so that he may at once be assigned to his proper place in the catalogue? Why should librarians, in these days of abounding work, have the trouble of searching army lists, or college calendars, clerical or medical directories, the pages of Lorenz or Kayser, to find out what might be so easily given at first hand? Moreover, why should the half-named author not lay claim in full to the merit of his work, and prevent its being credited to another? And why should he bring ever so many innocents, possessing the same initials, into the counter risk of being credited or discredited with its authorship? There seems no reason why the law of copyright should not require an author to give his name in full. At any rate, the toiling librarian may well ask authors, who have possibly never thought of the matter under this aspect, to facilitate by so simple a process the attribution of the *suum cuique*. Even when we have the name in full, there is difficulty enough in assigning to the owners of the same name through successive generations their respective works, as in the case of the well-known Scotch name of Skinner, where the labors of three generations are accumulated on the head of the venerable grandfather, even in the careful catalogue of the Advocates' Library. Why should our difficulties in this matter be indefinitely multiplied?"

—Speaking of cataloguing, we may say, in continuation of our remarks last week, that the matter of coöperative cataloguing came before the American Library Association in a general discussion of "The Future of Cataloguing," introduced by Mr. Fletcher of the Amherst College Library, who has long been laboring to reduce the cost of cataloguing, always a heavy burden on library funds, by preaching the economy, or indeed the necessity, of working together, In this he has followed the tradition of the Association, and not without practical effect, as shown in the foundation of the Publishing Section and the work that has already been done on the 'Essay Index.' But coöperative cataloguing, like individual cataloguing, is slow in producing visible results. Two other questions were discussed at length—freedom of access to the shelves, and the amount of help which it is right to give to those who are looking up the answers to prize questions. On the first the librarians, though fully alive to the two dangers of theft and of misplacement of books, showed a praiseworthy desire to afford to the public the great convenience of access to the books whenever possible, even at the cost of inconvenience to themselves and of occasional loss. Indeed, both discussions showed the strong desire of the librarians to encourage and facilitate reading and research in every way. There was, perhaps, more difference of opinion on the prize-question matter. At any rate, it was clearly brought out that it is not the business of the librarian to find the *answers* to prize questions: the most he may do is set the inquirer on the right road, and teach him, if he can, how to look up questions himself—a teaching which may have considerable educational value, though we fear such seeds often fall on very stony ground.

PRINCE ADAM CZARTORYSKI.

Memoirs of Prince Adam Czartoryski, and his Correspondence with Alexander I.; with Documents, etc., etc. Edited by Adam Gielgud. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. viii, 336; viii, 367. London: Remington & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1888.

THE actual memoirs of Prince Czartoryski end in 1806, and form but a portion of these volumes, being supplemented by narrative and documents from various sources, mostly unpublished. The editor has done his work acceptably, and has provided it with an index. The publishers furnish good paper and large print, but seem to have no idea of consulting the convenience of readers by using typographical devices for distinguishing the matter of the memoirs from the editor's additions, letters, documents, and the like. With the exception of extracts from an article of Leigh Hunt's, everything is in one uniform type, which, in the absence of marginal references, makes a confusing medley of various kinds of matter.

Prince Adam Czartoryski was born in 1770 and died in 1861. It may be said that the whole of his long life was ardently devoted to his unfortunate country, and that, if he committed any errors, it was his judgment that was at fault and not his patriotism. He belonged to a family of the highest Polish aristocracy, and his father, Adam Casimir, would have been elected King of Poland in 1764 if Catharine II. had not given her preference to his kinsman, Poniatowski. Aside from their high rank, the Czartoryskis were men of great distinction of character, and always wielded their influence for what they honestly believed to be the truest interests of Poland. Even Carlyle, who cannot find words strong enough to express his withering contempt for every "Polack," accords them the negative honor of mentioning their names several times (in his 'Frederick') without once labelling them with a vituperative epithet.

Prince Adam was educated at home, under private tutors. At the age of sixteen he went, with his tutor, on his first journey abroad, and three years later visited Paris and London with his mother, remaining some time in England, where he made a very favorable impression. In 1791 he entered the army, and in the following year took part in a campaign against Russia. After the insurrection of Kosciusko was suppressed, the estates of the Czartoryski family were confiscated. The Emperor Francis of Austria interceded with Catharine II. to cancel the confiscation, but the Empress required, before entering on any negotiations, that Prince Adam and his brother Constantine should go to St. Petersburg and enter the Russian service. After much deliberation, the family accepted the condition, and in May, 1795, the two young men arrived in St. Petersburg. It was a bitter sacrifice for them, for they had been bred to cherish a passionate love of their country, and an equally passionate hatred for her oppressors. Their reception by the brilliant society of the Russian capital was cordial in the extreme, and "by degrees," says Prince Adam,

"we came to the conviction that these Russians, whom we had instinctively learned to hate—whom we indiscriminately classed as malignant and sanguinary beings, with whom we were to avoid every contact, and whom we could not even meet without disgust—that these Russians were much like other people; that there were among them young men who were witty and courteous, and even kind, so far at least as could be judged from their words; that Russian ladies were very amiable; that, in a word, one could live among Russians without repulsion, and even sometimes feel obliged to give them one's friendship and gratitude."

Russian society was but a reflection of the court. Everything that was said or done had reference to the court, and every important impulse came from the court. The Empress Catharine, in spite of her vices and excesses, commanded the veneration, and even the love, of her subjects. Carlyle calls her "a kind of she Louis Quatorze"; and, in like manner, Czartoryski says that "the idolatry of the inhabitants of St. Petersburg for their female Jupiter was in some sort a reproduction of the adoration of Louis XIV." He also finds "an analogy between the court of the Empress Catharine and that of Louis XIV. in so far that his mistresses played exactly the same part at Versailles as her favorites did at St. Petersburg." The most powerful of them at this time was Plato Zuboff, and to him the young princes had to go first in their effort to have the estates of their father restored. Every day at eleven o'clock Zuboff held a literal levee, and an immense crowd of petitioners and courtiers of all ranks assisted at his toilet. "It seemed almost impossible," says the author, "to be humiliated on finding one's self in a crowd composed of the first dignitaries of the Empire, men of the most illustrious names, and generals in command of our provinces, . . . who, after coming in all humility to bow their heads before the favorite, either went away without obtaining a look from him, or stood waiting like messengers while he changed his dress reclining on a sofa." None of them dared to speak or to be seated.

After spending several months in dancing attendance on influential persons, the two brothers were informed that they were to be presented to the Empress at Tsarskoe-Selo, her

summer residence. They went for instructions to General Branicki, who was in high favor. When they asked him whether they were to kiss the Empress's hand, he replied: "Kiss her where she likes, so long as she gives you back your fortune." He also showed them how to bend the knee. Their reception was a gracious one, and not long after they were appointed officers of Catharine's guard, and were presented with the fortune which had been taken from their father, to whom they returned it by giving him full power to dispose of it. A further appointment as Gentlemen of the Chamber brought the Polish princes into close contact with the Grand-Dukes, the grandsons of Catharine, and led to the lifelong intimacy between Czartoryski and Alexander, who was then but eighteen years old, while his wife was sixteen. Alexander's brother Constantine had just been married, at the age of seventeen, to a princess of Saxe-Coburg.

Prince Adam relates his conversations with the future Emperor. He was deeply moved and surprised that a Russian heir to the throne should entertain sentiments so liberal, humane, and just, and should rejoice at the establishment of the French Republic and wish it success. The attachment thus inspired survived the many disappointments and disillusions of thirty years, and led to important results. Catharine's approval of the intimacy tended to cement it by closing the mouths of objectors. The death of Catharine and the accession of Paul, in 1796, did not interrupt these relations, which were rather confirmed by the appointment of Czartoryski to be aide-de-camp to Alexander. The five years that Paul was suffered to remain on the throne were, in one sense, a reign of terror to his officials and to himself. But the fear which he inspired had some salutary effects. The governors of provinces, being in constant fear of sudden dismissal if any of their abuses were reported to the Emperor, paid more attention to their duties, and in Poland there were fewer acts of oppression and injustice than at any other period of foreign rule. The political opinions of Alexander had so far undergone no change, and, as Czartoryski had obtained a three months' leave of absence to visit his parents, Alexander insisted that before his friend departed he should draft a proclamation to be used during his absence, in case the Grand Duke should be called to the throne during that interval. This proclamation breathed a spirit of liberty and justice, and declared an intention to abdicate after the introduction of the necessary reforms.

In 1798 Paul sent Czartoryski as Minister to the Court of Sardinia, which appointment the latter describes as a disgrace in the guise of a favor. The duties of the Russian Minister at the Court of King Emmanuel were not very arduous, and consisted chiefly in inspiring the King with courage, by assuring him of the friendship of the Emperor Paul, and in sending monthly reports to the Cabinet at St. Petersburg. The only other member of the diplomatic body was Mr. Wyndham. He and Czartoryski used to go to the King's residence every Sunday and holiday. The so-called Minister of Foreign Affairs presented them to the King and Queen; the conversation turned on insignificant subjects, and lasted about twenty minutes. After some jocular remarks, the King would dismiss them, sometimes imitating, in a very comic way, the person of whom he had been speaking. The perambulating court was at this time in Florence, but as soon as news was received of the crossing of the Alps by Napoleon, and of the battle of Marengo, a hasty departure was taken for Rome. From Rome Czartoryski was ordered to Naples, but was recalled home in March, 1801, immediately after the assassination of Paul and the accession of Alexander.

The liberal sentiments of the latter suffered no change when he ascended the throne, but were directed to practical matters, such as reforms in the administration of justice and the establishment of liberal institutions. He surrounded himself with a secret council, composed of young men who sympathized with his views, and of whom Czartoryski was perhaps the most important, and all of whom presently rose to high office. Two or three times a week this secret council met the Emperor to discuss various plans of reform, but for a long time without practical results. In 1802 Czartoryski, the only member of the secret council who had not as yet been appointed to office, was prevailed upon to accept the post of Assistant Minister of Foreign Affairs, making the express condition, however, that he should be allowed to resign the appointment whenever its functions became incompatible with his feelings as a Pole. He was also intrusted with the direction of the schools in Russian Poland, and appointed Curator of the University of Wilna. He attended all the conferences with the Foreign Ministers, and drew up all protocols, despatches, and rescripts. He sometimes wrote incessantly for eight or nine hours at a time. In 1804 he was appointed full Minister of Foreign Affairs, his predecessor in office retiring through ill-health, and urging him to accept the place.

He took office with a project to make the Russian Emperor a sort of arbiter of peace for the civilized world and a protector of the weak and oppressed, so that his reign should inaugurate a new era of justice and right in European politics. In order to reduce this idea to a practical form, he drew up a scheme of policy, which he sent to all the Russian representatives at foreign courts. As long as he remained in office he attempted to direct the course of Russian policy in accordance with such principles, which just fell in with the mood in which Alexander then was, but which could not be carried out without leading to a rupture with France. The immediate occasion of the rupture was the execution of the Duc d'Enghien, which, by the way, was the act that Talleyrand pronounced, in his oft-quoted epigram, to be worse than a crime, in that it was a blunder. This event took place March 20, 1804. France and Russia had been at peace since October, 1801. Czartoryski drew up a note, which was sent to the French Ministry through the Russian chargé d'affaires in Paris, protesting against the deed, and demanding an explanation. The reply of France was harsh and insulting. The diplomatic rupture which ensued was a novel one as to its motive. The Cabinet of St. Petersburg had no direct grievance of its own, but was simply moved to resent a violation of international law. Another anomaly was that the state of things produced was not war, but only a suspension of friendly relations. None of the other powers followed the example of Russia, but in the following year the coalition between Russia and England against Napoleon was formed, and was joined by Austria and Sweden.

The secret instructions given to the special Russian envoy sent to England to negotiate a basis of operations against Napoleon, are remarkable for their liberality and breadth of view. It is suggested that the two powers, while restoring the King of Sardinia to the throne, would be justified in urging him to give his people a free and wise constitution; Switzerland should be given a government based on local requirements and the wishes of the people; the same principle should guide with regard to Holland. Everywhere public institutions should be founded on the sacred rights of humanity and on the spirit of wisdom and benevolence. Such phrases as the following are not what one looks for from the Autocrat of all the Russias, and it may be assumed that the sentiments as well as the language belong to Czartoryski rather than to Alexander, although, perhaps, for the moment, shared by the latter:

"It is in tearing off the masks worn by governments which, for their private objects, alternately have recourse to despotism and to anarchy, carefully separating their interests from those of the people over whom they tyrannize, that we may hope for the sincere assistance of the latter, and produce a general enthusiasm for the good cause whose results would be incalculable. . . . The object would be, first, to attach nations to their governments, by making it only possible for the latter to act for the benefit of their subjects. . . . When peace is made, a new treaty should be drawn up; . . . such a treaty might secure the privileges of neutrality, bind the powers who take part in it never to begin a war until after exhausting every means of mediation by a third power, and lay down a sort of new code of international law, which, being sanctioned by the greater part of the European states, would, if violated by any of them, bind the others to turn against the offender and make good the evil he has committed."

In September, 1805, Alexander sent a second special envoy to England, to obtain her consent to the cession of Hanover to Prussia, which the latter power asked as the price of her coöperation against France. This consent was flatly refused, and some interesting conversations between Pitt and the Russian Ambassador in London are here reported. "All the subsidies," said Pitt, "that Prussia asks for herself, for Saxony, for Hesse, and for the Duke of Brunswick, will be given; we shall be delighted to agree to any other indemnity that Prussia may wish to have: but as for the exchange of Hanover, no Minister would be imprudent enough to make such a proposal to the King, and great care will be taken always to conceal it from him." In a later conversation, Pitt said that the proposal to give up Hanover would either kill George III. or drive him mad, "and that, after losing a sovereign so much esteemed and cherished, the country would no longer consent to bear the enormous sacrifices of money it was making for Continental wars. To provoke so fatal a crisis as the death or insanity of the King would therefore be most ruinous to the interests of Europe." Three months later, after the battle of Austerlitz, Hanover was ceded to Prussia by France, as a bribe for having remained neutral.

In June, 1806, Prince Czartoryski resigned his post as Minister of Foreign Affairs. He had previously addressed to the Emperor several very frank remonstrances on the latter's policy. In addition to the reasons for retiring from office which he therein stated, he had one other very potent one, which he could not state with propriety. The hopes of the Poles had been raised by Napoleon, and it was expected that the latter would strive to give them support against Russia by promising to restore their independence; in that case, Prince Adam could not continue to direct the policy of a state with which his countrymen were at war. But although he had ceased to be Minister, the Prince continued for many years an esteemed counsellor of the Emperor, and used his influence constantly in favor of a reconstruction of Poland. He was present at the negotiations for the Peace of Tilsit (in 1807), when the Duchy of Warsaw was created and placed under the

rule of the King of Saxony; and at the Congress of Vienna, in October, 1814, he played so prominent a part that Lord Castlereagh wrote to Lord Liverpool that the Prince, "although not in any official situation, now appears the actual Russian Minister, at least on Polish and Saxon questions." For more than a year prior to this date his private secretary had been in England trying to enlist public opinion in favor of Poland, and had succeeded in warmly interesting Brougham, who wrote a pamphlet on behalf of Poland, and used his influence in the press and otherwise for the cause.

Space fails us to follow the Prince through all the disappointments which his patriotic hopes were doomed to endure. In 1823 he resigned his post of Curator of the Wilna University, in consequence of the atrocious persecution of the students by the Russian authorities. Two years later, Alexander I. died, and was succeeded by Nicholas. In 1830 Poland revolted, and Prince Czartoryski was elected President. In the war with Russia which ensued, he enlisted as a private soldier, at the age of sixty. After the collapse of the revolution, he proceeded to London. He survived for thirty years, most of which were spent in Paris, and continued to watch for opportunities to aid his country. Perhaps the last service he was able to render it was just prior to and during the Crimean war, when he gave valuable advice to Napoleon III., and, although more than eighty-three years of age, showed a remarkable ability in entering into detail and an extraordinary memory. He died November 15, 1861, and cherished to the last his hopes of his country's resurrection.

MORE NOVELS.

Eugenia; A Friend's Victim. By Alten Hurlba (W. P. H.) Welles Publishing Co.

A Counsel of Perfection. By Lucas Malet. D. Appleton & Co.

In Hot Haste. By Mary E. Hullah. Henry Holt & Co.

Fraternity: A Romance. Macmillan & Co.

A Pure-Souled Liar. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co

Pictures of Hellas. By Peder Mariager. Translated from the Danish by Mary J. Safford. Wm. S. Gottsberger.

The History of Nicolas Muss. Translated from the French of Charles Du Bois-Melly. Harper & Bros.

'EUGENIA; A Friend's Victim,' is a peculiarly nonsensical story of hypnotism told in bad English and rank style. The elaborated but wholly superfluous horrors and mysteries stand in gory masses quite detached from any possible connection with any supposed construction. It might be the work of a schoolboy who had fed and battened upon Conway and Haggard. It is inscribed to "my tried and trusted friend Mr. Frederick Peakes," to whom we extend sincere sympathy, regarding him (and supposing that he must regard himself) as cast for the title-rôle.

'A Counsel of Perfection' is a refreshing novel of a merit quite above the average. There is a grace and delicacy in the style and in the air of the story which recalls that happy hour when was made the acquaintance of Miss Thackeray's 'Story of Elizabeth.' The resemblance ends with these traits, for in the unwilling cynicism of the present volume are touches which recall the elder rather than the younger Thackeray. The characters in 'A Counsel of Perfection' are few, but of a distinctness which never hardens into exaggeration, and shows the work of the artist no less than of the writer. Dr. Casteen, locked up in his church heresies, and living to-day not later than the year 316, is a pendant portrait to the immortal Casaubon. The spinster Lydia, with her child's heart and her lion's courage, is a study of life between youth and middle age which we do not remember to have seen so well done—with so fine heed to the young and warm impulses of such a character and its old and cold judgments, and at the same time with such entire avoidance of caricature. Mr. Denison, aptly described as "one-fourth angel and three-fourths unmitigated bore," and his worldly, shrewd, brainless wife, are admirably clear personalities. Antony Hammond, the apostle of the smooth and comfortable for others as well as for himself, made up of many complex but shallow currents, kind and shifty, is excellently adapted to the post assigned him of modernizing the shrinking Lydia, and bringing the shadows into the story by his fatal inability to stand out of the sunshine. The balance is harmoniously held between the light and the serious both as to places and persons. Dr. Casteen's dim study, the sparkling air of Switzerland, the mossy churchyard of Bishop's Marston, each lends itself in turn finely to the writer's deeper use. The wit that plays through the book keeps the atmosphere free from miasma, and if it does pitilessly light up some ugly troubles that beset humanity, it also brings into cheerful clearness the philosophy which can outlive and live down worse woes than Lydia Casteen's.

That portion of the public which must have a periodically recurring story of a German baronial estate, a golden-haired maiden, a dragon cousin, a Caliban of a lover who is at the last disclosed as a Lord Orville of a husband, may gratify its longing by reading 'In Hot Haste,' unless, indeed, another perusal of its thumbed 'Gold Elsie' or its dog-eared 'Old Mam'selle's Secret' is more convenient, in which case it would not be repaid for any considerable trouble by noteworthy novelties in this later story. To such readers may be left the exquisite bliss of the accustomed. To those whose leisure hours may not be so many, it can do no harm to hint that the baronial estates are always saved from the interloping Jew, that the beardless and unknown hero of the first chapter always turns out to be the bearded conqueror of the last; that the blue-eyed maiden always survives the cruel treatment she receives as governess in the English family; and that Caliban always casts off his superfluous austerities and shows his lamb's nature in the end.

'Fraternity' is truly named "A Romance," but not because its incidents are excessively marvellous, as works of fiction go. Compared with those of many novels, they are every-day matters, though displaying a due share of lost children, lost parents, lost property, and similar stock in trade of the story-teller. The romance lies in the atmosphere of the book, rarefied by the permeating idea of the Fraternity of Man, not as a theory, but a practice. Equality is distinctly denounced as being against reason, the mere trial of it leading to "terrible and futile" ends; but a generous fraternity reducing all "*hurtful* inequality" is the author's remedy for social ills. This theory leads to some apotheosizing of begging as a boon to the giver, which in a romance perhaps finds a natural home. The doctrine of Fraternal Socialism will seem more pointedly put when some author shall be consistent enough not to make all his high-souled paupers turn out to be eldest sons of old families, and his renunciatory young ladies of rank unconsciously marry money. That Edward Haig proves to be a scion of an ancient Welsh family is clearly, in the author's mind, as triumphant a badge of superiority as ever was strawberry-mark upon the arm of rightful prince. We beg to plead with our writer, in the words of his compatriot, Captain Fluellen: "Peradventure, I shall think you do not use me with that affability as in discretion you ought to use me, look you; being as goot a man as yourself, both in the disciplines of wars and in the derivation of my birth and in other particularities."

But with these strictures our grudge against the book ends. It is cause of thankfulness that stories are written in the generous and high-minded tone of this one. The too wild Celtic strain brings compensation in fresh pictures of Welsh scenery, Welsh patriotism, and Welsh home life. The hero will be dear to all who like Kenelm Chillingly and Daniel Deronda, who know that such men do not exist, but who wish they did. Further, it must always be refreshing to pass an hour among ideals, temporarily removed from bread and butter, with men and with women who are not afraid to borrow each other's best qualities, and who, while living by the highest standards, are not perpetually enforcing the right by dwelling upon the wrong.

For such crystalline work one feels renewed gratitude on plunging into the muddy depths of 'A Pure-Souled Liar.' The Liar's declaration in her last moments, of her belief that the true is better than the beautiful, is intended presumably to be the culmination of the book's teaching. Even this white-shining sentiment, however, does not justify the pages which lead to it. Whether they sin more against truth or against beauty might be a question, if it were worth while to add a moment to the noisome hour wasted in their perusal.

The Greek in the soul may be pleasantly fed by reading 'Pictures of Hellas,' differing from the greater number of recent stories of which the scene is laid on classic soil, by antedating them. These offer a nearly unused and a wholly inspiring point of view. One tale goes back to the Pelasgian period, the author himself admitting that little is known of that time, but building upon a single historic fact and the ancient idea of the voice of Fate an impressive and living tale. The scenes of others are laid in Athens, on the Ægean Sea, and in Thessaly, and all are full of color and motion, and leave the reader steeped in the spirit of the times of "the flowering of Hellas," whether under the sky, or in caves of Hymettus, or beneath Athenian porticoes, or in the dwellings of fair Attic maidens.

The 'History of Nicolas Muss' purports to be the account given by a household servitor of Admiral Coligny of the "vigil, feast, and octave of the Saint-Barthélemy of that year, 1572." The bare historic facts connected with these terrible days are so dramatic that dressing them out in story form comes dangerously near an impertinence, and certainly can hardly add to their novelty or interest. M. Du Bois-Melly, however, has escaped the danger as far as is possible by his quaintly worded narrative—well translated into fittingly antiquated English—and there is no doubt that the autobiographic form has a vitality for many minds impervious to the charms of a plain historical recital. The little book, then, will deservedly find a welcome from such readers as like their history sugar-coated and spiced with gossip. The notes, which add to the value of the book, might have been fused with the text in many cases, and so have made a more homogeneous narrative.

GERMAN LITERARY USAGE.

Sprachgebrauch und Sprachrichtigkeit im Deutschen. Von Karl Gustaf Andresen. Fünfte Auflage. Heilbronn: Gebrüder Henninger. 1887.

RECENT years have been fertile in books that aim in their several ways at the purification of the German language and the improvement of German style. Thus we have the well-known 'Wörterbuch der Hauptschwierigkeiten' and the more recent 'Stil-Musterbuch' of Dr. Daniel Sanders, the useful 'Antibarbarus' of Keller, and various other works that might be mentioned. But among all these treatises Andresen's is easily best, whether for the German writer who needs a practical handbook for his own guidance or for the foreign student who may occasionally wish to know how the case stands between the prescriptions of theory on the one hand and the facts of practice on the other. For the fifth edition the work before us has been thoroughly revised, and also reprinted with a smaller page. It is now a handy volume of just 400 pages, exclusive of the long and indispensable index.

In a brief introduction the author defines his position with regard to the nature and competence of grammatical authority. With Horace, he holds that usage must be the final arbiter; if a locution is once firmly established and generally accepted, it is a part of the language, no matter how illogical or ungrammatical it may appear to be. But when is a usage firmly established? How many and what kind of speakers and writers are necessary to accredit it properly? Everybody knows that a particular habit of speech may be at the outset simply the result of ignorance or carelessness or affectation. In such case the new locution always has to make its way, if it makes its way at all, at the expense of something better. Now, here, as Andresen very properly holds, is the right place for the counsels and the remonstrances of the grammarian. While usage is still conflicting, or not yet general, the theorist may and should make himself heard for the furtherance of what is good and the banishment of what is bad from the theoretical point of view. Our author's method is to take up by topics the disputed points of German usage, state and comment upon the rule of the textbooks, and then indicate by means of illustrative quotations how the rule actually fares at the hands of the German people and their representative writers. These quotations are the most valuable part of the book; they are culled from a variety of different authors and newspapers; the names of Goethe, Jacob Grimm, and the Cologne *Gazette* being of the most frequent occurrence.

On the subject of spelling-reform Andresen would go further than the new Prussian rules go, but would stop short of a purely phonetic system. He is of those who hold that one of the functions of orthography is to preserve a record of facts in the history of speech. He likes neither the German print nor the practice of using initial capitals for substantives, but appears to think the cause of reform hopeless—the abandonment of the capital initials even more hopeless than the general introduction of the Latin print. As between "reines Herzens" and "reinen Herzens" our author recommends the former. The weight of contemporary usage seems to be in favor of the weak inflection "reinen." Grimm advocated and used the strong form. Goethe's practice wavers, but, upon the whole, favors the weak form. Here we have to do with a modern innovation (the weak inflection is not found in Luther) which came in originally in defiance of grammar, and is now engaged in a conflict with the older locution. In such a case, argues Andresen, one who wishes to follow the best counsel will do well to take sides with what is historically correct. But this argument, we must observe, loses much of its force unless it is shown that the innovation itself was at the outset fortuitous. If there was a reason behind it—if, for example, it was the result of phonetic analogy, or if it was due to a desire to avoid a succession of sibilant endings—then we have to do with a new "law" crossing the old one and modifying its action, under particular circumstances. In that event, it would be difficult to see why we should be called on to reprobate "reinen Herzens" on historical grounds, unless we were also prepared to reprobate the cause which produced that form from the older one. If this were not so, we could have no peace until we had restored all the grammatical apparatus that ever belonged to our language. To our thinking, it is with the parvenus of language as with other parvenus: when they have been long with us and have acquired a standing in the community, there is nothing for it but to take them on their own merits without inquiring too narrowly into the length of their pedigree. It is only the fresh parvenu, with the marks of a base origin still upon him, that criticism can hope to make any impression upon.

As between "mit gutem rothem Weine" and "mit gutem rothen Weine," our author holds that it is not necessary to decide, since the phrases have different meanings; the latter being equivalent to "mit gutem Rothweine,' whereas the former brings the color into prominence. Our own observation indicates, however, that locutions like "mit langem weissen Bart" are growing in favor even for cases where it cannot be said that the second adjective is, after a fashion, taken for granted, or forms a compound idea with its substantive. Against the growing use of such superlatives as "hochverehrtest," "tieffühlendst," Andresen enters his protest. Probably, the protest will be ineffective in spite of its obvious propriety; at any rate, we find one of his German critics disagreeing with him, and urging that there is a valuable difference between "die hochgestelltesten" and "die höchstgestellten Männer."

Since the days of Adelung the grammatical authorities have, as a rule, counselled against the use of the neuter "es" with a preposition, advocating for example, "dafür" or "für dasselbe" instead of "für es." Andresen repudiates this doctrine, and commends the Cologne *Gazette* for writing: "Das eine der beiden Kinder war von einer Thür, die *über es* gestürzt war, das andere durch einen *auf es* gefallenen Stuhl, beschädigt worden." In the present conjugation of verbs like "blasen," "essen," "dreschen," Andresen recommends the long forms "du bläsest," "issest," "drischest," although usage is all but overwhelmingly in favor of "bläst," "isst," "drischt." On page 76 we find a reference to "the six verbs which exhibit *Rückumlaut* in the preterite," although the best authorities are now telling us that there is not and never was any such thing as *Rückumlaut*. The now very common locution "ich anerkenne" for "ich erkenne an" is objected to by our author, and in this connection the remark is made that usage sanctions neither "er aufersteht" nor "er ersteht auf"; whence the conclusion is inevitable that this verb is not available to express the thought, "he rises from the dead."

Highly interesting are the pages upon the use of illogical or elliptical modifiers, as in "reitende Post," "schwindelnde Höhe," "knieende Bitte," etc. Expressions of this kind were objected to by Adelung, but very many of them are now in use, and Andresen sees no objection to them, although for Goethe's "blasende Instrumente" he thinks it better to say "Blasinstrumente," and for "fallende Sucht" (compare our *falling-sickness*), "Fallsucht." The multiplication of such expressions in modern German may be in a measure due to French phrases like *café chantant*, or to the misunderstood analogy of English *writing-table* and the like. At any rate, they have now become so numerous that Andresen is willing to defend the fish-dealer's advertisment: "Lebende Ankunft wird garantirt." As regards this last phrase, it may be noticed that while in English we might get along with "Live delivery guaranteed," we could hardly tolerate the substitution of "living" for "live." So, too, though we speak of a "dizzy height," we have no provision for a "shuddering height." In general it may be said that the tendency to make an adjective do duty for a phrase or a sentence is more marked in German than in either English or French. We often hear "English lessons" and "Italian tour," but recognize "lessons in English" and "tour in Italy" as better. So in French, but in German "englische Stunden" and "italienische Reise" are almost the rule. Andresen is even able to quote from the *Kreuz-Zeitung* an advertisement in which a noble lady deplores the death of her "unvergesslichen, *langen* Ehemannes," the adjective being intended to signify that the deceased had *long* been her husband.

On the fruitful subject of long and complicated sentences, Andresen has some remarks for which, were there hope that they might do any good, the civilized world should be grateful to him. His collection of syntactical monstrosities on page 319 ff. is one of the most entertaining and at the same time appalling that we have encountered. This familiar vice of German style is analyzed by Andresen, and ascribed to a desire on the part of writers to crowd into the compass of a single sentence, not only an essential thought, but also everything that happens to come into the mind as connected, directly or indirectly, with the thought. To turn off good periods that are at the same time long and involved, is no doubt possible in any language, but to do it requires care, patience, and skill. Unless a writer has a genius for style, his attempt to exhaust all the incidental implications of his thought as he passes by, is more likely to bewilder and repel his reader than to edify him, or to impress him with the mental acumen displayed. Some of the sentences quoted by Andresen have reminded us of the movements of an untrained cur in pursuit of large game: the animal cannot content himself to follow the main scent, but continually scurries off into the bushes upon every rabbit-track that crosses his path, and then, with endless snuffing at this and that, zigzags his way back as best he can to the course he ought never to have abandoned. A single example from the Cologne *Gazette* may serve to point our moral and conclude our notice:

"Wie bekannt, hatte Herr Appellationsgerichtsrat Rottels auf Grund der über die wegen ihres Widerstands gegen die jüngsten vatikanischen Beschlüsse ausgesprochenen Excommunication gegen die Forderung fernerer Steuern Seitens der Kirchenbehörde den Rechtsweg beschritten und das hiesige Friedensgericht No. 2, in welchem der trotz seiner Excommunication Besteuerte die die Execution betreibende Stadtgemeinde verklagte, zu Gunsten desselben entschieden und das Stadtverordnetencollegium sich hierbei ohne Appellation beruhigt, weil die Sache nur die betreffende Pfarrgemeinde, nicht aber die Stadtgemeinde angehe."

Poetry, Comedy, and Duty. By C. C. Everett, D.D. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888.

THE analysis of the æsthetic and ethical elements in the mind is one of the most interesting subjects of philosophy. It is also one that is so fruitful in absurdities as to make it a great pleasure to meet with a book such as this of Prof. Everett's, in which the whole matter is treated lucidly and with a certain unity running through it. Little claim for real originality would be made for the substance of the volume, although the author's mind plays freely about the material which his scholarship has provided him with: he acknowledges that portions of what he affirms are drawn from Hegel, and he refers other parts of the truth to Schopenhauer; but he has framed his thoughts, however derived, into a consistent and intelligible whole. He takes the idealistic point of view, finds beauty to be an object of contemplation, poetry to be a representative art, with the ideal for its subject. In ethics, similarly, from motives of love and honor and under an obligation of obscure and blended origin, men take that practical attitude towards the ideal which is summed up in the word duty. In the æsthetic branch of the inquiry, the nature of poetry as an art, the poetic aspect of nature, the analysis of tragedy and comedy, are the principal topics, after the subject has been philosophically opened. In these chapters there are criticisms of an acute and thoughtful kind in explanation of those matters which the great masters of formal analysis have advanced, from Aristotle to Kant and Spencer, and it is observable that all are noticed with equal courtesy. Much of the ground is still doubtful. Prof. Everett offers a single suggestion of his own with reference to the fact that incongruities in tragedy give pain and in comedy give amusement: he thinks that the difference lies in this, that the comic incongruities affect only the form, the tragic go further and affect the contents. Comedy passes into tragedy when the results of the action enter into the thought; "nothing is comic to the heart." It is an interesting distinction, and falls in with the logical habits of the author's mind and style.

These matters, however, require too ample illustration in their discussion to be entered upon here. It is necessary only to notice the author's clear and precise method of developing his subject, the absence of all dogmatism and controversy from his manner, the extreme conscientiousness of his thinking, which are distinguishing qualities of his work. Those who are skilled to think and to write like this are few in our day—perhaps because logical discipline is no longer what it was in the old schools.

Books and Men. By Agnes Repplier. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888.

THIS is one of those books by a reader which are often so delightful a resource in leisure hours. The author is also a good writer, with a pleasant rippling style, and occasionally the sparkle of piquancy on the surface—able enough to hold her own with words; but first of all she is a reader, and this small volume of miscellaneous papers is the fruit of her enjoyment of her library. They are seven in number, and range from the ways of children and parents to the character of Claverhouse; but, whatever the subject, superstition or criticism or sentiment or pessimism, the essay has the same sort of interest. There is abundance of anecdote, usually drawn from history or imaginative literature, which gives the reader a comfortable sense of being familiar with a great many more books than he has ever read; and these illustrations are selected with skill and effectively grouped. If the elder Disraeli had been a reviewer of rather unimportant books, we should fancy him writing in such a style, with this blending of illustrations from widely different sources with good taste and excellent sense in the substance of the thought. The author is by no means the slave of her books: she has the freedom of the little literary citadel which is hers; and her remarks are those of an observant and thoughtful mind, not without a disposition to a certain grave humor which flavors the page. Her advice with respect to children's books we have already commended, and the essay now reprinted seems to us the most useful, and in style the brightest, in the small collection.

Perhaps the volume occasionally suffers from the triviality of its subjects, for many themes are glanced at in its pages; and in such parts, as, for example, with Mr. Edgar Fawcett's opinion of critics, the topic is really so slight that no wisdom in the comment can reconcile us to wasting our time over it. It is not every book that can be made an excuse for such literary recreation as this author delights in, not every writer that can be fitly yoked in the same reference: Mr. Saltus and Leopardi, for example, are not twins of the intellect. There is some disproportion in the author's literary perspective. This, nevertheless, is a delightful new form of the miscellaneous article, and within its limits it reaches real excellence both in matter and form. Moreover, beside its seriousness and its touch of humor, it has a very agreeable weakness for the shapes of old romance—giant-killing and hero-worshipping ghosts that never come to the "materializing" point, and other trifles of the imagination. Altogether, the author affords a fine and full expression of what one may call her private literary life.

Elementary Political Economy. By Edwin Cannan, M. A. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1888.

THE difficulty of preparing elementary treatises is generally in an inverse ratio to their size, and this is certainly true of the science of political economy. There are large tracts of debatable ground still to be apportioned and regulated, and some even of the most important definitions are yet unsettled. Under these circumstances, an author may present such doctrines as may be called canonical, omitting controversial matter; or he may adopt the views of a certain writer or school, and call them the science. He cannot, within the limits of an elementary treatise, take up controverted points and state opposing theories. It is necessary, in short, to be guilty both of the sin of omission and of the sin of commission. We cannot praise Mr. Cannan more highly than by saying that his sins of both kinds are on the whole of a venial character, and that his merits are conspicuous. He has a strong grasp of the subject, his style is clear, and his method is sensible. His book is not meant for children—indeed, it frequently taxes the attention of readers well acquainted with the subject; but it is never obscure.

The first part of it is devoted to explaining the causes of the wealth of nations, the second part deals with the causes of the wealth of individuals exclusive of the influence of State action, and the third shows how these causes are modified by such action. The first part is excellent, but the others are more open to criticism. The discussion of value is not satisfactory, perhaps for lack of space to make it so, and there are many statements that are altogether too sweeping. Such are the declarations, that where public criticism is freely allowed, State management is as good as that of large joint-stock enterprises; that no man will be restrained from adding to his income by any increase of income tax; and that in the case of excise duties the remuneration of the producers will be diminished directly by the deduction of the tax from their profits. Why did the distillers during our civil war persuade Congress to increase the tax upon whiskey? But, as we have intimated, the necessity of making unqualified statements is the constitutional weakness of elementary treatises, and this book offends less than most of its class.

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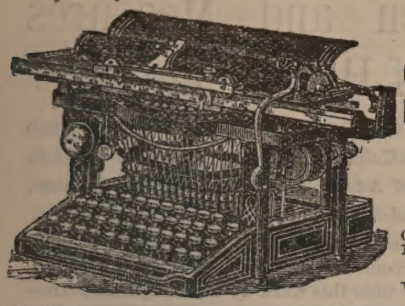

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 18, 1888.

The Week.

SECRETARY FAIRCHILD'S speech at the great meeting in Wall Street on Saturday was one of the pearls of the year's debate. It was temperate and convincing in argument. It dispersed and scattered all the charges brought against his employment of the Treasury surplus. It knocked Mr. Blaine once more "into a cocked hat." It offered a delicate poser to Senator Allison, and wound up finally with a healthy appeal to the self-reliance of the American people. Dealing with the question of "pauper labor," he brought his own former experience as a member and officer of one of our charitable organizations into service to show that we have no need to go to Europe for edification, and that, whatever be the cause of pauperism, it is quite certain that protection does not protect us from it. There was just sufficient admixture of humor in the speech to relieve it from dryness, but not enough to distract attention from the logical sequence of the argument. The Secretary certainly made a hit when he said that if he had known that he should be liable to impeachment in case Mr. Blaine were ignorant of the law, he would never have accepted the office. He made another when he said that if Senator Allison would offer any bonds to the Treasury upon which 2 per cent. interest could be realized, they would be thankfully accepted. In short, the speech was a telling one all the way through. Its statements of fact correspond with what business men already knew. The arguments drawn from the facts correspond equally with the gathering drift of public opinion. In short, the speech has the material for a first-rate campaign document, and we are convinced that it will have a marked effect on the vote of this city and State. If any people have held the notion that Mr. Fairchild is a mere routine officer and calculating machine, without ideas or the power of expressing them, such misconceptions will be pretty generally dispelled.

Mr. Blaine's speech at New Albany, in reply to Secretary Fairchild, was as disreputable and brazen as anything he has uttered in the present campaign. Mr. Fairchild had taken pains to explain why he did not begin to buy bonds at a premium before Congress had interpreted for him the act of 1881, which was supposed to authorize such purchases. He said that he doubted his authority, and that he asked Congress to affirm or construe the act as soon as the session began last December. Doubting his authority, he was compelled to deposit the surplus in the national banks meanwhile. He said also that the condition of things was so strange and anomalous that he could not be satisfied with his own action, whichever course he might take, and that he did not blame others who were not satisfied with it. Now, what does Mr. Blaine say to all this? He ignores it completely and insinuates a falsehood. He says:

"Mr. Fairchild does not frankly and manfully confront the issue. He does not state to the people how the banks could afford to buy Government bonds when the Government itself could not afford it. If it was an advantageous proceeding for these banks to invest $60,000,000 in Government bonds, why was it not still more advantageous for the Government to do it? I press this question upon Mr. Fairchild, for he has not answered why, if the banks could make 2 to 2½ per cent. upon the purchase of United States fours, the Treasury Department could not make as much [cheers], when by doing what the banks did he could have wiped out $60,000,000 of the public debt. I press this question, not only because it is a pertinent question, but it is a question asked by one of Mr. Fairchild's most distinguished predecessors."

The answer to this rigmarole is that the banks bought their bonds and received their deposits *before* Congress relieved the Secretary's doubts as to his legal power to buy bonds at a premium for other purposes than the sinking fund. Why, asks Mr. Blaine, could not the Government afford to pay a premium if the banks could afford it? "I press this question upon Mr. Fairchild," he continues, "for he has not answered why, if the banks could make 2 to 2½ per cent. upon the purchase of United States 4s, the Treasury Department could not make as much." Mr. Fairchild had explained why, with the utmost clearness and fairness. If Mr. Blaine had the Secretary's speech before him when he replied to it, he told a deliberate lie. If he did not have the speech before him, he ought to have known what the explanation was, because it was a matter of general discussion in the newspapers and in Congress for months. Perhaps the Secretary made a mistake in his interpretation of the act of 1881. He admits that he may have erred, and he only asks that the truth should be told about it. But we shall not get that from Mr. Blaine. The Greatest Living Statesman (or Humbug) jumped at a conclusion which was contrary to the facts, as he did in regard to the English savings-bank deposits, and now he finds it necessary to support his false conclusion by fresh falsehoods.

It is evident already to every close observer of the present political campaign that the Republicans have wofully deceived themselves about their main reliance for success, namely, their ability to frighten the working classes by the argument that a reduction of Federal taxes means a reduction of wages—in other words, that American workingmen earn better wages on the average than most European workingmen solely because of our protective duties. It is retributive justice that this failure of a sophistical argument is due to the real cause of the better financial condition of American wage-earners, that is, to their greater intelligence. If the questions which are under discussion in this year's campaign were argued before constituencies of a low order of intelligence, it would be easy to convince them, by the mere statement, that because wages are higher here, and because we have a high tariff, therefore the wages depend on the tariff. To demonstrate the error of this proposition requires an argument which will attract the attention and appeal to the reason only of men who can think for themselves. The tariff reformers hold that the main reason why American workmen get better pay than their European fellow-craftsmen in most branches is because they work with more intelligence, produce better results in a given time, and so are "worth more" to their employers. The Democrats, under President Cleveland's lead, have honored American workingmen by placing faith in their ability to understand the right of this great question, and the early indications from Maine and Newark have proved that they have not overestimated the American workingman's intelligence.

The use of the "pay-envelope," which is intended to express the wish of the employer that his employee shall vote the Republican ticket, if not to threaten him with the loss of employment if he fails to do so, was undoubtedly one of the contributing causes of the Republican defeat in the Newark election. No native-born American citizen, and no foreign-born citizen who has been here long enough to imbibe ideas of independence, likes to be told how he ought to vote by anybody who stands to him in the relation of employer, or creditor, or landlord, or in any relation which carries the suggestion of power and coercion. The first thought conveyed by the pay-envelope is that the employer wants the employee to do something over and above what the contract of employment calls for. There is no other significance to the pay-envelope. If it is merely desired to distribute campaign documents for information and enlightenment of the voters, there are a hundred ways of doing this that would not offend the workingman's sense of political freedom. The post-office is a ready means of conveying such literature. Boys may be employed to hand documents to the men as they come out and go in to their work, or to leave them at their places of residence. The methods of reaching all intelligent voters without putting the imputation of servility upon them are endless. But when a man's wages, fairly earned, are handed to him in a piece of paper stamped with words signifying how he should vote, the suggestion comes to him that his vote and the money are linked together, or that it is desired that they should be. If the amount of the wages is unsatisfactory (and it generally is), the bitterness arising from this fact is apt to be heightened by receiving it in an envelope which calls for a vote in addition to the labor performed. We do not wonder that some of the more independent employees upon whom the pay-envelope has been "worked," have positively refused to

receive their wages in that shape. We think that the Republican managers have considerably undersized the manhood of the American workingman in this instance, and that they will be unpleasantly reminded of their mistake on election day.

An excellent feature of the New Jersey election this year is the fact that there will be no chance for the defeated party to cry fraud over the returns from Jersey City and Newark, as the Republicans have so often done in the past. The new election law compels every voter in those cities to register in person, and requires the polls to close at sunset. The Philadelphia *Press* the other day said of this law that "it will cut off from 1,500 to 2,000 of the Democratic votes that have heretofore been fraudulently cast in Hudson County, and probably a proportionate number in Newark," which returns nearly as large a poll as all Hudson County. The result of last week's election in Newark, however, would indicate that the Republicans have greatly exaggerated the amount of fraudulent voting in these quarters. It is universally conceded that no frauds were perpetrated this year, and yet the vote shows a great increase over the corresponding election of four years ago. The same candidates headed the respective tickets in the two years, and their votes compare as follows:

	1884.	1888.
Peddie, Rep.	13,511	13,851
Richmond, Dem.	11,892	14,556

It will be seen that the total vote not only shows no falling off, from the absence of fraud or any other cause, but that, on the contrary, there is an increase of 3,004, of which 2,664 was secured by the Democrats. Newark, by the way, ranked ninth among the manufacturing cities of the country, according to the last census.

The issue of the forged quotations from the English press by the Republican clubs and committees continues with unabated vigor. They are sent to us every day in bundles, by persons to whom they have been forwarded, or who have procured them at the rooms. We should be ashamed to call attention to them so often if it were not that they are the chief feature of the Republican campaign literature, showing that more reliance is placed on them than on anything else to influence the working-class voters. We have endeavored, whenever it was possible, to bring home the responsibility for their issue to individuals, so as to appeal to the individual conscience or sense of shame, but with only indifferent success. In fact, the eagerness with which respectable men, in good business and social standing, partners in large houses, and members of churches, set them afloat, is a curious phenomenon, but not more curious than the silence of the ministers and other moralists who are going to vote the Republican ticket. From not one of these latter, so far as we know, except Mr. Joseph H. Walker of Worcester, Mass., has there come one word of protest against this shocking exhibition of party decadence and immorality. The *Evening Post* sent a reporter to call the attention of Mr. John F. Plummer of the house of John F. Plummer & Co., of 345 Broadway, and the attention of Mr. W. B. Fuller of the house of H. B. Claflin & Co., President and Vice-President respectively of the Harrison and Morton Dry Goods Club, to the fact that the club was issuing forged quotations in great quantities, and to ask them what they thought about it. Both these gentlemen absolutely declined to say a word on the subject, and one was rather abusive. Shame or regret they did not seem to feel in the least, although were they to issue these forgeries in the course of their business, for the purpose of procuring the smallest sum of money or thing of value, they would both be sent to the penitentiary, amidst general approval. Now, how is it that such men as these think nothing of forgery, with the view of deceiving poor voters on what ought to be the most solemn duty of their year, while they would not for worlds use forgery to make a thousand dollars? We commend this question to the earnest attention of their pastors.

The First Ward Republican Club, No. 5 Broadway, issued on Thursday, and presumably had been issuing previously, a bundle of campaign documents, containing not only the various forged quotations from English papers, but the *Emancipator*, a weekly containing one or two illustrations, of which the "Editor and Proprietor" is "Prof. R. C. Mezzeroff." Mezzeroff is, we believe, a Russian by birth, and has been long notorious in this city as an Anarchist of the Donovan Rossa type. But he is a man of much more education than Donovan, and actually opened a school here to teach the nature and use of dynamite as a weapon of political warfare, and in fact proclaimed himself the author of a plan by which he could destroy a city like London in a very few minutes. He is, indeed, a more dangerous wretch by far than John Most. That he is now a furious Protectionist was to be expected, but that he should be the friend, and ally, and probably paid agent of the Republican party, is something which we did not expect; for is it not a party with "a majestic history," the party of Lincoln and Seward, and Chase and Sumner and Andrews? What *does* Dr. Storrs say to this, if he has already stomached the alliance with "Pat" Ford, another dynamiter, and deserter to boot?

The genesis of the famous London *Times* quotation about the use which England can make of an Irishman (or the Celt) by sending him to America to vote for Free Trade, is disclosed at last in a letter to the *Evening Post* from a gentleman in Brooklyn, who has taken the pains to trace it from the *Tribune* office to the Yale Publishing Co., and thence to the office of Pat Ford's *Irish World*. Pat told this inquirer finally that the quotation was never in the London *Times* at all, but was published fifteen or twenty years ago in a pamphlet entitled 'Why Ireland Is Poor,' written by John F. Scanlon of Chicago, and published by Henry Carey Baird of Philadelphia; or rather that this was "the gist" of the pamphlet. Of all the explanations offered this is the most reasonable. Scanlon is or was a Head Centre of the Fenians. Ford would be pretty certain to be acquainted with his writings. The evolution of the quotation from a Fenian pamphlet to the editorial columns of the London *Times* is more remarkable than anything in the Darwinian system, but it is too much to expect that the circulation of the lie can now be stopped even among those who know it to be false.

Senator Allison, in his new rôle of high-tariff man, overlooks some things that he ought to be reminded of. For example, in his speech on Monday week, while arguing that the Senate bill will save to the consumer $6,000,000 in sugar, which would otherwise go to the refiners, he said, "Six millions to whom? Where will it go?" And then he proceeded to show that it will go to the consumer. But why not let it go to the wage-worker along the usual path *via* the bank account of the sugar refiner? That is the approved high-tariff method of disposing of a surplus. Besides, who knows but that the foreign sugar-growers and refiners will first crush out the domestic ones by lower prices, and, having accomplished their fell purpose, put up their prices again to an extortionate figure, to the great injury of the American consumer? We find that Mr. Allison has not got rid of all the bad stuff that he put into his great speech of March 24 and 25, 1870.

The chances of Mayor Hewitt's reëlection have been greatly improved by the action of the Republican County Convention last Thursday. Nobody can look at the ticket which it put in the field, and believe that the men who nominated it have the remotest idea that it can be elected. The nominee for Mayor is a thoroughly respectable man, who was chosen because nobody more desirable would accept the place. Many of his associates on the ticket have been put up and defeated in previous elections. Some of them have been "traded off" at the polls by their closest friends, and will be so treated this year if opportunity can be found. Diligent search has been made during the past week for a rich and respectable candidate who would pay a handsome "assessment," give a color of sincerity to the Republican professions of a belief that there is a chance for success, and thus furnish a basis for a profitable "deal" at the polls. Former unhappy experience had, however, made all the rich members of the party so shy that none of them could be found who was willing to be made a victim. It became necessary, therefore, to fall back upon respectability alone, and make the best of the situation. Thousands of Republican voters will now give their support directly to Mr. Hewitt as the only way of defeating the Tammany nominee. The Boys will "deal" with

Tammany for all the votes which they can transfer in a body, but this number is not large. In these "deals" the national Democratic ticket may suffer somewhat, but we do not apprehend serious harm in that direction.

Dr. W. E. Boggs has been recently elected, by a unanimous vote of the Board of Trustees, Chancellor of the University of Georgia. Dr. Boggs, it will be remembered, was one of the professors at the Columbia (S. C.) Theological Seminary who warmly espoused the cause of Dr. Woodrow. His election is, therefore, a sign of the growth of a liberal spirit in the "orthodox" South. The discussion among the members of the Board concerning the kind of man to be chosen furnishes most curious evidence of the stride forward which Georgia has taken. The advocates of a preacher for the post doubtless represented the views of the majority. Gov. Gordon and ex-Congressman Hammond, who "felt" that the University needed "a man of piety and power at its head, who would commit it by example and precept to religious thought and sentiment," were unquestionably the spokesmen of the vast body of its friends and patrons. He who opposed this "feeling" is himself a preacher, and perhaps the most distinguished one in the State—Bishop Beckwith of the Episcopal Church. The Bishop insisted that the first duty of the Board should be to find a man strong enough to combat the scientific doubts thrown over religion, and that though he was not opposed to the selection of a clergyman, it would be next to impossible to find one possessing sufficient scientific attainments to hold his own with Spencer, Darwin, Huxley and their followers, who were reaching the young through popular articles in our magazines and newspapers. He declared that the clergy do not realize the importance of this matter. "They preach," said the Bishop, "of Christian duty, while their hearers are doubting the very divinity of Christ. It does not suffice for a clergyman to preach the simple gospel from his pulpit while the pews cry out for argument that will justify them in holding to their faith, and save them from surrendering that which they hope and believe to be true." He advocated the selection of a trained man of science, who could answer the doubts of the young, and lead them to reject so much of the alleged science of the day as is false, and to hold to that which is true.

The Bishop closed with this sentence, which we dare say would startle many boards of trustees in this country: "The old-fashioned Gospel of Christ and Him crucified has satisfied the world for centuries, but a new era is upon us. Tremendous progress has been made in thought and discovery. New theories are proposed and decided, and we stand on the brink of the most tremendous intellectual revolution this world has witnessed since Martin Luther nailed his papers to the door of the church. Georgia should appreciate this, and her university should stand as a beacon-light amid the doubts that are raised." This was not questioned, but the other members of the board suggested that doubts would arise, if the Chancellor presented scientific arguments and attempted to refute them; that these doubts could best be answered in the laboratory and class-room; that it was not necessary for the head of the university to enter upon scientific discussion of technical points of religious faith, but to present an example of piety, coupled with power and liberality. The selection of Dr. Boggs followed, as his general and special equipment commended him to both parties in this discussion. The Bishop seconded the nomination.

Mr. Wemyss Reid, William E. Forster's biographer, has answered Mr. Gladstone in the last number of the *Nineteenth Century* touching the cause of Mr. Forster's withdrawal from the Cabinet. Mr. Gladstone said, in substance, that the cause was a mystery, seeing that the Cabinet had stood by Mr. Forster to the end, and that, as regards the release of Parnell, Parnell gave the pledge to discourage outrage and intimidation which was what Mr. Forster agreed should be the condition of his release. Mr. Reid now shows pretty clearly that what Forster demanded was a public pledge, and that the Cabinet contented itself with a private one, which Mr. Forster said would do no good. But this does not really improve Mr. Forster's position. The act under which Parnell was imprisoned gave the Government power to imprison him only in case he was "reasonably suspected" of having done and of intending to do certain things. Both Forster and Gladstone agreed that where this "reasonable suspicion" ceased to exist, a prisoner under the act should be released; that he could not properly be confined merely as an aid in carrying out a certain line of policy, or in order to strike terror into his friends and supporters; that he must stand or fall by the belief of the Government as to what his state of mind was. Now, if Parnell's private pledge removed this "reasonable suspicion," Mr. Forster had no warrant of law for keeping Parnell in jail. To confine him in order to compel him to give a public pledge was to confine him simply in order to help the Government in pacifying the country—something which both Forster and Gladstone agreed it had no right to do. Mr. Reid's article clears up some points in dispute, but not the main one. It leaves Mr. Chamberlain just where it found him.

The conversion by Dr. Morell Mackenzie of his record of the sufferings of his patient, the Emperor Frederick, into merchandise of the lowest kind, and the sale of it to a disreputable sensational Sunday newspaper in this city for a good round sum, strikes us as one of the shabbiest and least professional acts ever committed by a member of a noble calling. A quarrel of doctors over a dead body is always a rather repulsive thing, doubly repulsive when the body is that of a man at whose bedside the whole civilized world watched with sorrow and respect. We can readily conceive, however, that Dr. Mackenzie may have found it necessary to lay before the public a full account of the sickening details of the progress of the dreadful and fatal disease, owing to the assaults made on his professional reputation. We are treated to so many of these clinical horrors, nowadays, whenever a distinguished man dies, that doctors are naturally more and more ready to supply them on small provocation. But surely the vindication ought to have been made in the quietest and most professional way, and addressed as far as possible, in form as well as in fact, to a professional audience only. Does any layman or laywoman whose literary tastes are not thoroughly morbid or depraved care to follow in minute detail the history of a fatal cancer in the throat? But what are we to say of a doctor who makes a sort of popular novel out of the story of his patient's horrible sufferings, and sells it then for a large sum to one of the most enterprising purveyors of nastiness in the world? The arrangement has miscarried through somebody's dishonesty; but it is very rare indeed for a thief to render indirectly such good service to the cause of decency as this one has done.

The visit of the German Emperor to Italy, which he is now making, has been the subject for some months of rather angry diplomatic debates. The question was whether the Emperor was to call first on the King or on the Pope, for if he called first on the King he recognized him as the greatest man in Rome and Rome as the capital of Italy, whereas if he called first on the Pope he recognized the Pope as the greatest man in Rome, and Rome as the capital of the Papacy. For a good while the Papal diplomats tried to extract from the Emperor some sort of caveat or memorandum that his visit to the King was not to be considered as a personal recognition of the King's supremacy in Rome; but he refused to give anything of the kind, and he has solved the problem by going first to see the King, while the Pope was obliged to submit to a second visit.

The German Catholics are in the habit of holding a convention every year at Freiburg, and the Prussian Bishops a conference at Fulda. The assemblies usually confine themselves to strictly religious topics of discussion, but this year they have gone out of their way to denounce the recent Italian legislation, making it penal to agitate for any change in the territorial constitution of the existing kingdom of Italy, or to insist on the necessity for the Pope of "a city to himself," and to protest against the German alliance with Italy. The Pope has congratulated the Freiburg Convention on the stand it has taken, and it is now rumored that under Roman inspiration similar conventions are to be held in all the countries of Europe, to begin a general pressure on the German Government in favor of some modification of the Pope's position; Germany being assumed to be the only country that Italy will heed.

GOVERNMENT DEPOSITS IN NATIONAL BANKS.

No part of this campaign of mendacity and vulgarity has been more disreputable than the charge that the Administration is censurable for "lending the public money to the banks." This charge has been repeated and reiterated till probably some ignorant people begin to think that there may be something in it. Gen. Harrison himself has had something to say about it in his speeches, but we are inclined to think that, as usual, he sinned through ignorance and unfamiliarity with the subject. We do not think he would make a false statement. We do not think that any such excuse can be made for Mr. Blaine, because it is his habit to make all kinds of reckless statements in his speeches, taking the risk of being found out and exposed. His statement at Detroit that if any Republican Secretary of the Treasury had deposited as much money in national-bank depositories as Mr. Fairchild has deposited (about $60,000,000), the Democrats would have impeached him if they had been in power, was one of these reckless statements amounting to downright falsehood. Mr. Blaine prefaced this statement by saying that he had had experience in public affairs which entitled him to speak with authority. We showed in reply that, during seven months in the year of 1879, Secretary Sherman had on deposit in national-bank depositories various sums ranging from $97,000,000 to $276,000,000, and we remarked that this matter was of no importance except as illustrating Mr. Blaine's recklessness on the stump.

Now comes Mr. Thomas M. Nichol, who evidently thinks that he has had experience in the affairs of Government sufficient to enable him to take part in public instruction. His explanation of the large deposits in national-bank depositories by Secretary Sherman is in this wise :

> "Mr. Sherman had no large surplus to use at his discretion. He was engaged under the law in refunding the high interest-bearing bonds which then represented the public debt. As fast as he could sell 4 or 4½ per cent. bonds, he was directed by law to redeem the outstanding 6 per cents. But he was not allowed to call any bonds for redemption till he had money on hand with which to redeem them from the sale of those bearing the lower rate of interest; and when he made a call, the law required him to give three months' notice to the owners of the bonds called, which were designated by their numbers.
>
> "This direction of the law obliged the money provided to pay for each batch of bonds called to remain idle during these three months. As the new bonds were sold through the banks, it was simply a natural consequence that the money obtained from them should remain in these banks for some period of time—that is, until the Government called for it. This was a very different matter from that of turning money in the Treasury over to the banks for their use and benefit."

This means that the money deposited in the national-bank depositories was exactly the amount of the called bonds and interest. Evidently Mr. Nichol did not have the Treasury reports before him when he made this statement. If he had had them, he would have seen that the amount of called bonds and interest was reported as a liability every month, and that the amount of money deposited in the banks was a vastly greater sum. The figures are as follows :

	Deposits held by Nat'l Bank Depositories.	Called bonds and interest.	Excess of deposits.
Feb. 1, 1879	$166,357,141	$6,928,703	$159,428,438
March 1, "	249,586,805	6,699,291	242,887,514
April 1, "	226,681,802	7,997,936	218,683,866
May 1, "	260,760,430	68,632,751	192,127,679
June 1, "	276,442,471	57,377,637	219,064,834
July 1, "	201,402,860	39,082,398	162,320,462
Aug. 1, "	97,078,837	81,408,785	15,670,052

Now, you may take these figures any way you please. You may reckon the deposits three months before or three months after the corresponding amounts of called bonds, and you will not find a month until the last when the excess of deposits was not vastly greater than the largest sum deposited by Secretary Fairchild. The truth is—and it was a matter of adverse comment at the time, although the criticism was, in our opinion, unfounded—that Secretary Sherman had made money easy by large deposits in the banks, in order to float the 4 per cent. loan. If his object was to make money easy in order to carry to a successful issue the funding of the national debt at a lower rate of interest, he was justified in doing so. He was justified, even if after events showed that the step was unnecessary. As in the present case, there was an abnormal situation in Treasury affairs, and the Secretary used his best judgment in meeting it.

In the present case, everybody knows what would have been the consequence of locking up the Treasury receipts in the Treasury vaults. It would have led with a rush to a commercial crisis. Everybody saw this at the time, and everybody, Republicans as well as Democrats, accordingly urged the Secretary to deposit the incoming surplus in national-bank depositories. Most people feared that the banks would not take it on the conditions as to security that the law required ; and, in fact, the banks did refuse to take more than the $57,000,000 or $60,000,000 which constituted the bugbear of Mr. Blaine's speech. To call this deposit "loaning the money to the banks" is a lie by indirection. All Secretaries of the Treasury since the close of the war have "loaned money to the banks" in this sense, because all have kept more or less money on deposit with them. The deposit has none of the characteristics of a loan, and to call it such is a deliberate attempt to deceive by the misuse of words.

THE WORLD'S WHEAT HARVEST.

In connection with the International Grain Market which is annually held at Vienna, it has become the custom to arrange an estimate of the world's crops for the current year. Special attention has been given to wheat, and the results on the whole have been so nearly correct that they are looked for now with much interest. Their importance this year is even greater than usual. The changes in the price of wheat have been so rapid, and the future is as yet so uncertain, that every impartial and competent estimate of the crop is of decided value.

It is true that the statisticians have been this year subject to exceptional difficulties. The season was so late that there was an opportunity for change of conditions after the estimate was published. In France and in England there was an improvement, in most other countries a falling off. Yet with all these unavoidable sources of error, the Vienna figures are worth studying in detail.

The general results for 1887 and 1888, as given in the general summary, are shown in the following table. The figures are in millions of hectolitres, one hectolitre being equal to two and five-sixths measured bushels :

IMPORTING COUNTRIES.

	Production.		Demands for import.	
	1888.	1887.	1888.	1887.
Great Britain	20	28	58	45
France	90	111	27	7
Germany	39	42	9	6
Switzerland	0.6	0.8	4.2	4
Italy	37	42	9	4
Spain and Portugal	47	47	5	5
Belgium and Holland	7.5	8.5	6	5
Greece	1.5	1.5	1	1
Denmark	1	1	1	1
Sweden and Norway	1	1	1	1.5
Other importing countries (not included in estimate for 1887).	2	?	6	?
	246.6	282.8	127.2	79.5

EXPORTING COUNTRIES.

	Production.		Supplies for export.	
	1888.	1887.	1888.	1887.
Austria	53	56	5.8	7
Russia	90	82	32	24
Servia and Rumania	13	13	6	6
Turkey and Bulgaria	11	12	3	4
United States and Canada	152	162	36	46
India	65	75	13	13
Australia and Chili	11	10	7	6
Egypt	5	5	1.5	1.5
	400	415	104.3	107.5

Putting these two sets of figures together, we have a total of 646.6 million hectolitres in 1888, against 697.8 million in 1887 ; that is to say, 1,832 million measured bushels in 1888, against 1,977 in 1887—a large but by no means unprecedented variation. It is hardly necessary to warn our readers against placing too implicit reliance on these figures. The estimate for a country like India, or even like Spain, can be little more than a guess. The introduction of a few additional importing countries outside of Europe into the table for 1888 also constitutes a disturbing element.

On the other hand, the estimate of exports and imports is far more trustworthy in itself, and one in which the members of the International Congress were more directly interested. In this respect the season of 1888, taken by itself, shows a deficit of 22.9 million hectolitres against a surplus of 28 million in 1887. How serious this is to be will depend partly upon the amount of wheat carried over from last year, and partly upon the extent to which other food products can be substituted for wheat.

The deficit is due chiefly to bad harvests in the importing countries. England, France, and Italy all have suffered severely; though the loss in the two former is probably not so great as was at one time supposed. The wheat acreage in Great Britain was somewhat larger than in the years immediately preceding, but the yield was unsatisfactory. Other crops have done reasonably well. In France, which, next to the

United States, is the greatest wheat-producing country in the world, the yield was estimated at only 80 per cent. of the ordinary harvest; and other crops were below the average. Last year, with a satisfactory wheat crop, France imported a little less than 20,000,000 bushels. This year it was at one time expected to need 75,000,000 to satisfy its demands. In Italy, matters seem even worse. The harvest will probably be not more than 85 per cent. of that of last year, and perhaps little more than three-quarters of that of a good average year. The demands for importation are estimated at about 25,000,000 bushels, against 11,000,000 bushels in 1887. Germany shows a slight reduction from last year, but on the whole an advance above the mean of a dozen years preceding; and the same may be said with less reserve of Austria. In both of these countries the results in 1887 were so good that considerable diminution was possible without producing anything like real distress. Both in Hungary and Austria, wheat shows a yield of nearly 10 per cent. above the average of past years per acre under cultivation. It is to be noted, however, that in both of these countries other grains have been far from successful.

Russia has done well, distinctly better than last year, some of the best provinces showing a yield as high as 120 per cent. of the average. Other grains besides wheat have also given large crops. It is estimated that Russia will be able to export over 90,000,000 bushels instead of 68,000,000, as was the case last year. The regions of the lower Danube, which are relied upon for a considerable wheat export, have repeated their good results of last year. In fact, the details would indicate that they had done decidedly better; but the general estimate gives the same aggregate figure of wheat production and probable export as in the year preceding. The final result of all this is, as has been seen, a most distinct deficit in the European wheat crops, without a corresponding increase in other parts of the world. In India the harvest is pronounced, in a vague way, good; but the detailed figures of production, such as they are, hardly warrant this view of the matter. It is doubtful whether India can export more wheat than last year, or as much as has been the case in several years previous. The total amount shipped by South America, Africa, or even Australia, is too small to have any decisive effect; and the wheat crop of the United States is certainly in no condition to make good the deficit in Europe.

A VANISHED ILLUSION.

Just two years and a half ago a great many sensible people thought the appearance of Mr. Powderly and his Knights of Labor in the American political arena meant the application of a new force to human affairs. The religious weeklies and the monthly reviews in the early part of 1886 had numerous articles, frequently from clergymen, warning all those of us who did not work with our hands, that we were on the edge of a great social revolution, which would put "labor on top," and in some unexplained manner make life very hard, or at all events very different, for the quill-drivers and the bookmen and the people who worked with their brains. We were favored, in fact, with a few not obscure intimations that the days when Delmonico's, and the opera, and landaus, and summer trips to Europe, and imported clothes were reserved for people who had money enough to pay for them, were passing away before our eyes, and that we were now to witness the strange but splendid spectacle of the poor, and ignorant, and lazy monopolizing the luxuries of the earth. Politics, too, were to be taken out of the hands of the incompetents who now manage them, and given in charge to laboring men, who, as Grand Master Workmen, Worthy Foremen, Venerable Sages, and Walking Delegates, were to show us, after our weary waiting of 100,000 years or thereabouts, how the world ought to be governed. Rings, corners, monopolies, self-seeking, and corruption were to vanish from our affairs. Everybody was to have plenty of money, and justice was at last to reign.

Immediately after the Southwestern strikes Powderly went before the Congressional Committee, and was there gravely asked by Mr. Barnes to supply the Committee with his (Powderly's) opinion as to what could be done under the existing law to end "labor troubles," and also "what might be done and ought to be done by amendments to the Constitution." Powderly, instead of modestly shrinking from a job which would have appalled the Convention of 1787, answered cheerfully, "I shall do so, and thank you for the suggestion."

A kind of panic at this moment, however, seems to have seized the Committee. They feared that Powderly, in providing for the settlement of the labor question through immediate legislation, might refuse to take into account the limitations placed on Congressional action by the Constitution, and might insist on converting the legislative branch into an omnipotent parliament. Consequently Mr. Buchanan, just in the nick of time, before Powderly had begun to think the matter over, said: "Will you also, in considering the question, take into view the complex nature of this Government, and the divided responsibility between Federal and State legislation, so as to make your suggestions such as the national Legislature can duly act on?" Powderly, with great moderation, we admit, answered, "I will do so." We believe he has never produced these suggestions, but we have no doubt that, for a few weeks at least, a good many people waited for them with some anxiety.

About the same time, Prof. Ely of the Johns Hopkins University issued through the Baltimore *American* a solemn appeal to the Knights of Labor to reform the civil service. In doing so he was compelled to admit that the civil-service reformers were a sorry lot, who wore swallow-tail coats and white neckties, and were unworthy to "lead the masses." He knew the Knights could not be expected to keep company with such duffers, but they "could at least enter into their labors and appropriate what they had done." The good Ely evidently believed that if he could get the ear of the Knights, he could have all the good measures we need passed at once, and throw the civil-service reformers, with their swallow-tails, and the politicians, with their "petty personalities," overboard. Ely's wrestlings with the Knights were, indeed, we think on the whole, the funniest incident in the tragi-comedy which occupied public attention during the first half of 1886. The figures which Powderly gave out, too, touching the strength of his order—between 2,000,000 and 3,000,000—shed a sort of lurid light on the scene; and when we learned that the Executive Board had purchased a $100,000 "mansion" as a headquarters in Philadelphia, and furnished it in a manner fit for Jay Gould, and that Powderly himself had $5,000 salary, and no end of secretaries, there came a moment when both Capital and Brains were near throwing up the sponge, and hiding their diminished heads in the nearest ash-barrel.

The changes which have since occurred are most significant and instructive, and we commend them to the attention of all social philosophers, of both sexes, who think that human society can be revolutionized by taking thought, or enrolling one's self in a club, or by anything except a change in human character. The treasury of the Knights is reported empty. The members of the Order number, according to the most sanguine estimate, 200,000. One Secretary, Litchman, has resigned, in order to be hired by the "politicians" as a campaign orator. Another, Barry, has retired also, firing Parthian arrows at Powderly, who denounces them both as dishonest, and says they were Knights "for revenue only." Powderly himself is said to be more sensible than was generally supposed, and to have been studying law in order to be ready to earn his living at the bar when the $5,000 salary ceases. Ely is silent, though, doubtless, still hopeful. In District Assembly No. 49 there has been a hard struggle for possession of Pythagoras Hall between the well-known Quinn and the well-known Fitzgerald, both distinguished Walking Delegates, who have frequently offered to solve the labor problem and regenerate society in this city. Quinn got possession of the hall, and he and his adherents were garrisoning it in a peaceful manner, when Fitzgerald stormed it by a night attack. A brief struggle in the dark, with spittoons, chairs, and empty bottles, ended in the capture of the place and the expulsion of the defenders, almost in a state of nudity, into the streets. A more shameful conflict has never taken place between capitalists and brain-workers in our time, and to some it will doubtless make the future of man seem very dark. The civil-service reformers still wear their swallow-tails and white cravats; and society goes on in the old way, improving solely through toil and industry, the spread of knowledge, the progress of science and invention, and the strenuous exertions of the great mass of men to abolish their own poverty.

FRENCH CONSTITUTIONAL AMENDMENT.

THE French Chambers met on Monday, and, as was expected, M. Floquet at once proposed a revision of the Constitution. The scheme which he has submitted is not as radical as was expected or feared by the Opportunists. It was supposed that it would include the abolition of the Senate, whereas it simply makes the Senatorial term of office three years instead of nine, and that of the Deputies three years instead of four. But it takes away from the Senate the power of absolute rejection of any bill originating in the Lower Chamber, which the Senate now possesses in common with all other Upper Houses, and substitutes therefor a "suspensive veto," which expires in two years. In other words, the Senate would, after this change, have simply the power of imposing on the Chamber further consideration of any measure originating in that body. Its power over financial measures, which is now the same as that of our Senate, M. Floquet proposes to assimilate to that of our Board of Aldermen—that is, to reduce it simply to criticism or remonstrance which would make necessary a second debate in the Chamber. The Senate would also, under M. Floquet's plan, lose the power it now possesses conjointly with the President of dissolving the Lower Chamber. This right would hereafter be reserved to the President exclusively.

None of these things are, however, so important as the provision of a fixed term for the Ministers, who are to be removable during this period, as we understood the despatches, only by a solemn vote of the Chamber that they have lost the confidence of the country, and not, as now, by mere defeat on a bill or resolution. This is the first distinct abandonment of the English for the American constitutional system. The experiment of perpetuating under the Republic the old English custom, adopted by the constitutional monarchy in France, but discarded by the Second Empire, of making the Cabinet responsible to the Chamber, and removable by defeat on any bill or resolution, has proved a total and lamentable failure, and has done more than anything else to discredit the Republic. The result has been that since 1875 ministries have not lasted, on the average, over ten months. As each change, too, involves the introduction of new men into high office, as well as the depreciation of those who have already held it, the quality of French statesmen has gone on deteriorating in an almost alarming way. Most of the ministers nowadays are men who have never been heard of till they take office, and are never heard of again after they leave it, and they usually retire loaded with contempt and followed by jeers.

The causes of this state of things are, as usual, numerous, and showed themselves very soon after the adoption of the Constitution. We do not feel competent to pass on the comparative or positive efficacy of any of them, but the chief, as specified by the best observers, are: (1.) The French passion for equality, or, as detractors call it, French envy. As soon as a man shows signs of becoming eminent in parliamentary life, all parties unite in pulling him down. Gambetta was, it is said, ruined by this course, and after him, Ferry. In politics, the French take no national pride in great men. (2.) The absence among the French of the habit of party government, perhaps never fully formed under the Monarchy, and totally destroyed under the Empire. Party ties being feeble in the Chamber, and there being no commanding leaders, the Republicans had no cohesion, and easily broke into small "groups," on whom no Minister could count for consistent and steady support, and who competed with each other for supremacy over him by means of threats and exactions. (3.) Offices or "spoils"—according to some, the most disintegrating agency of all. Every member from the country districts comes up now to Paris, eager to show his constituents how influential he is with the Ministry; and the only way he can show it is by getting places for his henchmen or votes of money for his "deestrict." The Government offices, great and small, have been multiplied enormously in order to satisfy him, but he cannot be satisfied. No Minister has one-hundredth part enough places at his command to meet the demands on him, and every member whom he disappoints becomes his enemy.

The confusion worked in this way—the plain inability of each Ministry to form a parliamentary majority or govern through it—has, after thirteen years' trial, greatly disgusted and, what is worse in France, humiliated the country. For the present régime does not supply the English remedy for ministerial shortcomings—the putting of the Opposition into power. There is in France no Opposition able to take office and hold it against all comers. Even if there were, however, it is doubtful whether the French voters have yet acquired enough political skill to avail themselves of it. The French mind, when in political trouble, turns, under the influence of the strongest tradition of French history, not to agitation, or persuasion, but to the discovery of some kind of dictator. It is this which has now given them Boulanger, and which keeps him afloat, in spite of disadvantages of all kinds which make his eminence so incomprehensible to foreigners. So that when M. Floquet proposes to adopt the American plan of giving the Ministers a certain degree of permanence, he is really fighting "Boulangism" as much as anything else—that is, trying to revive the popular confidence in parliamentary institutions.

Whether he will succeed is of course still doubtful. The Constitution has been twice revised already, in 1884 and 1885, when the life senatorships were abolished, and when departmental representation on a general ticket (*scrutin de liste*) was substituted for district representation (*scrutin d'arrondissement*). It was framed in 1875, by an Assembly mainly composed of Monarchists, and nobody denies that it was meant to be the foundation of a Monarchical restoration. The wonder is that, with this taint on its origin, it has lasted substantially unchanged so long. The demand for its revision will probably, after each revision, be as strong as ever in some quarters, which would be no great harm if the process of revision were as difficult there as it is here. Even children after a while stop crying for what they find it hard to get; and if the French Constitution could only be changed by a two-thirds vote on a plébiscite, or the vote of two-thirds of the Departments through the Councils-General, it is possible the electors would settle down into quieter political ways.

One bit of revision is now confessedly a failure—the return to the *scrutin de liste*. This was Gambetta's plan of forming great parties in the Chamber, and it has been as fertile in the production of cantankerous "groups" as the *scrutin d'arrondissement* ever was.

THE LAW OF THE RUNDSCHAU'S CASE.

THE Berlin *Nation*, in its issue of September 29, publishes an article entitled "The Indictment of the Diary of Emperor Frederick," in which Dr. Munckel, a high authority on criminal law, criticises severely the recent letter of Prince Bismarck to the Emperor. Although at the time the article was written the matter had not yet been formally referred to the public prosecutor, the writer had no doubt that a prosecution would be ordered by the Minister of Justice. But what crime will be charged? Prince Bismarck says that if the Diary is authentic, its publication constitutes treason beyond a doubt. If it is not authentic, it is not so clear, according to him, that there is a case of treason; but, under various provisions quoted by him, and perhaps under other provisions, the discovery of which is left to the Public Prosecutor, the publisher might be convicted of a misdemeanor. Now, the Public Prosecutor always tries to secure a conviction of as grave a crime as the circumstances will possibly allow. He will, therefore, elect to prosecute for treason; but in order to do this successfully, he must prove that the document is authentic.

Assuming that he succeeds in proving the authenticity, the question remains whether the publications constitute treason under Section 92 of the Penal Code. This section is directed against any one who publishes state secrets, or such other facts as he knows the interest of the Empire, or one of the Federal States, requires to be kept secret from foreign States. This section can only be invoked if the facts published are true; for how can anything that is not true be kept secret? Prince Bismarck, however, says positively that all facts mentioned in the Diary, the publication of which might be considered as being opposed to the interest of the Empire, are untrue, *e. g.*, the alleged plan of Emperor Frederick to compel, by force if necessary, the South German allies to give their assent to the proclamation of the Empire; the opinion expressed on the character of the Kings

of Bavaria and Würtemberg; the views of the Prussian Government on papal infallibility. In fact, his doubts as to the authenticity of the Diary are based on the utter falsity of these statements. The authenticity of the Diary would not make these untruths true. The only explanation would be that the Prince was mistaken, unless we assume that Prince Bismarck does not speak the truth, and, of course, the latter position cannot be taken by any public prosecutor. Prince Bismarck bases his letter on the assumption that only two aspects of the case are possible—either the Diary is authentic, or it is spurious. He forgets that even an authentic document may contain misstatements. Perhaps, however, as Dr. Munckel ironically observes, he had this possibility before his mind when he wrote the letter, and intended that, if the authenticity was shown, the German people should be the judges as to who was correct in his statement of the facts, the Emperor or the Chancellor.

If the facts are not true, this paragraph of Section 92 does not apply. The accused will, of course, invoke on this point the testimony of the Chancellor, and with all the more force because, if ever the question came up, whether or not the interest of the Empire was jeoparded by the publication of the Diary, assuming the fact to be true, the testimony of the Chancellor would certainly be conclusive. For Prince Bismarck is the man, so his friends assert, who made the Empire; the man whose diagnosis of the infantile diseases of the newly founded State (diseases which can be cured only through the intervention of the Public Prosecutor) is infallible. That such a man has solemnly asserted that the facts narrated in the Diary never took place, and that he did so in the same document in which he says that the publication is dangerous for the state, is most fortunate for the accused.

Perhaps, if the Diary is spurious, the second paragraph of Section 92 will be invoked. It is directed against those who falsify, destroy, or suppress documents or papers by which rights of the Empire or of a Federal State are evidenced, to the injury of such Empire or State. In the first place, even if the Diary were spurious, the publication would not fall under this section unless the additional point were proved that the facts narrated in it were false. But, furthermore, this provision is not applicable, because it assumes that there have been genuine documents which have been falsified or suppressed. It has never been alleged that the editor of the *Rundschau* has had such genuine documents in his hands and that he has falsified or suppressed them. On the contrary, it is rather the non-suppression which is complained of.

The only other penal provisions which have to be considered are those under which the publications would constitute an offence of comparatively little importance. In order to invoke them, the Diary must of course be proved to be spurious. If it were otherwise, the Emperor Frederick would have to be considered as an accomplice. At the end of his letter, Prince Bismarck clearly admits the correctness of this view, for he takes the position that the publication constitutes a defamation of the character of the deceased Emperor. But it is doubtful whether a Prussian court, if it merely interprets the law and leaves politics out of view, can hold that the publication of the Diary constitutes a defamation of character, on the ground that it contains a wilfully untrue charge against the Prince of a fact which, if true, would constitute moral turpitude or expose him to public contempt. Moreover, a prosecution on this ground can only be had on the complaint of an immediate relative, and it is very doubtful whether, in this case, such complaint would be made.

The Diary certainly does not contain any defamation of living persons. The Chancellor, who is very sensitive on this point, does not even pretend that it does. It is true that, after reading it, one feels angry towards certain persons; but it is not an indictable offence to excite such a feeling. Even if the document is spurious, the Public Prosecutor will therefore have to act ex-officio. He may, perhaps, invoke two other sections—in the first place, Section 131, which punishes him who knowingly asserts non-existent facts in order to excite contempt for existing institutions. The Diary says that the Constitution, or part of it, is a "chaos." This word is not flattering, but it cannot be said to excite contempt. On the contrary, it is rather flattering for the Chancellor, who has reigned for eighteen years with this chaotic Constitution. In the second place, Section 263 might be invoked. It is directed against those who attempt to derive profit from documents which they know to be spurious. In addition to the difficulty of proving the spurious character of the Diary, there would be here the difficulty of proving that the publisher had actual knowledge of its spurious character. Where even the Chancellor has only a suspicion, it would be almost impertinent to say that another can have actual knowledge.

The legal argument contained in the article of Dr. Munckel is cogent and conclusive; but unfortunately the Arnim litigation and other political prosecutions have shown that it is doubtful, to say the least, whether German courts, when appealed to to decide, not on legal but on political grounds, would make their own the famous answer of the Parlement of Paris to a similar request—"This court renders judgment, not service."

THE EMPEROR FREDERICK'S DIARY IN FRANCE.

PARIS, October 4, 1888.

THE emotion created by the publication in the *Deutsche Rundschau* of fragments of the Diary of the late Emperor Frederick has been as considerable in France as it has been in Germany. The whole history of the war of 1870-71 has been brought back to our memory, and people have been able to see, so to speak, from the outside what they had only seen from the inside. Important as the Diary may be in an historical sense (and, though it may have suffered some alterations in the *Rundschau*, it will certainly remain one of the most curious documents of our time), it cannot be denied that its publication has been an imprudence and an indiscretion. We are still left in ignorance of the circumstances of this publication. Many versions have been given, and at the present moment it is needless to discuss them. We can only say that if it was in accordance with a wish expressed by the late Emperor he must have been attacked, like other sovereigns, princes, and princesses of our time, by an inordinate love of publicity. There has never been a time when persons who seemed born to live behind the clouds of an Olympus, have come so much before the public, and volunteered to make us cognizant of their inmost thoughts. It may be that the sort of seclusion in which they live inclines them to analyze their own thoughts more than common mortals do. I believe, however, that this disposition is most dangerous, and that those who indulge in it ought at least to take as much precaution as Prince Talleyrand, whose memoirs are not yet published, and will not be for a long time.

If the publication of the Diary was not made by the Emperor's orders, it is an act of unjustifiable indiscretion and cannot be judged too severely. I am not much surprised that the Chancellor of Germany has ordered the Public Prosecutor to begin a criminal action against the *Rundschau* and the authors of the publication of the Diary; but I must confess I have been somewhat surprised at the terms of his report to the Emperor, and at the efforts which he makes to prove that the Diary "in its present form" is not genuine, and at the long discussion into which he enters in order to show the inaccuracies of the Diary. It is in the very nature of a diary to be sometimes inaccurate and always incomplete: a diary gives only fragmentary sensations and emotions, and Prince Bismarck showed too much irritation when he wrote that in 1870 he had not the King's permission to talk with the Crown Prince on esoteric questions of the policy of Prussia, "since his Majesty, on the one hand, dreaded the indiscreet revelations which might thus be made to the English Court, which was full of French sympathies, and, on the other, was apprehensive lest detriment might thus accrue to our relations with our German allies by reason of the far-reaching aims and violent means which were recommended to his Royal Highness by political counsellors of doubtful ability."

It is quite true that Prince Bismarck was in 1870 the responsible adviser of the Crown, while the Crown Prince was irresponsible. Prince Frederick was an ardent lover of German unity. Though he was a man of action, as he sufficiently showed on the battle-field, he was somewhat of what Napoleon the First called an *idéologue*. The dream of united Germany was his favorite dream, as well as a restoration of a purely German Empire; and, understanding well the wishes and aspirations of the German people, he was willing, if necessary, to coerce the reluctant princes, and to use with regard to them the maxim "Compelle entrare." The campaign in Bohemia, in which he took such an important and decisive part, had led to such extraordinary results that he might well be forgiven for thinking that Prussia, in her work of unification, could find no serious obstacle in the ill will of a few princes. Though destined to wear the crown of Prussia, he was less of a Prussian than a German, and thus stood in contrast with his own father, who remained to the end convinced that Prussia was not to be merged into Germany, but that she should remain the nucleus of Germany, the

great centre of attraction of all the German States.

These differences can be traced to different conceptions of the new German Empire. Is it to be or to become an empire in the Roman sense of the word, accommodated to modern necessities by parliamentary institutions—an empire embracing all the German-speaking provinces of Europe, with only an Emperor, an Upper and a Lower Chamber framing laws for all? Or is it to be an empire founded upon a hierarchy of princes and sovereigns, with an Emperor surrounded by confederate princes bound to the Emperor by a *feudum*, by treaties, and by conventions? Poets have sometimes extraordinary visions: Victor Hugo, in his famous monologue in "Hernani," when Don Carlos is waiting for the result of the imperial election, places in his mouth words which are not a bad description of the great empire of Charlemagne, supported by his vassal kings, princes, and electors.

The idea of German unity did not always take that form. After the Revolution of 1848, the Frankfort Parliament wished to constitute a new Empire; there was for a time a vicar-general of this Empire, and finally the imperial crown was offered to Prussia. It was refused: the new crown was not to be the gift of a popular assembly. Prince Bismarck was among those who were the most resolutely adverse to the revolutionists of 1848. He spoke against the adoption of the Frankfort Imperial Constitution. "The Frankfort crown," he said, "may be very brilliant, but the gold which lends truth to its splendor must be added by melting into its composition the Prussian crown; and I cannot believe that its recasting is possible by means of the proposed Constitution." On the 9th of September, 1849, he said again:

"I deny that any desire has ever existed in the Prussian people for a national regeneration modelled on the theories of Frankfort. The policy of Frederick the Great has been frequently alluded to, and it has even been identified with the proposal of union. I am rather of opinion that Frederick II. would have turned to the most prominent peculiarity of Prussian nationality, to her warlike element, and not without result. He would have known that to-day, as in the era of our fathers, the sound of the trumpet which calls to the standard of the father of the country, has lost none of its charm for Prussian ears, whether the question concern the defence of the frontier or the fame or greatness of Prussia."

It has been said that the publication of the Diary of Frederick III. would diminish the claims of Prince Bismarck, considered as one of the founders of the new German Empire and of German unity. It does not seem so to me. The extracts which I have just given (and I might give many more, conceived in the same spirit) show conclusively that Prince Bismarck has never understood German unity as it was understood by many of the framers of the abortive Constitution of Frankfort. He always maintained that Prussia would have the right to decide what the nature of the Constitution should be, at the risk of casting the sword in the balance; and the sword was cast when, after the Danish war, Austria and Prussia fought for the hegemony of Germany. Nothing can show better the character of the German policy of Prince Bismarck than his conduct after Sadowa: with regard to Hanover, he used, to its full extent, the right of the conqueror; he spared Saxony and Austria, and he did not deprive them of a single province. It was enough for him that Hanover should cease to form an independent country in the very heart of Prussia, and that Prussia should have the hegemony of all the German provinces, as far as the Main. He did not wish to inflict on Austria such a blow that she could not forget or forgive. After Sadowa, the Prussian armies might have pursued their victory and entered Vienna triumphantly. They did not, and the preliminaries of Nikolsburg were signed.

This policy has borne its fruits: Austria and Prussia are now allied by the strongest ties. In certain eventualities their armies would be united in the field, and this certainty has become the best guarantee of European peace. Those who may be inclined to reproach Prince Bismarck with wavering and hesitating on the subject of the Constitution of the new German Empire, will do well to reflect on the results of the policy of Prussia after Sadowa. History may be familiarly compared to a fine piece of tapestry: we see generally only one side of it, and it is not usual to look on the side where the design is vague, where the colors seem mixed, and where strings of silk or wool hang in confusion. Few know all that remains hidden, for instance, under the great work of Italian unity. What we see is only the result: we are ignorant of many of the means—the obscure, sometimes the immoral instruments, the hesitations, the fears, the treasons, the dirty work of the kitchen. I doubt whether Cavour kept a diary; but if he did, and if he told everything in his diary, what should we not find in it! It is perhaps as well that history, in its great lines, should assume rapidly a legendary form.

The creation of the new German Empire, sprung out of the war of 1870, was not an artificial work; it was, in fact, the result of a work which had been going on for more than half a century in the German mind, which had remained tentative, which had at times been fostered by popular revolution, and sometimes by the ambition of sovereigns. It is not to be wondered at if, at the moment when the dream was becoming a reality, when all the German energies were united, when all aspirations were common, those who had the responsibilities of the situation felt some anxiety and some hesitation. All the allies of Prussia had responded readily to her call; could she sacrifice them? All the confederate princes had lent their armies to the Emperor William; was it for him to humble them and to deprive them of their rights? Practically, the question to solve was this: Was the imperial crown to be offered to the King of Prussia by popular assemblies, or by a great German assembly like that of Frankfort, or was it to be offered by the German princes, and what were to be the new relations of the princes and the Emperor?

The work of Italian unity ended in the destruction of all the Italian States save one: Parma, Modena, the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, are no more; the Pope has lost his temporal power. Such has not been the solution adopted by Prince Bismarck and his sovereign. "E pluribus unum" has been their device. Believers, as they both were, in the rights of kings (qualified by the right of conquest), both enemies of what is vaguely called revolution, they did not give the imperial power the basis of the popular will: they preserved the historical continuity, as far as events allowed them to do so, and left their autonomy to all the German States that entered into the great confederacy, at the head of which stands the Emperor, still King of Prussia. The army still remains the pillar of the state, and Prussia still remains the pillar of the Empire. There has really been no radical change in the views of Prince Bismarck, since 1849; he remained, when he respectfully opposed some of the views of Frederick III., what he was at the time when, in all the vigor of youth, he opposed the German policy of Herr von Radowitz.

MILTON'S LEONORA.

MANTUA, September 11, 1888.

THE investigations of Alessandro Ademollo into the early history of Italian music, and especially of the opera, have brought out many interesting facts with regard to the life of Milton's Leonora, to whom the poet wrote three Latin epigrams, and who probably inspired some of his sonnets. The various monographs of Signor Ademollo are dry and hard to read; but they contain many documents and extracts from contemporary authors, and offer us a glimpse of an interesting period in the life of a small court, as well as of intrigues at Rome in the seventeenth century.

The well-known Eastern traveller, Pietro della Valle, wrote to a friend in 1640:

"Whoever has seen or heard, as I have, Signora Adriana in her youthful years, with that beauty which all the world knows of, sitting among the nets on the seashore at Posilippo, with her gilded harp in her hand, must needs confess that even in our times there are sirens on those shores; but beneficent sirens, adorned with beauty as well as virtue, and not, like the ancient ones, malevolent and man-killing."

This siren was Adriana (or more properly Andreana) Basile, born at Posilippo about 1580, one of a numerous family. Her brother, Giovanni Battista Basile, obtained some literary reputation, but is chiefly known as the author of the 'Pentamerone' or 'Lo cunto de li cunte,' dear to all lovers of folk-lore and tales, which, though not published till after his death, was immediately translated into German and English, as well as into Italian, and even into Bolognese. Her husband, Muzio Barone, was in the service of one of the Caraffas, Prince of Stigliano, who kept him occupied in managing one of his distant estates, while the beautiful Adriana held a sort of musical court at Naples, where she was adored by all the poets, wits, and fine young gentlemen of the time. These, beginning with Caraffa himself, addressed her adulatory verses, all more or less bad. Even the poet Marino knew her before being obliged to run away from Naples, and wrote for her six sonnets and two madrigals; while, long after, the remembrance of her inspired him with the celebrated octave in the seventh canto of the 'Adone.' Although Marino says, at a time when she was very old or already dead,

"... intenerir col dolce canto
Suol la bell' Adriana i dolci affetti,
E con la voce e con la vista intanto
Ir per due strade e saettare i petti."

and Chiabrera and other poets even give particular descriptions of her, yet we must believe that her beauty came chiefly from her voice and from her expression. We know that she had the rare combination of golden or blond hair with very black eyes, and that her hands were white and shapely; but her portraits are not attractive, and Cardinal Gonzaga, before hearing her sing, said only that she was "rather beautiful than otherwise"; while another priest (who was, however, more concerned about her soul than her body) wrote: "She is a stout lady, and although not pretty, is not so ugly as I have been given to understand. As far as I have been able to find out with the greatest diligence, she leads an honest life, but is, nevertheless, an alluring and wonderfully seductive siren—a Neapolitan Armida."

When the fair Adriana was at the height of her reputation at Naples, her portrait and the accounts given of her induced Vincenzo Gonzaga, Duke of Mantua, to invite her to become one of the inmates of his musical harem. The

Duke, who had enjoyed, and apparently had deserved, much ill-repute in his early life (although he does not really seem to have been much to blame for the death of the Admirable Crichton, whom he has been accused of murdering in cold blood), held at this time the most brilliant court in Italy. He was a patron and protector of the fine arts; he had recently been honored by the visit of Rubens; and his company of singers and musicians was the best in Europe. At first Adriana did not require much persuasion; but she suddenly repented, and there was need of all the efforts of the Duke's special envoy, and of many letters from himself and the Duchess to the Viceroy of Naples and to Princess Stigliano, succeeding each other rapidly for three months, to induce the singer to start. After still further delay at Rome and Florence, she finally arrived at Mantua at the end of June, and immediately joined the Duchess at her country place of Porto, as she was attached to her service. The Duke came on at once to hear her sing. She pleased, and she rapidly acquired great influence. The Duke showed her marked attention and constantly gave her presents; the Duchess could not live without her, as she was the sole consolation in her bad health.

There was a very amusing correspondence between Adriana and the Cardinal Gonzaga, with a curious mixture of thanks for presents and requests for a bit of the true cross from Cardinal Borghese; instead of which, the Cardinal being ill, she only received medals and rosaries. She expressed her gratitude for two love songs and remarks on the manner of singing them; and, in acknowledging the medals, asked for "some ballad or gay little song," and wished him the Papacy. The Cardinal made a short visit to Mantua, where he enjoyed her society, and the next winter wanted to take her to Naples with him. This was, of course, impossible, as she had much to do at court, in addition to the regular Friday concerts, where she sang madrigals composed for her by the Cardinal, as well as songs sent expressly to her from Savona by Chiabrera, who was in receipt of a pension from the Duke, and who recommended that "they should be sung in a noble audience suited to such a great singer."

During a temporary absence of Adriana in Milan, where she was greatly tempted to remain, the poor Duchess of Mantua, Eleanora de' Medici, died, and the Duke, though himself far from well, immediately set about looking for a new wife, and even thought of remarrying his first wife, a Princess of Parma, whom he had divorced and sent into a convent. What was most necessary to him was a large dowry, for in a reign of twenty-five years he had run through twenty millions of gold scudi, and his exchequer was at a very low ebb. He had frequent itchings to have recourse to alchemy; but although some experiments were made in the Palazzo di Te, and there were efforts to buy up the secrets of professors of the great art, he generally recoiled before the expense, as alchemy turned out to be the most costly way of producing gold yet discovered. He died, too, soon after, in February, 1612, but not before he had given to Adriana and her husband the barony and the title of Piancerreto, and had procured for their son, from the Duke of Savoy, the white cross of the order of SS. Maurizio and Lazzaro. Just about this time a little daughter was born to Adriana, who was named Leonora, and was christened in the Duke's chamber, he and his acknowledged mistress, the Marchesa di Grano, standing sponsors. On this occasion he presented the mother with a pearl necklace worth 300 ducats. This child was Milton's Leonora.

Duke Vincenzo was succeeded by his eldest son Francesco, who immediately made very necessary reforms in the court; but the position of Adriana and her husband remained unchanged. Indeed, we have a very charming picture of the ducal matrimonial felicity, in a letter from the Duchess, Margherita of Savoy, begging Adriana to come and console her with her singing while the Duke is out fishing in the Mincio; and another from the Duke describing his luck, sending her some of the catch, as well as fruit from his garden. Francesco reigned scarcely ten months, when he died of the smallpox, and was succeeded by his brother Ferdinand, the Cardinal, who obtained a dispensation to marry, and resigned his sacred office in favor of his younger brother Vincenzo. This latter, when engaged in the siege of Nizza, found nothing better to do than to write to Adriana the details of his valorous exploits. Ferdinand was detained in his lovely villa, La Favorita, by a fever, and begged Adriana to come and visit him; but although he signed the letter, "The sick Cardinal Duke of Mantua," he dated it, "In the Ducal Bed," and Adriana thought it more prudent to pay a visit to Verona, which was desired by the Marchesa di Canossa; whereupon the Cardinal used the language of a sovereign, and she remained at Mantua, and thus persuaded the Cardinal to use his authority in collecting some debts due to her in Naples, and in enabling her son to make a good marriage there. The better to affirm her position, Adriana had her pretty sister Margherita come on from Naples—one sister was already in Mantua. Margherita was in high favor for about two months, when she was married to a Mantuan gentleman and given a large dowry, "in consideration of her great services"; and the Duke married the unfortunate Camilla Faa, who was obliged to take the veil after the birth of a son. The Duke then married Catherine Medici, sister of Cosmo II. Vincenzo became only nominally a Cardinal, for he never went to Rome nor received the hat. On the contrary, he secretly married a lady whom he afterwards maltreated; for, it being bruited about that she had bewitched him, she was sent to Rome and imprisoned in the Castle of St. Angelo. Pope Paul V. was so indignant that he ordered that for a hundred years no member of the house of Gonzaga should become a cardinal.

During this time Adriana seems to have been a little in the shade, and, while her younger sisters were superseding her, went to Rome, where she found the customary worship of the sonneteers and the kindly attentions of three distinguished cardinals; and then to Naples, where she was able to show that she had not been dismissed in disgrace by the frequent and amiable letters of both the Duke and the Duchess. After her return to Mantua she reached the culmination of her glory in the great Festival of 1621, in honor of the election of Pope Gregory XV. and the accession of Philip IV. to the throne of Spain, and in the visit of the Mantuan Court to Venice in 1623, where she created a veritable furore. Next year Adriana went again to Naples, leaving at Mantua, as hostages for her return, her younger children, including Leonora. She never returned. First, she had fears of war, and then she again became a mother, although her eldest son had been married several years. The Duchess hinted to Adriana that she was not likely to return so long as the Duke of Alba was viceroy of Naples; but the real reason was, that there were negotiations on foot for her going with her two daughters to Warsaw, to the court of Prince Vladislas Sigismond, the elected Grand Duke of Muscovy. This project proved impossible, and Adriana again turned her thoughts to the Court of Mantua; but the Duke Ferdinand died, and the next year his successor, Vincenzo II.; and the French Duc de Nevers, who succeeded him, would have none of her.

Meanwhile Leonora was growing up. At the age of sixteen she was already celebrated at Naples; and in 1633, when she was twenty-two, the family moved to Rome, where their frequent concerts gave them a distinguished position. It must have been at these concerts that Milton made the acquaintance of Adriana and Leonora. He could not have seen them at the theatre in the palace of the Cardinal Barberini, of which he speaks in a letter to Holstenius, because at that time women were not permitted to act on the stage, and in the Barberini at least were not admitted even as spectators. This theatre had been built in 1633; and during the Carnival of 1634, Prince Alexander Charles of Poland being in Rome, a melodrama or opera was performed there called "St. Alexis," the music by Stefano Landi, and the drama by Giulio Rospigliosi, afterwards Pope Clement IX. Another melodrama on a religious subject—what would now be called an oratorio—the "Life of St. Theodora," was played there in the carnival of the two following years, after which, oratorios having been admitted into the monasteries, the Barberini theatre emancipated itself from sacred subjects, and gave in 1637 "Il Falcone," and in 1639 a comic opera, "Chi soffra speri," written also by the future Pope. The carnival that year finished on the 8th of March. We have two descriptions of the performance on March 1, probably the one which Milton attended, on a Sunday, too—one in a despatch from Montecuccoli to the Duke of Modena, and another in the *Avvise di Roma*. It is estimated that 3,500 people were present, most of whom were received at the door by Cardinal Antonio, who stood waiting (not Cardinal Francesco Barberini, as Milton mistakenly says). Great praise was given to the music, the costumes, and especially to the scenery, which represented in one act part of the Barberini Gardens, and in another the Fair of Farfa; there being in both cases many horses, carriages, and carts introduced on the stage. The musical partition exists in the Barberini library; the libretto is nowhere to be found.

Italian writers will have it that Milton was a lover of Leonora, this being to them a natural explanation of his admiration for her. But there seems not to be the slightest reason for such a statement, except such inferences as may be drawn from Milton's own poems. In the same year in which he was in Rome, Cardinal Richelieu, with projects in his head for opera at Paris, sent to Rome André Maugars, his favorite viola-player, who made a report to him dated October 1, 1639, from which—as it is a very rare pamphlet—I quote. Speaking of two other singers he says:

"They do not seem to me to sing so agreeably as Leonora, daughter of that beautiful Adriana of Mantua, who was a miracle in her day, and who worked a still greater one in bringing into the world the most perfect person for singing well. I should think myself doing wrong to the talent of this illustrious Leonora if I should not mention her to you as a wonder of the world. . . . I shall limit myself to telling you only that she has the gift of a fine wit, and very good judgment in discerning bad from good music, which she understands perfectly well, since she composes, so that she knows what she is singing, and pronounces well, and expresses the sense of the words. She does not pique herself on being pretty, but she is neither disagreeable nor coquettish. She sings with an assured modesty, a generous simplicity, and a sweet gravity. Her voice is of great compass, true, sonorous, and harmonious, which she softens and swells without effort or grimaces. Her

outbursts and her sighs are not lascivious. Her looks are not immodest, and her gestures such as suit a young girl. In passing from one tone to another, she sometimes causes one to feel the divisions of the enharmonic and chromatic scales with so much skill and charm that every one is delighted with this beautiful and difficult method of singing. She has no need to beg the aid of a theorbo or a viol, for she plays both instruments perfectly well. I have had the pleasure of hearing her sing several times—more than thirty different airs, with second and third couplets which she composed herself. One day she did me the special favor to sing together with her mother and sister, her mother playing the lyre, her sister the harp, and herself the theorbo. This concert, composed of three beautiful voices and three different instruments, surprised so much my fancy, and carried me off into such a rapture, that I forgot my mortal condition and thought that I was among the angels."

The ultimate effect of this letter was that Leonora, with her husband Giulio Cesare Castellani, was invited to Paris in 1644 by Cardinal Mazarin, who had probably himself known her in Rome when he was an intimate of the Barberini Palace. There is probably an allusion to her in one of the libels of the Fronde, 'Lettre d'un religieux au Prince de Condé,' written by Brusse, the Curé of St. Roch, which says: "Qui ne scait ce que coustent à la France les comédiens-chanteurs qu'il a fait venir d' Italie, parmi lesquels estoit une infâme qu'il avoit desbouchée à Rome, e par l'entremise de laquelle il s'étoit mis dans les bonnes grâces du Cardinal Antonio?"

Leonora arrived in Paris in March, 1644, and remained there till April, 1645, when she returned to Rome, and there passed the remainder of her life (Fétis to the contrary notwithstanding). She is mentioned by Mme. de Motteville in her Memoirs, and we are told that once, when Anne of Austria was walking in her gardens, she met the poet Voiture silent and sad, and on asking him what he was thinking about, he replied with an impromptu containing an allusion to love and to the Duke of Buckingham. The Queen took it in good part, and Leonora, who had a good memory, immediately sang the words to one of her airs. A letter from the Abbé Scaglia to Christine de France, Regent of Savoy, tells how well she was looked upon in France, how she was lodged and maintained in a house belonging to the Cardinal, and what fine presents had been given to her by the Queen, the Duke of Orleans, and others of the Court. Among them, the wife of Charles I., Queen Henrietta Maria, then living at the Louvre, presented the friend of Milton with a diamond ring worth more than a thousand scudi.

Monsignor Rospigliosi, the author of the opera acted at the Palazzo Barberini, wrote also a sonnet on Leonora's picture, which was included with others in the 'Applausi Poetici,' published in her honor in the year of Milton's visit. When Adriana was dead, and Leonora, her sister, and her niece had begun again their musical evenings after her return from Paris, the house was frequented by cardinals, and Rospigliosi was one of the most constant visitors. He was made a cardinal in 1657, and seems almost immediately to have been considered *papabile*. While Alexander VII. was still in good health, there was, as always, talk of his probable successor. Donna Berenice Chigi, wife of the Pope's nephew, meeting Leonora one day, said sarcastically: "Signora Leonora, my Pope is in excellent health: how is yours getting on?" In 1667 Leonora got her Pope, for Rospigliosi ascended the papal chair as Clement IX. The new Pope was at first a little shy of Leonora's influence, but he gradually yielded to it, and no one was scandalized; for he was sixty-seven years old, and his conduct had been thought exemplary, although he had always been gallant and polite. He was no sooner elected than he sent presents to the ladies, and especially to his gossips. Raggi, the Genoese Resident at Rome, wrote: "He is very amiable to the singer Leonora, called the Adrianella. The Duke of Bracciano sent the Pope a queen-fish (*regina*) from his lake, weighing fifty pounds. The Pope sent it to Signora Leonora as the queen of *virtuose*."

At this time Leonora tried to pose as a fine lady, and would have been glad to conceal her quality of singer. At a reception at the Venetian Embassy, while she was making her compliments, the Marchesa Spada said: "This is Signora Leonora Castellana, the *virtuosa*. You may perhaps have known how famous she is for singing. She has sung very well in Rome and France; and to the Queen, too." Leonora grew red, and replied, evidently annoyed: "I only sang three times to the Queen. I am known otherwise." On going away she kept complaining of the Marchesa for having revealed her musical faculties, saying: "What coldness, what coldness, what insipid praises! Why hunt up such memories?" Leonora was obliged to submit to many such petty slights, but she nevertheless maintained her position, and was considered almost to belong to the papal household. Her house was a meeting-place of society; she always had her following of cardinals, and sometimes even the Pope himself visited her; and, when seeing her in public, would indulge in familiar little jests which made the cardinals laugh. Raggi reports: "The Rospigliosi family have been again to the Pope, together with the singer Leonora, who complained that the Cardinal de' Medici had left Rome without visiting her," and he adds malignantly and falsely, "She was a little beggar of very low birth, who has made her way by her music and her tongue; a woman who has always been acquainted with everybody, and yet Rome insists on considering her chaste. Fortunate woman!" But Raggi's remarks grow more favorable. On July 26, 1668, he tells of her usual fête for the Scuola Pia, which was crowded; on the 5th of August, that she had received 1,000 scudi from the King of France in part payment of the arrears of her pension, the Pope having praised her to the French Ambassador.

"August 29, 1668.—Leonora, the singer, continually advances in his Holiness's graces. There is not a week in which he does not give her presents three or four times. He has just sent her one of above 400 scudi; but she gives no tips to the messengers, saying that all would go in tips—hers she reserves for Christmas and Easter."

"November 7, 1668.—The Spanish Ambassador was invited by Prince Savelli to a feast at Albano. . . . The Ambassador [the Duke Astorga, of whom many queer stories are told] danced until night, always keeping his spectacles on. . . . Signora Leonora was determined not to dance, was implored by the Ambassador, and at last let herself be overcome. Never is there a day without her receiving a dish from Castelgandolfo, from the Pope's kitchen; and should this fail one day, on the next they send her two."

"March 23, 1669.—At the house of Leonora, the singer, there was a musical representation, and all the Rospigliosi, male as well as female, were present. Leonora sang, and her niece and Monsignore Casale. In every circumstance of his career she has always been the Pope's favorite, and is so now more than ever; and every one seeking a favor has recourse to her."

This is the last mention of her except that she died in April, 1670, less than four months after the death of her protector, Pope Clement.

E. S.

Correspondence.

WHERE ARE THE PLATFORMS?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As the campaign draws to its close, it occurs to me that it would be an interesting task to endeavor to answer the question which heads this communication. The merits of the respective platforms were thoroughly discussed at the time of their adoption: it is curious to observe how they have stood the wear of three months' service.

Let me say at the outstart that we may at once reject all the useless rhetoric in which documents of that kind are apt to abound. In a vigorous condition of party life, where a large body of men is cemented by the force of conviction, simplicity in the party's declaration is inevitable. No two ideas could possibly be brought to bear upon such an organization without producing hopeless cross divisions. The endeavor to utilize local currents of every sort indicates, therefore, only the decay of genuine and healthy political activity—shows that there is a considerable body of men who can be held to their allegiance by appeals and flattery which an intelligent man would despise, that the party is no longer animated by a single purpose, that it contains within it those who are beyond the reach of ideas. Whatever declarations these platforms contain which can be properly called party matters, are easily reduced to a single head. The question of civil-service reform, for example, cannot by any means be made a party question: its sole hope is the transformation of political life by the infusion of serious interest into our public affairs, and in the adoption of its principles by men of all parties. As it is now, there is no public man except the President who has shown a thorough understanding of its principles; and the President is so handicapped by his failure to secure it firmly that his power to do good has been greatly lessened. The reform must be upheld strictly for four years, and must have stood the test of a change of parties in the Presidential office, before it can be considered as finally established; and the leaven which is just beginning to affect our national life has yet far to spread until we can count upon this. As for the other issues raised in these platforms (the questions of Trusts, of pensions, etc.), they are mere corollaries to the one vital question of the hour, that of tariff taxation.

If the Republican platform has any meaning at all—and it contains no statement more explicit—the party was pledged to maintain the tariff as it stands, even if it became necessary to abolish the entire internal-revenue system, whiskey tax and all. Notice now, that, unlike the sweeping general statements in which astute politicians are supposed to say much and mean nothing, here is proposed a perfectly practicable scheme of legislation; it differs from the denunciation of Trusts in the same document in that it proposes an end which an Act of Congress can at once secure. It says nothing, moreover, of maintaining the principle of the tariff while submitting its details to revision; it is an emphatic protest against touching it at all, and so the Republicans in the House interpreted it.

A very slight experience with this "plank" convinced its authors that the thing would not serve; and not only has it been sedulously ignored, but every speaker or writer has proceeded to formulate his own notion of just what the party intends to do. In the course of this operation some curious conflicts have arisen,

which must have seriously disquieted the gentlemen charged with the conduct of the Republican canvass. Mr. Harrison, for example, escaped the difficulty by wisely remarking that the question was really too remote to require discussion. Mr. Blaine, disdaining to take the hint, while accepting the platform, has yet found repeated opportunity to oppose the repeal of the whiskey tax. To make matters still worse, the contingency which, a few weeks ago, seemed to Mr. Harrison too remote to require consideration, has suddenly become so pressing that at this late day the Republicans have introduced into the Senate a bill to reduce the revenue some $75,000,000. The situation is still further complicated by a grave doubt as to the sincerity of this last move. Between the platform, Mr. Harrison, Mr. Blaine, the Senate, and the House, each in its sphere the official instrument of the party, how is a disinterested voter, eager to vote intelligently and dispassionately—how is such a voter, Mr. Quay, to decide?

But the real position of the party on this question—the question of the "condition, not the theory," the question as to how it proposes to meet the details of the tariff problem, is, to my mind, of less importance than the mere fact of the hopeless confusion of counsels which prevails in its ranks, indicating, as it does, the utter absence of purpose, its utter helplessness in the presence of a serious difficulty. Consider for a moment what intensity of conviction must animate the main body of the party when each of its accredited leaders is thus independently permitted to define its policy and to tamper with its official declarations! We can draw from this but one conclusion: on this grave question the party is incapable of carrying out as a unit any scheme of action, be it good or bad.

The attitude of the Democratic party, on the other hand, gives them two decided advantages: (1.) Their position is in perfect accord with that of their leader. The platform itself was somewhat timid. It was a mistake, it seems to me, to endorse the Mills Bill by an independent resolution, rather than in the platform itself; but any doubt that may have arisen at that time has been happily dissipated. The progress of events, instead of carrying the party away from any definite course of action, has steadily fastened it to such a conrse more and more securely. The vote by which the Mills Bill was passed, the President's letter of acceptance, the unmistakable tone of Mr. Thurman's speeches, the complete disappearance of Mr. Randall and his few adherents from the scene of action, the eager and general acceptance of the Mills Bill throughout the party, are conclusive and final as to its ultimate purpose.

(2.) The unequivocal stand of the Democratic party has united to it the disinterested intelligence of the country. In the ideal republic, the conduct of every citizen is actuated only by the purest considerations; among us at this moment the number of those who so govern themselves, or who are able so to govern themselves, is small. It is not, indeed, so small but that in States where votes are most needed they may decide the contest; but their real importance lies quite apart from this. It is this small body of thinking men to whom we must look to give tone, elevation, character to the nation. If, indeed, as a nation, we are ever to be thoroughly united by the bonds of intellectual sympathies, by the tie of common aspirations; if we are ever to produce poets, philosophers, and statesmen who are to exemplify and interpret to the world the American ideal, and if this expression is to possess any abiding value, then in the increase of this body and the spread of its influence lies our only hope. For the first time, the generation which has known only the experience of the last decade sees this influence again making its way, slowly yet effectively, into the atmosphere of common life; but our politicians, who have, as a class, little sympathy with ideas, and no appreciation of their subtle but insuperable force, have yet to learn that before their insidious attack the whole structure of error and falsehood must crumble into ruin.

It is plain, then, that, while the Republicans began with a clear statement of their intentions, they have steadily drifted away from it, and that the party is rapidly disintegrating. On the other hand, beginning somewhat doubtfully, the Democratic party is every moment more completely identifying itself with the policy on which reason, philosophy, and patriotism alike unite. This is not, however, the policy of free trade: a contest between protection and free trade would at least be rational, but for such a contest the present one is only preparing the way. There is no feature of the Mills Bill, in fact, which the faith of a sincere but disinterested protectionist would require him to reject. The theory of protection requires only such duties as equalize competition, not duties which, like the present ones, give the home manufacturer an incontestable monopoly. The fight is, therefore, not against protection, but against protection run mad—against the whole breed of vicious and injurious notions to which a surfeited treasury has given rise. It is a struggle, therefore, claiming far more importance than could be claimed for a mere matter of economical policy. The Blair Bill, the Texas Seed Bill, the Dependent Pension Bill, River and Harbor Bills, Public Building Bills — does not the place which these measures occupy in the national legislature speak volumes as to the tone of our public life, as to its gradual usurpation of functions which can only corrupt it, as to the predominance in its deliberations of influences of "which all honest men should beware"? When men like Sherman and Edmunds yield to an infection like this, has not the evil already taken deep hold? A more righteous war has not been waged, indeed, since the war against slavery; and the mental and moral obliquity of those who succeeded in persuading themselves that slavery was a natural and beneficent institution, has much in common with the attitude of men who can honestly believe that the present tariff, instead of being iniquitous and dangerous, is really a source of good to all.

F.

Louisville, Ky., October 11, 1888.

THE TEACHER AND THE COMMUNITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Several of our leading periodicals have of late much deplored the fact that the personality of the teacher has come to count for so little in our public schools, and attribute this serious defect largely to the custom in most of our cities which gives the preference to teachers who have been graduated from their own schools, and who, familiar only with the methods there employed, repeat the same processes until they "become automatons, capable of imparting only cut-and-dried information."

In happy contrast to this machine-like system, I wish to call attention to the public schools of a Western town where it has for years been the policy of the School Board never to employ one of their own graduates. The teachers, carefully chosen with reference to character and training, come from different sections of the country, and sometimes represent almost as many States as individuals. Thus various methods are suggested, new and large views of life are interchanged, and a tolerant spirit is promoted. While there is an able superintendent, each teacher is allowed in large measure to work out results after her own ideas. The personality of the teacher thus becomes a large factor, and makes of each room a workshop for character building no less than for mind training.

Seldom does a public school enter so largely into the vital interests of a town as this. It is not unusual for the pastors of the several churches to address the teachers upon the responsibilities of their high calling, and also to announce as a special theme the duty of the parents towards the teachers, in giving them cordial entrance to their homes, and in cultivating that friendly acquaintance which necessarily brings the child into closer sympathy with both parent and teacher. The result has been beneficial in a marked degree, and it is no exaggeration to say that the teachers have had a large part in shaping the social environments of their scholars.

The ability of the teachers is indicated by the fact that many of them have been called to higher institutions of learning, while some have achieved a national reputation; but we may believe that the moral result of their teaching is due largely to the liberal spirit and friendly tone of the citizens, which have made it possible for the teachers to develop their true worth, and to leave behind them living influences which cannot fail to aid their successors in fitting the youth for intelligent and worthy citizenship.

C.

September 28, 1888.

ALLITERATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A few years ago, Professor Zupitza, in reviewing some book on English literature, asked with a sort of pathos when people were going to stop talking of 1328 as the birth-year of Chaucer. By this time, perhaps, his complaint is groundless. But there is another error which, ancient enough, seems to be enjoying a remarkably green old age. It is the idea that alliteration consists in the agreement of the initial letters of two or more words. The dictionaries support this statement. According to Worcester's definition, we have alliteration in two words like "get" and "gnaw"; still more unhesitatingly would "rebel" and "return" be accepted as an alliteration. It is surprising enough to find Grant Allen, in his book on 'Anglo-Saxon Britain,' stating (p. 203) that "what answered to rhyme [in Anglo-Saxon verse] was a regular and marked alliteration, each couplet having a certain *key-letter*, with which three principal words in the couplet began." Now, every student of philology knows what a mass of error has resulted from this fatal trick of talking about a letter when we mean a sound. "Alliteration" is rhyme, as Grant Allen intimates; only it is the beginning, not the end, of a syllable which we regard. We do not call "bough" and "cough" a rhyme, nor "swaying" and "climbing." Similarly, for alliteration, with "get" and "gnaw," "rebel" and "return." In short, alliteration is an agreement of initial sounds in accented syllables. This ought to be a truism; but when Grant Allen prints "Ætheling" as alliterating with "Eternal," there is evidently room for the missionary.

Yours, etc., Francis B. Gummere.

Haverford College, October 6, 1888.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co.'s forthcoming publications include 'From Flag to Flag: Experiences and Adventures in the South during the War in Mexico and in Cuba'; 'Florida of To-Day,' a guide for tourists and settlers, by James Wood Davidson; 'A Dictionary of Terms of Art,' illustrated; 'A Manual of Decorative Composition,' by Henri Mayeux, also illustrated; 'Nature and Man: Essays Scientific and Philosophical,' by the late Dr. W. B. Carpenter; 'Astronomy with an Opera-Glass,' by Garrett P. Serviss, illustrated; 'The Folk-Lore of Plants,' by T. F. Thiselton Dyer; 'Handbook of Historical and Geographical Phthisiology,' by Dr. Geo. A. Evans; 'The Development of the Intellect,' from the German of W. Preyer; 'Memory: What It Is and How to Improve It,' by David Kay; 'Outlines of Pedagogics,' by F. W. Parker; 'Hints about Men's Dress,' by W. H Barrett; 'How She Did It; or, Comfort on $150 a Year,' by Mary Cruger; 'Raleigh Westgate; or, Epimenides in Maine,' by Helen Kendrick Johnson; and 'The Secret of Fontaine-la-Croix,' by Margaret Field.

The Baker & Taylor Co. have in preparation 'Distinguished Witnesses to the Great Value and Success of Foreign Missions.'

Thomas Whittaker is about to publish a library edition of Pascal's 'Thoughts,' from the text of Molinier, by C. Kegan Paul. He will also begin a new series of illustrated books under the title of "Whittaker's Home Library."

Macmillan & Co. will bring out directly a handsome two-volume edition, Globe octavo, of 'Robert Elsmere,' uniform in size with their edition of Matthew Arnold's writings, and manufactured expressly for the American market.

'Her Only Brother,' from the German of "W. Heimburg" (Bertha Behrens), is in the press of T. Y. Crowell & Co.

Next month, Ginn & Co., Boston, will have ready 'A Brief History of Greek Philosophy,' by B. C. Burt.

Miss Minna Irving's poem, "The Haunted Heart," which appeared in the *Century* in 1885, will furnish the title to a volume of selected verse to be published by Belford, Clarke & Co. on November 1.

Wm. Henry Hurlbert's 'Ireland under Coercion,' which in Scotland bears the imprint of David Douglas, Edinburgh, is to be issued here by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. They will shortly publish also the First Supplement to 'Poole's Index to Periodical Literature,' edited by W. F. Poole and W. I. Fletcher; and new editions of the Poetical Works of the late Emma Lazarus, and of Hawthorne's 'Scarlet Letter,' the latter illustrated by Mary Hallock Foote.

A new and complete edition of the works of the poet and critic Giosué Carducci is announced by Zanichelli of Bologna. It will form about twenty 16mo volumes of about 400 pages each, obtainable separately at four francs apiece. Zanichelli has been for some time the publisher of the poems of Carducci; but this author's critical and literary essays have been dispersed through many books, in part as prefaces and critical introductions, and have never before been collected. The first volume now in press, 'Discorsi Letterari,' includes his recent address at the eighth centenary of the University of Bologna, his lecture on the work of Dante, commemorative addresses on Virgil, Petrarch, and Boccaccio, and his lectures on the development of the national literature and on the literary revival in Italy.

Arminius Vámbéry, the well-known Hungarian traveller and writer on Eastern subjects, is at present at C nstantinople together with Mr. William Fraknói, the Secretary-General of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences. They are nominally engaged in looking for further remains of the celebrated library of Mathias Corvinus, which was taken from Buda to Constantinople during the Turkish occupation. Some waifs from this library were presented by the Sultan to the Royal Library some years ago during one of the enthusiastic *rapprochements* between Hungary and Turkey. More books, however, are believed still to exist, either in the library of the seraglio or in the collections of the chief mosques. Mr. Vámbéry has, besides, the intention of studying the changes in Turkey since he was last there, and will probably collect his notes into a volume. He has been received by the Sultan, who told him that his works had aided in imparting to the foreign mind a correct knowledge of the principles and doctrines of Islam; and who, in recognition of his literary merits, conferred upon him the Grand Cordon of the Order of the Medjidie.

A fresh issue of Sir Walter Scott's edition of Anthony Hamilton's 'Memoirs of Count Grammont' is ready for the season of costly publications (London: John C. Nimmo; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.). It is in one volume, the largest octavo, with broad margins, heavy paper, and handsome (though not matchless) typography. The illustrations, however, probably constitute its excuse for being. These consist of a portrait of Hamilton, plus thirty-four etchings, great and small, by French artists—L. Boisson, after C. Delort. The most of these are ornamental vignettes, of no little delicacy and grace, and all have been carefully studied with reference to the costume of the period. The designer has seized the grosser opportunities afforded by the dissolute text for a few plates that could be spared, however much in keeping with their surroundings.

Mrs. Brookfield's 'Collection of Letters of Thackeray, 1847–1855,' has just been revived in a very dainty edition by Charles Scribner's Sons. The rubricated title-page is still further adorned by a portrait of Thackeray in a harmonious tint.

Four more volumes of the new translations from Victor Hugo, in course of publication by Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., have been received. The two volumes of 'L'Homme qui rit' have been rendered into English by Miss Isabel Hapgood, whose versions of 'Notre-Dame de Paris,' 'Les Misérables,' and 'Les Travailleurs de la Mer' have already been commended in the *Nation*. A quite unwarrantable liberty has been taken with the title of the present work, which has been altered without necessity into 'By Order of the King,' upon both the title-page and the cover, although a literal and entirely satisfactory translation of the original name, 'The Man Who Laughs,' is retained upon the first as a secondary and explanatory title, and is given as a heading to the pages throughout. In the original, "By Order of the King," is merely the name given to Part II. of the work. The two volumes of the 'History of a Crime' continue the series, which, with these personal recollections of the *Coup d'État*, goes beyond the romances of Victor Hugo into his political writings. The translation is a very readable one, and is by Mr. Huntington Smith.

Little, Brown & Co. are also publishing "Victor Hugo's Romances" in a new library edition, to be completed in twelve volumes, and to include translations of the five most famous of his prose fictions, 'Notre-Dame,' 'The Man Who Laughs,' 'The Toilers of the Sea,' 'Ninety-three,' and 'Les Misérables.' The last of these, in five volumes, was issued last year, and we now have 'Notre-Dame' in two volumes and 'Ninety-three' in one. The books are smaller and more compact than those of the edition published by T. Y. Crowell & Co. They are printed in large, clear type, upon handsome paper, at the University Press of Cambridge, so well known for the excellence of its work. 'Ninety-three' is well translated by Mrs. Aline Delano. The translations of 'Les Misérables' and of 'Notre-Dame' are the best English ones, revised, with all omissions supplied, and special translations of important chapters, as the publishers inform us.

From the same house we have the first of the series of "The D'Artagnan Romances," Alexandre Dumas's 'Three Musketeers,' in two volumes, brilliantly bound in highly-gilt cloth of a wine color. The typography is of parallel excellence with that of the Victor Hugos just described, and the size most convenient for the hands. A portrait of Dumas is prefixed.

In line with the foregoing for the gift season is the pocketable oblong 16mo 'Essays of Elia,' first fruits (to our knowledge) of the "Temple Library"—a limited edition, represented in this country by Macmillan & Co. The Chiswick Press has done well by these two volumes, of which the type is clear, if small, and the margins generous. Pretty etchings by Herbert Railton are scattered here and there, and Mr. Augustine Birrell has supplied a biographical sketch, and sparse, unobtrusive footnotes. This edition is one to be fond of, and therefore good to bestow.

A holiday garb is given to the American reprint of the 'Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám' in Edward Fitzgerald's English verse (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The merit of this edition is that it gives the fourth (and virtually final) form of the quatrains as worked over by the translator, as well as the first form, each having its special beauties and felicities, and both being cherishable by the lover of noble poetry. The editor has added, besides, some literal versions of his own by way of comparison, in a list of references to the sources upon which Fitzgerald drew; a biographical sketch of the English poet; Fitzerald's own account of Omar, and notes; and a letter to Mr. Quaritch, describing Omar's grave, which is pictured in the frontispiece. We predict a wide sale for this volume.

The Henry Irving Shakespeare (Scribner & Welford) has reached the fourth of its six volumes. The responsible editor, Mr. Frank A. Marshall, has the services of a corps of assistants; his supervising and suggestive hand is visible in the plays generally, but "Much Ado About Nothing" is the only one which he edits entirely by himself. Of the remaining four which the volume contains, "The Merry Wives of Windsor" shows the collaboration of the eminent textual scholar, Mr. P. A. Daniel, and "King Henry V." that of a new American hand, Mr. Oscar Fay Adams, who has, we believe, been an assistant of Mr. Rolfe in similar work. "As You Like It" is cared for by Mr. A. Wilson Verity, and "Twelfth Night" by Mr. Arthur Symons. Of the general merits of this edition we have already spoken. An appendix of corrections is promised for the last volume. The work will possess special interest as an example of the merits and demerits of coöperative scholarship in a particularly trying field; its success would be more doubtful were it not that so large a portion of the labor of the Shakspere commentator now is compilation and condensation from

older scholars. The illustrations are plentiful, but show no improvement.

John Bunyan is the subject of the latest issue in the "Great Writers Series" (London: Walter Scott; New York: T. Whittaker). Canon Venables is the author, and treats both the biography and the literary works of Bunyan fairly and discreetly. He has not attempted to do more than present briefly the facts of Bunyan's life, already known, and recently exhaustively treated by Dr. Brown, and to add the obvious remarks upon his place in our literature. The only new matter which he includes is the warrant for Bunyan's arrest in 1675, lately discovered among the Chauncey papers. This is dated March 4, 1675, and bears the signature of thirteen magistrates. It puts the fact of his third imprisonment beyond doubt, and it sustains the story of Bishop Barlow's alleged interference to procure his release, which has been questioned on the ground of discrepancy in dates; but it should be observed that the Bishop deserved little thanks for what he did. It was suggested by Dr. Brown that the 'Pilgrim's Progress' was begun during this third imprisonment, although he did not have such evidence as we now possess as to the fact of the imprisonment. Canon Venables supports this suggestion, and, as he states, the recovery of the actual date tends to confirm this view. This little Life of Bunyan, as a whole, is to be highly commended, avoiding, as it does, the dryness and tediousness of detail that were inseparable from Dr. Brown's voluminous narrative.

Prof. Charles F. Kroeh, of the Stevens Institute of Technology, adds to his series of 'Drill Books' a little thirty-page pamphlet on 'The Pronunciation of Spanish in Spain and America.' It is as accurate as it is compact, and would undoubtedly work well in the hands of a competent teacher. The phrase, "the Spanish colonies of America," is not well chosen as a term inclusive of Mexico and South America, and is particularly misleading as used by Prof. Kroeh, since the only existing Spanish colony, Cuba, does not, as stated, prevailingly sound *z* and *c* before *e* and *i*, like *s*.

Perhaps the best, because the freshest and most careful, of Mr. Gosse's 'Seventeenth Century Studies' is his paper on Etheredge, the first English dramatist to feel the influence of Molière. Mr. A. Wilson Verity has now edited 'The Works of Sir George Etheredge, Plays and Poems' (London: John C. Nimmo), with all needful notes, and a biographical introduction, in which he has utilized Mr. Gosse's paper, adding not a few illustrative facts of his own finding. As a dramatist, Etheredge is more important chronologically than he is dramatically, but the "Man of Mode; or, Sir Fopling Flutter," made its mark once, and can still be read with interest. The poems here collected are pleasant little bits of society verse, not unlike those of his friends, Sedley and Dorset; while they do not rise to the level of the best *vers de société* of their time, they are easy in style and even easier in morals.

In reviewing Mr. R. W. Lowe's recent edition of Dr. Doran's 'Annals of the Stage,' we expressed a hope that the editor might be induced to bring the book down to date. Now we are glad to learn that this hope is to be gratified, and that Mr. Lowe has in preparation a continuation of 'Their Majesties' Servants' from the death of Edmund Kean, where Dr. Doran left off, to the days of Mr. Henry Irving. It will be published in London by Mr. Nimmo. A continuation of Mr. Ireland's 'Records of the New York Stage' (which stopped in 1860) would be equally welcome.

M. Coquelin *cadet* has written a pleasant little preface for 'Le Guignol des Salons,' a collection of puppet-plays by M. L. Darthenay (Paris: E. Plon, Nourrit & Cie; New York: F. W. Christern). The dozen easy and amusing playlets contained in this volume are intended to be performed by Punch-and-Judy figures—puppets animated by the human thumb and fingers, skilfully concealed inside them. The English-speaking Punch-and-Judy theatre suffers from the monotony of its repertory, which is in fact confined to a single play, "The Life and Misadventures of Mr. Punch." The French, as becomes a race fond of the theatre, refuse to be bound down to a unique spectacle; and this book of M. Darthenay's, like M. de Neuville's 'Pupazzi,' shows that their freedom has been used to advantage.

M. Francis Decrue de Stoutz is a young and ambitious writer, who has hitherto confined his historical researches to the sixteenth century. His work 'La Cour de France et la Société française au xvi^e^ siècle' (Paris: Firmin Didot) is a collection of articles first published in the *Revue Suisse*, after having been delivered as lectures in Geneva, the author's native city. M. Decrue speaks of the 30,000 manuscript letters which he has "transcribed, analyzed, or read" in various European libraries. The present work, however, might have been written without consulting any manuscript authorities, for it contains nothing that cannot be found in some of the best-known and most elementary works on the sixteenth century. The now little read and rather uncritical Monteil has been used much too freely. In spite, however, of the excessive claims made by M. Decrue in his preface, his book is not without merit. It is easily read, and gives on the whole a fair impression of the general tone of thought and state of civilization and culture in the sixteenth century in France. The picture drawn is rather a flattering presentation of a period which had hard lines and dark sides that M. Decrue ignores almost wholly. Of the six chapters into which the work is divided, the third, on the different classes of society, is the most satisfactory.

Paris Illustré (New York: International News Co.) made its début on October 6 in an English dress, with a very palpable squint towards the American public. Its chief colored plates, in short, are portraits of the President and Mrs. Cleveland—the former being the more successful, to our thinking.

French caricaturists are the subject of an illustrated article in *L'Art* for September 1 (Macmillan), by M. Augustin de Buisseret. The occasion of it is a recent work by M. John Grand-Carteret, entitled 'Les Mœurs et la Caricature en France,' of which the appendices have a high bibliographical value. The succeeding issue of September is largely occupied with a general estimate of Rubens's works in the Hermitage at St. Petersburg, by Émile Michel, with a few specimens at second-hand.

Numerous pictorial souvenirs of Fritz Reuter accompany an article in the current issue of *Vom Fels zum Meer* (F. W. Christern), by Oscar Schwebel, on the birthplace of the great humorist—Stavenhagen in Mecklenburg-Schwerin. The conductor who shouts out the name of the station gives it, we are told, a pronunciation midway between Stammhagen and Stappnhagen.

A good copy of Sully's portrait of Andrew Jackson is frontispiece to the October number of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of American History and Biography*. It is published in connection with the closing sketch, by Dr. Stillé, of "The Life and Services of Joel R. Poinsett," which is a useful contribution to the history of Nullification.

Another advance has been made in the leisurely 'Complete Index to *Littell's Living Age*,' the fourteenth part completing the educational section, and beginning that of Fiction (Philadelphia: Edward Roth, No. 1135 Pine Street).

The third number of the publications of the University of Pennsylvania, in the Department of Political Economy and Public Law, is a paper upon ground-rents in Philadelphia, by Edward P. Allinson and Boies Penrose of the bar of that city. It is a well-known fact that there are in Philadelphia more dwelling-houses than voters, so that, as a rule, every family has its own separate abode. The authors of this paper contend, with much force, that the practice of selling land subject to ground-rents has promoted subdivision and facilitated the acquisition of homes by the poorer classes. For the explanation of this tendency we must refer those interested to the monograph itself, which is extremely concise, and contains, withal, an excellent presentation of the legal aspects of these estates. They seem to be peculiar to the State of Pennsylvania.

—The ninth volume in the imposing series of the 'Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. A.' (Washington), opens with the remainder of the long title *Medicine*, and also disposes bodily of the letter N. Like its predecessors, it is a marvel of fulness and accuracy: we have not, in a cursory examination, found even a typographical error, though error is almost courted by the repetition of titles in full, under author and subject respectively. Extraordinary attention is given to biographical data—birth and death of an author, his obituary notice, his portrait, etc. Places form an important feature of the classification: 40 pages are given up to New York State and city, for example. Nostrums, like Norris's Drops, are entered along with the drugs in regular use, *e. g.*, Morphine and Mercury, which fill 7 and 22 pages respectively. Kindred sciences, like Meteorology and Natural History, make a good showing, the former in 10 pages. The Microscope has 16; Museums 8; Monsters, 36. The parts of the body most favored in this volume are above all the Nerves (upwards of 140 pp.), the Muscles (33 pp.), the Nose (35 pp.), the Neck (23 pp.), the Mouth (11 pp.), and the Membranes (10 pp.). The Mind gets 10. Meningitis heads the diseases with 20 pages, Mumps counting but 4, and Melancholia 4. The swallowing of needles and pins requires 2 pages, in very fine print, of references to periodicals mostly. To complete our statistical view, we may note that the Müllers among the authors occupy 12 pages, the Meyers 7.

—The Index Catalogue is a veritable polyglot. We single out as curiosities original Japanese medical works, like 'Tokuhon wo Jinku Ho,' or 'Tokuhon's Nineteen Principal Diseases and their Treatment'; and Japanese translations from the German, such as, 'Netsu Shinrou,' or 'The New Doctrine of Fever.' Odd titles abound. Under Memphis occurs this: 'Section of a Human Stomach, having been used twelve years in trying to digest Wolf River third-best water, showing cause of dyspepsia.' Under Mind-Cure this, proving the antiquity of it: 'Narrative of the late extraordinary cure wrought in an instant upon Mrs. Eliz. Savage (lame from her birth), without the using of any natural means, etc., with an appendix, attempting to prove that miracles are not ceas'd' (London, 1694). Somewhat earlier is G. A. Mercklin's tractate on transfusion of the blood, "qua bæc quæ sit e bruto in brutum, . . . illa quæ e bruto in hominem, . . . et ista quæ ex homine in hominem,' etc. (Nuremberg, 1679). Nicolo Monardes wrote 'Delle cose

che vengono portate dall' Indie occidentali pertinenti all' uso della medicina,' etc. (Venice, 1575), which was Englished in London by John Frampton in 1596 as 'Joyfull Newes out of the New-found Worlde,' etc. Marchmont Needham's 'Medela Medicinæ' (1665) he defines as "a plea for the free profession and a renovation of the art of physik, . . . tending to the rescue of mankind from the tyranny of diseases, and of physicians themselves from the pedantism of old authors and present dictators." Under Midwifery, one may see what a contest has raged over the proper sex for this profession. Daniel Neal published (1722) a 'Narrative of the Method and Success of Inoculating the Smallpox in New England, by Mr. Benj. Colman,' "with a reply to the objections made against it from principles of conscience in a letter from a minister at Boston." Nostradamus is represented by his 'Zwey Bücher,' "erstlich in frantzösischer Sprach von ihme beschriben: Nun, aber, unserem Vatterland zü Gütem, in das gemain Teutsch auff das trewlichst verdolmetscht" (Augsburg, 1573). But we must not wander further in these pleasant pastures.

—The poets Drayton, Drummond of Hawthornden, Dryden, and Dunbar, with many lesser luminaries, fall to the sixteenth volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan & Co.); and the notice of Dryden not only is the longest and most significant of any between the two covers, but demonstrates again that the editor's skill in this sort of composition is unsurpassed by that of his colaborers. Mr. Leslie Stephen regards Mr. Lowell's as perhaps the best modern judgment of Dryden. Mr. Stephen also writes the compact account of Miss Edgeworth, not omitting the painful "attempts to increase her growth by mechanical devices, including hanging by the neck." There is a good deal of information about Martin Droeshout and his engravings, of which his Shakspere bust of 1623 is the most famous. Thomas Drummond, the inventor of the light which bears his name, and afterwards the most beneficent ruler that Ireland had ever had, is fitly commemorated, and is, indeed, a name to be remembered at this time. The contrast of his success with Forster's failure, while neither wholly one of temperament nor wholly of training—the scientific spirit versus the reformatory—is deserving of study. Besides British soldiers who had a hostile hand in our Revolutionary struggle and in the war of 1812, such as abound in this Dictionary, there is a rather large proportion of more cheerful international entries. We may instance Samuel Eaton, colleague of the Rev. John Davenport in New Haven, and his brother Theophilus, the first Governor of the Colony; Henry Dunster, President of Harvard, and his scaly predecessor, Nathaniel Eaton, President pre-designate. England gave to us Dr. John W. Draper, and we gave to England Joseph Chessborough Dyer, who, a mechanical genius himself, helped many American inventions to an introduction abroad, notably Fulton's steamboat, and who remembered the land of his nativity when he took a share in founding the *North American Review*. Dyer's name, by the way, is omitted from Drake's 'Dictionary of American Biography' and from the new Appletons' 'Cyclopædia of American Biography.' He was a native of Stonington, Conn., and his father is said to have been "Capt. Nathaniel Dyer of the Rhode Island Navy." Might not Mary Dyer, the Quakeress, hanged as such on Boston Common in 1660, have been properly included in Mr. Stephen's Dictionary?

—The free and easy methods of the German universities in the matter of attendance upon lectures have been so highly commended by not a few American educators, and the seminary system has been so loudly hailed as the highest development and crowning glory of the best possible system of instruction, that it may be worth while to look for a moment on the reverse of the medal as presented in the following extract from the Berlin *Politische Nachrichten:*

"Many as are the advantages of the present system of teaching in our universities, it has this disadvantage, that the students who, as is well known, are not required to attend regularly the lectures for which they are registered, but for which they nevertheless receive their certificate of attendance, are beguiled into turning their backs upon the lecture-rooms, especially in their first semesters; the consequence is, that later, in order to pass the examinations, they are forced to obtain in a comparatively short time the requisite knowledge of their subjects, to the detriment of their general culture and of their health. Another result is, that the knowledge thus acquired is frequently no more than is absolutely indispensable. In order to bring about a closer personal intercourse between students and teachers, and thus lead to a more regular attendance upon lectures, the so called seminaries, sometimes called *Privatissima*, *Uebungen*, etc., were brought into existence in our universities. In these, more use is made of the scholastic methods, and these institutions have been very successful. Even they, however, suffer from the fact that the professor has no means, other than moral suasion, at his command to urge on to greater diligence those students who have shown themselves negligent during the semester. We have, therefore, cause to rejoice that the Minister of Education has, by a recent statute, conferred upon the Director of the Historical Seminary in Berlin University powers hitherto not possessed. By this statute the members of the seminary are required to attend regularly the exercises of the seminary, must not absent themselves without giving previous notice of the reason for absence, and must display all required diligence in their studies. For violation of this statute, or for other valid reasons, the Director may exclude any student. Every student, therefore, who enters the seminary, under these regulations, has his attention called at the opening of the semester to the consequences of any lack of diligence on his part; and nothing less than regular attendance will secure for him at the close of the semester the needful certificate of his participation in the work. Thus there is brought to bear upon the student a pressure which must work only to his advantage, and it is much to be desired that the same regulations might be extended to the seminaries in other branches of knowledge."

Can it be that we have here the entering wedge of the marking system and compulsory attendance, which, under the guidance of our German friends, we had begun to look upon as twin relics of barbarism in our American universities?

—Two congresses have just met at Venice, and have received the usual hospitality of that city—illuminations, fireworks, serenades on the Grand Canal, receptions by the authorities in the Ducal Palace, a dinner at the Lido, a trip to Murano and Torcello, and another up the Brenta to Padua. The Meteorological Congress, under the Presidency of Padre Denza, the well-known seismologist and Director of the Observatory at Moncalieri, was a small body of serious scientific men and did some good work. The International Literary Congress, which never boasted of a very eminent membership, seems to have fallen entirely into the hands of second and third-rate writers, especially of those who manage the International Literary Association of Paris. On this occasion M. Louis Ratisbonne was the president, and M. Louis Ulbach the chief manager. The other important members were all French, Italian, Spanish, and Belgian, except one Englishman, Mr. Clifford Millage, of whose literary status we must confess to having no exact information. Germany, Austria, and other nations seem this year to have taken no active part in the proceedings. The protection of literary property, which is now theoretically the main object of this Congress, took up very little of the time and attention of the members, and the discussion on the American International Copyright Law, which had been greatly advertised in advance, amounted only to a brief résumé of the Chace Bill, and an anodyne resolution (passed without debate) recommending the United States to accept the international arrangement formulated a few years ago at Berne. The discussion on the reciprocal rights and duties of authors and publishers was somewhat more lively, especially when the Dutch were attacked for having permitted the performance of the opera "Otello" without payment to Verdi or the publisher Ricordi. A Dutch delegate defended his countrymen on the ground that there existed in Holland but one wandering opera company, which gave representations in turn at Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and The Hague, and could not exist if compelled to pay heavily for new operas; and he humorously cited parallel examples from the literary and musical history of Belgium and France. This called out indignant protests. As hosts, the Italians were expected to amuse the Congress, and Vittorio Malamani, the author of that excellent book, the 'History of Venice in its Private Life,' read the opening paper of the session, on "Venice in French Art and Literature"; while the learned Professor De Leva of Padua delivered a discourse on the Diarist Marino Sanuto and the proper place of chronicles in history. Both these papers will be published —the former in the *Nuova Antologia*.

—The missionaries of Adana, in Cilicia, have been spending the heated term in Comana Aurea, in Cappadocia, once the seat of the worship of the goddess Ma, celebrated throughout the Hellenistic period for its wealth and splendor. Miss Laura Tucker, in a private letter, says:

"For our own curiosity we have been pursuing some original investigations by way of opening up one of the smooth, oval, artificial mounds that crown all the *high places* in this vicinity. We chose the largest mound, in sight from the Protestant chapel, and two weeks ago set some men to digging. They began at the top of the mound, and, after digging several days, got tired, and began on the south side. To-day our efforts were rewarded by an entrance into a prettily built stone tomb, containing one main room, ten feet long, eight feet wide, and eight feet high, with a long entrance-hall. We got into the building from the top. The stones are all nicely carved and put together carefully. The floor was once paved with foot-square smoothed limestones, but the place seems to have been entered and rifled, perhaps centuries ago, and the pavement partly torn up. The roof of the little structure is arch-shaped, and the door of the inner room was shut by a large stone, cut to fit the entrance. It is curious to notice that the entrance of the mausoleum, and that to this second underground tomb, is toward the west. You know that all *these people*, living here now, speak of sunrise as the 'birth of the sun.' Can it be that the ancients who dwelt here associated birth and religion with the sun and sunrise, while they in some way connected death with sunset? . . . Those Germans and Austrians who were in Marash just before you, have made excavations in Zingirli and discovered important Hittite ruins, among them a colossal statue of Sardanapalus, the old Assyrian."

NARRATIVE AND CRITICAL HISTORY OF AMERICA.

The United States of North America. Part II. [Narrative and Critical History of America. Vol. vii.] Edited by Justin Winsor. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888. Pp. viii, 610.

THE present volume very well exemplifies the distinctive advantages of the coöperative me-

thod in historical work, and at the same time some of its essential limitations. Perhaps in no previous volume has there been a more obvious appropriateness in the assignment of subjects to writers. As instances may be mentioned the chapter on "The Constitution of the United States and its History," by Mr. George Ticknor Curtis; that on "The History of Political Parties," by Prof. Alexander Johnston; that on "The Peace Negotiations of 1782-1783," by Mr. John Jay; and that on "The Diplomacy of the United States," by President James B. Angell. Of an importance only secondary to these, however, are the other chapters of the volume, by Mr. Edward J. Lowell, Dr. George E. Ellis, Prof. James Russell Soley, Dr. Edward Channing, and the editor, Mr. Winsor, respectively. The volume, as a whole, supplies a history of the United States to 1850, giving separate consideration, not only to its diplomatic and territorial aspects, but also to its political and constitutional, and its military and naval phases as well.

It is, nevertheless, in the portion bearing upon the diplomatic aspects of the history that the present volume possesses the greatest interest, as comprised in the contributions of Messrs. Lowell, Jay, Ellis, Angell, Channing, and the editor. Mr. Lowell's chapter, by far the longest in the book, follows the thread of our "Relations with Europe," from 1775 to 1782. It deserves a careful reading, not merely from the intrinsic interest of its subject, but from the extreme care with which the writer has traced it, often in the most remote and least accessible quarters. Mr. Lowell's researches in connection with one phase of the subject, the Hessians, were embodied in his monograph published in 1884, but have here been supplemented by applying a similarly exhaustive scale of investigation to the subject at large. No less informing than his chapter is Mr. Lowell's "Critical Essay," in which are indicated some of the European depositories of the original archives to be consulted. Following this essay, the editor has supplied a very serviceable "List of Treaties, Conventions, and Declarations," 1674-1784, bearing upon the American Revolution and the Armed Neutrality.

Mr. Jay's chapter, on "The Peace Negotiations of 1782-1783," continues the narrative from where Mr. Lowell leaves it. It must be regarded as of exceptional interest and importance, even in view of the fact that Mr. Jay has so recently traversed substantially the same ground in his address before the New York Historical Society in 1883, and his paper before the American Historical Association at Boston, in 1887. The reason for this is of course to be found in the gradual bringing to light of the materials necessary to a proper understanding of the period referred to. Four sources of information in particular, as elsewhere pointed out by Mr. Jay, are now within reach of the historical student. Of these, two are in print, Fitzmaurice's 'Life of Shelburne,' and the Circourt documents. The other two are the newly acquired Franklin papers at Washington, and the Stevens Collection of papers from the London and Paris archives, which have as yet but partially been placed before the public in print. Mr. Jay's chapter is an exhaustive marshalling of the occurrences lying between the dates of February 22, 1782, and September 3, 1783. Bearing in mind the part played in these transactions by his distinguished grandfather, the reader must admit that Mr. Jay has been singularly successful in avoiding the point of view of the advocate. The result of a reëxamination of the subject in the light of the new evidence is, however, to place in much higher estimation the services of the John Jay of 1782. The most strenuous aim of the present chapter is apparently to establish a necessary connection between the Vaughan mission to Shelburne in September, 1782, and the action almost immediately taken by the Shelburne Administration. Could this connection be established (and it must be said that the evidence is forcibly presented), the result is necessarily to connect with Jay's name the almost decisive act of the series of negotiations. This country was, however, fortunate in all three of its representatives in France, and to no one of them was the credit wholly due of making an honorable peace possible. "Had the affair been managed by men of ordinary ability" [only] says Mr. John Fiske, "the greatest results of the Revolutionary war would probably have been lost; the new republic would have been cooped up between the Atlantic and the Alleghanies; our westward expansion would have been impossible without further warfare; and the formation of our Federal union would doubtless have been effectively hindered or prevented."

It is interesting to compare with these great services of Jay, in which a successful issue crowned the negotiations, those later efforts of his, in 1794, which were quite as conspicuous for their failure to secure ratification. Jay's treaty with England, the story of which falls within the period of Mr. Angell's chapter, is examined by him at some length. His position, briefly stated, is that, while much of the criticism of the treaty was well founded, the "justification of the treaty is found in the fact that it saved the States from a war with Great Britain, for which they were entirely unprepared, and gave them years of peace, which in their weakness they so much needed. Looking back from our present point of view, we must admit that the completion of the negotiation was wise and fortunate." Mr. Angell's chapter, the scope of which is "The Diplomacy of the United States," from 1789 to 1850, nowhere involves the reëxamination of the subject in the light of new evidence to the degree which is true of the earlier chapters. Much of the ground, indeed, is already familiar, in the pages of Lyman, Trescot, Wharton, and others. Nevertheless, one of the desiderata in American political literature is a diplomatic history of the country in connected form from the beginning.

The consideration of the diplomatic bearings of the War of 1812 and other wars must be sought for in Mr. Angell's chapter on the diplomacy, rather than in Prof. Soley's on "The Wars of the United States," since the latter deals strictly, and very properly, with an exposition of these wars from the point of view of military engineering and strategy. Here, as in the case of Gen. Cullom's chapter in the previous volume, the advantage of having a technical subject treated by a technical authority is decidedly manifest. Other portions of the volume, which have a more or less close relation with the diplomatic aspect of the history, include not merely Mr. Winsor's "editorial notes" at the end of Mr. Jay's chapter on "The Fisheries," "Maps," etc., and Dr. Ellis's (appended to the same chapter) on "The Loyalists and their Fortunes," but also the very valuable "appendix" (of 36 pages of fine print), on the "Territorial Acquisitions and Divisions." In this skilful treatment of the "political geography" of the period, the editor has had the very serviceable coöperation of Dr. Edward Channing. The text is elucidated, not only with facsimiles of contemporary maps, but also with sketch-maps—like that at page 530—which are extraordinarily effective in representing the situation graphically to the eye. Considerable space is, of course, devoted to the successive changes of boundary within the limits of what was at first known as the Territory Northwest of the River Ohio. In this connection, reference might properly have been made to Mr. R. G. Thwaites's recent paper on "The Boundaries of Wisconsin" (in volume xi of the 'Collections' of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin), in which, by a series of eleven sketch-maps, he traces the successive changes from 1784 to 1848.

There is a question which has been widely canvassed—at times within the pages of this journal—namely, whether the Louisiana purchase extended beyond the Rocky Mountains. It is here very justly characterized as a "dispute without much ground on the affirmative side"; references being given, however, to the arguments in favor of the two views respectively. A similarly critical treatment is given to the conflicting claims as to the drafting of the Ordinance of 1787. There is still another question of boundaries, treated not in this appendix, but in one of Mr. Winsor's "editorial notes," to which a curious interest attaches. This is the northeastern boundary question, which formed the subject of successive negotiations with Great Britain, but was finally settled by the Webster-Ashburton treaty of 1842. It was during the consideration of this treaty by the Senate that something like a panic was created by an innocent little "red-line map" which Mr. Sparks had found in the French archives the year before. The construction then placed upon it is seen to be an amusing one, in view of the subsequent discovery of other maps with the "red line," one of which, that of Palairet, Mr. Winsor here reproduces. This very interesting episode in diplomatic history Mr. Winsor has treated more in detail in a communication to the Massachusetts Historical Society in 1887.

If unusual prominence appears to be given in this volume to the diplomatic and external phase of the country's development, and less to the political and internal, this is perhaps due to the fact that the latter is the more patent and familiar aspect of the two, rather than to any lack of skill in the treatment of the political history. Prof. Johnston's chapter on "The History of Political Parties" very well covers the ground, while Mr. Winsor's bibliographical appendix to it, of more than sixty pages, is of extraordinary value for reference. Among the other extended bibliographical notes in this volume may be mentioned one on "The Portraits of Franklin," and a much longer one on "The Portraits of Washington," which is almost encyclopædic in its character. Indeed, the minute acquaintance with details which underlies the editing of the work as a whole is well illustrated on page 75, where an editorial note, after citing various authorities on the military aspect of the Hessian aid to the British arms in this country, informs us also that the "Hessian fly," commonly supposed to have been brought here at that time, was not, but was "probably brought over by the German immigrants in Pennsylvania. Cf. *Science*, April 11, 1884, p. 432."

We began by stating that the present volume is an exemplification, not only of the excellences, but of the limitations of the method of historical composition for which it stands. Those limitations, indeed, are almost inseparably connected with its encyclopædic character, just touched upon, which, while very perfectly fitted to exhibit the nature and bearings of separate topics, does not lend itself with equal facility to the interpretation of certain great underlying currents of history. Such, in the period under consideration, is the course of

American history as affected by the slavery conflict. The subject of slavery has scarcely more than twenty pages assigned it in this whole volume; and yet, if the first half of the nineteenth century had any significance, it is surely this, that it witnessed the steady and unceasing growth, in the two sections, of two movements and tendencies which were not merely antagonistic, but were in their very nature irreconcilable. Nor is it less significant that the political leaders of the two sections were for the most part oblivious of this fact, and, when the jarring of factions in repeated instances seemed to threaten the existence of the Union itself, were apparently ready to believe in the sovereign efficacy of the latest "compromise." We were then, to quote from Prof. Lowell some trenchant sentences written in 1858, "very fond of this glue of compromise. Like so many quack cements, it is advertised to make the mended parts of the vessel stronger than those which have never been broken, but, like them, it will not stand hot water." With the close of the period covered by this history, the slavery question was still an unsolved problem. Another quarter of a century was to witness its violent but effectual solution.

That the 'Narrative and Critical History' does not accomplish, in instances such as we have cited, what might be desired, is no defect, considering it as an individual work. It is merely one of the inevitable limitations of this type of historical compilation—a type which has given us, in the instance under consideration, a work of monumental importance and value.

THE MYSTERY OF THE DIFFERENTIAL CALCULUS.

Elements of the Differential and Integral Calculus. By Simon Newcomb, Professor of Mathematics in the Johns Hopkins University. Henry Holt & Co. 8vo, pp. ix, 307.

To the large majority of persons of liberal education—of those who have deserved as well as received their college diplomas—the Differential and Integral Calculus is a *terra incognita.* Almost everybody of ordinary intelligence has some vague notion that geometry has to do with triangles and squares and circles and the shapes and sizes of things generally. Even "business colleges" teach enough algebra in a disguised form to enable their pupils to understand that rules which seem difficult and obscure when stated in words, become clear and practical when turned into formulæ, and they readily see (or think they see) that the same system might be extended to other things besides "principal" and "interest" and "present worth." Every graduate of a college knows that trigonometry treats of the measurement of triangles; and though many of them have never studied analytic geometry, yet they at least know that it is a method of treating geometrical questions in which algebra is extensively applied. But most undergraduates and graduates have exhausted their knowledge of the Differential and Integral Calculus when they have said that it is the name of a high branch of mathematics, that few study it, and that they believe it is "awfully hard."

This belief in the difficulty of the Calculus has become traditional. The tradition is handed down from class to class, and many things conspire to keep it alive. In the first place, many graduates who studied the Calculus while in college, and even acquired considerable facility in the use of its formulæ, yet confess that they never understood it, and regard the time spent in the study as lost. In the next place, the text-books themselves tend to foster this belief, although trying in various ways to show that it is groundless. De Morgan, in his 'Elementary Illustrations of the Differential and Integral Calculus,' says on the first page: "It is matter of common observation that any one who commences this study, even with the best elementary works, finds himself in the dark as to the real meaning of the processes which he learns until, at a certain stage of his progress, depending upon his capacity, some accidental combination of his own ideas throws light upon the subject." Mathematics is generally supposed to be *par excellence* the science of certainty. To the uninitiated it must seem very queer that success in the highest branch of that science should depend "upon some accidental combination of his own ideas" on the part of the learner, and that, too, a combination which may never occur. Mr. Todhunter, whose 'Treatise on the Differential Calculus' is, perhaps, more extensively used in England than any other text-book of the science, after remarking (p. 11) on the discouragement which the beginner often finds coming over him, and saying that "he is apt to imagine as a reason for it that he has not correctly understood the elementary principles of the subject," endeavors to encourage him with the assurance "that the difficulty of which he complains is probably owing much more to the nature of the subject than to his own want of comprehension." His advice as to the course the beginner should pursue may be summed up in the directions to leave everything to his teacher and "to labor and to wait." Professor Newcomb (p. 23) says: "In beginning the Calculus, conceptions are presented to the student which seem beyond his grasp, and methods which seem to lack rigor."

The result of all this is that the Calculus has become a sort of intellectual bugbear. The majority of undergraduates give it a wide berth. The minority who study it are made up, first, of those who suppose that it will be useful or indispensable in their future professional career as teachers, engineers, astronomers, etc.; secondly, of those whose natural gifts incline them strongly to the pursuit of every branch of mathematics; and, lastly, of those who, from a kind of intellectual pride, do not like to leave college confessing utter ignorance of any branch of learning which they were afforded the opportunity of pursuing. The number of those who study the Calculus is, however, rapidly increasing, and for their encouragement we can say that to those who persevere, the "accidental combination of ideas" almost invariably comes. When once they have got their faculties in the right train, they find themselves in possession of an instrument which seems to solve problems by a sort of magic, and to enable one to reach and handle the ultimate elements of things.

The only real difficulties of the Calculus are encountered at its very outset. As Professor Newcomb says in his preface: "The most difficult question which arises in treating the subject, is how the first principles should be presented to the mind of the beginner." Hence every new text-book that appears is at once more or less a matter of curiosity to those who have studied and are engaged in using or teaching the science. It might naturally seem impossible to convey to the general reader who has never studied the subject at all, an idea of what these difficulties are. We do not think this is so, but believe the matter can be rendered intelligible, and to a certain extent interesting, to any person of ordinary intelligence. Almost every one of adult age knows that when anything falls from a height, it goes faster and faster until it reaches the ground. There are, however, persons who are not aware of this fact. One of the fools who have sought notoriety by jumping from the Brooklyn Bridge, having heard that a body would fall sixteen feet in a second, inferred that, as the bridge is 144 feet high, it would take him nine seconds to reach the water. Of course, it took him just three seconds to accomplish the journey, and during the third second he fell eighty feet instead of sixteen. This increase in speed is, as the mathematicians say, continuous; that is, no matter how short an interval of time we take, be it but the thousandth or the millionth part of a second, the body is, in ordinary language, falling faster at the end of the interval than it was at the beginning. Although the motion of the body follows a certain mathematical law, which it is not necessary to state here, yet it is a law of continuous change. Take any two successive intervals of time, however short, and during the second interval it will fall further than it did during the first; and yet, almost everybody, educated or uneducated, has a notion that, at each particular instant, there is, in regard to the body's motion, something definite and susceptible of calculation. The morning after the feat of the bridge-jumper, the most ignorant persons might be heard saying they should like to know just how fast he was going when he struck the water. It is with such questions as this that the Calculus deals.

Again, take the case of curved lines. A curve changes its direction continuously. For no conceivable length is it anywhere straight. Its essence is to be curved. And yet, take any point in the curve, and of all the infinity of straight lines which can be drawn through the point there is one, and only one, the tangent, which will not cut the curve. Those acquainted with the elements of geometry know how to draw that line at any point in the circumference of a circle. But the Calculus takes up the problem in all its generalty, and shows how by one method that one line can be drawn through any given point of any curve which the mathematician can construct according to any fixed rule. Speaking generally, the Calculus seizes upon any given point in any thing or any process that is continually varying, fluctuating, changing, and tells us all about it at that particular instant.

So far as its methods of calculation are concerned, they are in most cases quite simple. If a problem is difficult, the difficulty generally consists in getting it into such shape that the processes of the Calculus can be applied. The real difficulty of the Calculus is to justify the methods by which it attains its results. Mr. Todhunter, in the extract we have quoted above, says the student "is apt to imagine that he has not correctly understood the elementary principles," and Professor Newcomb, that the "conceptions seem to be beyond his grasp." We do not think either of the great mathematicians has described precisely the state of the beginner's mind. What vexes and perplexes him is that he seems to himself to comprehend very clearly what he is doing, and to be doing what all his previous training had taught him he must not do. It all seems very easy, very simple, and very absurd. He is told to "take the limit" of one side of his equation by striking out a quantity because it "is approaching zero," while on the other side the same quantity must be carefully preserved because it is one of the terms of a ratio which is the very essence of the whole process. Neither does it help him much to be told that the value of a quantity presented in the form of a fraction does not de-

pend upon the size of the numerator and denominator. He knows very well that a "fraction with a million for numerator and a hundred for denominator equals ten thousand"; so also does a fraction with a hundredth for numerator and a millionth for denominator; so does a fraction with a millionth for numerator and a ten-thousand-millionth for denominator. But what is the value of a fraction with a hundredth or a thousandth or anything else for a numerator, and zero, that is nothing at all, for a denominator? What is the ratio of something to nothing? Again, when he is told that "the differential of a quantity is its infinitesimal increment—that is, its increment considered in the act of approaching zero as its limit, or of becoming smaller than any quantity we can name," how can he help asking, Whereabouts "in the act of approaching zero' am I to take it?

But suppose that, after much study of his text-book on the part of the pupil, after much pondering and puzzling, and after much disquisition and explanation on the part of his teacher, he sees, or thinks he sees, how a quantity may be something or nothing pretty much as you like, and he finds that, however queer it may all seem, he does get accurate results—not approximate and very nearly correct, but mathematically exact; he finds also that he has only just entered upon the consideration of the infinitely small. He is now called upon to "take the limit" of quantities in comparison with which the infinitesimals he tried so hard to comprehend are infinitely great. These infinitesimals of the second order are in turn succeeded by others of the third and fourth and fifth orders, until he is lost in the infinitely infinitesimal. But when he finds that he is gradually acquiring the power to answer quickly and easily questions which when first proposed seem too complicated to be answered at all; that he easily solves problems of the greatest importance in mechanics, in engineering, in astronomy; above all, when he finds that results which he had before obtained in particular cases by long and toilsome processes, he now obtains quickly by one all-embracing method, perhaps he will suspect that all this talk about the infinite is not merely a jargon of words. We advise him to turn his suspicion into a theorem, and to believe that, whether he can explain the philosophy of the thing in a manner satisfactory to himself and to others or not, he is all the while dealing with things as real and as large as the entries in the banker's ledger or the engineer's note-book.

Professor Newcomb evidently regards the difficulties that oppose themselves to a simple, direct, and easily intelligible exposition of the principles of the Calculus as insuperable. In his preface he tells us: "It is now well understood that the method of limits forms the only rigorous basis for the infinitesimal Calculus, and that infinitesimals can be used with logical rigor only when based on this method—that is, when considered as quantities approaching zero as their limit. When thus defined, no logical difficulty arises in their use; they flow naturally from the conception of limits." Nevertheless he adds: "But it is not to be expected that a beginner will fully grasp their principles until he has become familiar with the mechanical processes of differentiation and with the application of the Calculus to special problems." Accordingly, he says: "It may therefore be found best to begin with a single careful reading of this chapter [the second, in which the fundamental principles are explained], and afterwards to use it for reference as the student finds occasion to apply the principles laid down in it." At the beginning of this chapter he says: "The *method of limits* is an indirect method of arriving at the value of certain quantities which do not admit of direct determination."

There is involved in these statements, not a question of science merely, but also a question of fact. Does the method of limits, as explained in the Calculus, when presented to the beginner, seem either natural or logically rigorous? We believe, on the contrary, that a large portion, perhaps a majority even, of those who are skilled in the use of the Calculus—nay, even of those who write books about it—are conscious that there is something about it which they do not quite understand, that there is still room for explanation. Add to this that many great mathematicians hold that "the quantities approaching zero as their limit" and the "infinitely small quantities" or "infinitesimals" are but different names for the same things. Further, we believe that the quantities treated in the Calculus *do* "admit of direct determination," and that its principles may be so presented as to avoid the seeming absurdities and contradictions in which it is involved. For this, however, we must all wait.

Turning now to the consideration of Professor Newcomb's work as a text-book, designed to teach the present state of the science, we must regard it as in every way worthy of his great reputation as a mathematician. He says in his preface that it is "intended to contain about as much of the Calculus as an undergraduate student, either in arts or science, can be expected to master during his regular course." It is not a large book and is not crowded, and does not treat anything in an obscure or superficial manner. Fully equipped with what it contains, the student can attempt with confidence the perusal of the most advanced works either in English or in any foreign language with which he is acquainted. The only point in Professor Newcomb's treatment of the science in regard to the advisability of which we should be inclined to express a doubt, is the total postponement of everything concerning the Integral Calculus until he has finished the treatment of the Differential. But that is a matter which we have left ourselves no room to discuss.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

Mr. Leonard A. Jones's 'Treatise on the Law of Liens, Common Law, Statutory, Equitable, and Maritime,' in two volumes (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is, if we mistake not, the first thorough and full work on this subject which has ever appeared. We have now the list of seven volumes which this learned and conscientious author has published, upon Mortgages of Real Property, Railroad Mortgages, Chattel Mortgages, Pledges, and Liens, which make a complete series on the general subject of what he calls "Property Securities." Mr. Jones has written "for the practising lawyer rather than the student," and has "sought to examine the subjects in such detail as to enable [him] to state and discuss all the difficult and doubtful questions that have arisen and been passed upon by the courts." He has dealt with all classes of liens—common law, equitable, maritime, and statutory liens—has considered them with reference to the different classes of persons who have a right to them, and has pointed out the leading statutory changes in the general doctrines of the law. His book embodies a vast amount of labor, and will be of the greatest usefulness to the profession.

Two or three points have occurred to us for criticism. In considering the old doctrine that there was no lien, at common law, where there was an agreement for a fixed price, the author has not observed what is apparently the true explanation of this, given by Professor Ames in the *Harvard Law Review*, vol. ii. p. 61, namely, that by the old law the lien was allowed to a man who had no right of action; the man who had agreed for a fixed price did have an action, while at a certain period he who had not so agreed had none. In regard to the so-called lien of the unpaid seller of goods, the author does not bring out plainly enough the anomalous state of the English law, of which Blackburn and Markby speak so strongly, and the difference between the English cases and our own. In § 802 he might well condemn some remarks which he quotes, and which gain undue value from his leaving them uncondemned; and, finally, his exposition of the doctrine of stoppage in transitu seems often to favor a common error that this right exists only where the seller had a lien. It is apparent, *e. g.*, in § 862, that the author recognizes that a seller who never had a lien may yet acquire one by stopping the goods in transitu; but his language in other places, like that of the courts, is unguarded upon this point. Notwithstanding these small deductions, this treatise appears to be one of the best of our practical hand-books of law, an honest and excellent piece of work.

Mr. F. J. Stimson's first supplement to his 'American Statute Law' (Boston: Chas. C. Soule) draws attention again to that very important book in which the provisions of the constitutional and statute law of the whole country are summarized. The supplement brings the work down to January 1, 1888. The ingenuity and pains which the author has shown in condensing and arranging his work, in providing full tables and indexes, and in compressing the results of two years of legislation into one hundred octavo pages, are worthy of great praise. The student of comparative legislation, as well as the practising lawyer, will find these labors of Mr. Stimson of great help to him. In the last two years, as we are told by the author, the principal changes have been in legislation "relating to marriage, divorce, aliens, married women's property and other rights, and mechanics' liens. In marriage and divorce the tendency has been conservative, . . . but in the other three subjects it has been notably radical, many Western States, in particular, having enacted alien laws entirely prohibiting the ownership by aliens of real estate." It seems odd to speak of this return to the old doctrine about aliens as "radical" legislation. Thirty or forty years ago this doctrine would have been conservatism.

Mr. Samuel Merrill's 'Newspaper Libel; A Handbook for the Press' (Boston: Ticknor & Co.) is not precisely a law book—its title shows that; but it is a sort of a law book. The author is described on the title-page as being "of the Boston *Daily Globe*, a Member of the Bar of Massachusetts and of New York"; and in his preface, "while disclaiming any intention of writing a text-book for the use of the bar," and remarking that he is no longer an active member of it, he yet intimates that he is discharging the debt which every lawyer owes to his profession. The legal part of the book appears to be done carefully and well; it is well written, and its full statements of many cases of newspaper libel, as illustrating the leading legal doctrines of the subject, make it a useful and very readable volume for all who publish what they or others write.

Dr. Bourinot's 'Manual of the Constitutional History of Canada from the Earliest Period to

the Year 1888' (Montreal: Dawson Brothers, 1888) is, in a large measure, a revised republication of certain chapters of the author's large book on 'Parliamentary Practice and Procedure in Canada.' The writer is clerk of the House of Commons of Canada. In an appendix he presents the existing fundamental law of the Dominion, *i. e.*, "The British North America Act, 1867," with two supplementary statutes of 1871 and 1875. The body of the work contains an exposition of the details and the working of the present system, with an interesting account of what preceded it. What will prove especially instructive to readers on this side of the border is the last five chapters, containing an account of the disallowance of Provincial Acts by the Governor-General in council; of the distribution of legislative powers between the General Parliament and the local legislatures; and of the judicial decisions on questions of legislative jurisdiction, with the rules and constitutional principles embodied therein. The "Constitution" of the Dominion, like the old charters of our colonies, proceeds from a political superior on the other side of the ocean: it does not originate in the soil and spring from the people themselves who are governed by it; but, like the charters, it is a true "constitution" in our sense of the word, since it lays down a rule for the highest legislatures of the country, a law for the lawgivers, which the courts are bound to enforce. The author informs us that the present work contains in an enlarged and improved form those parts of his larger book which are required for the study of political science at the University of Toronto.

Ecclesiastical History of Newfoundland. By the Very Rev. M. F. Howley, D.D., Prefect Apostolic of St. George's, West Newfoundland. Boston: Doyle & Whittle. 1888.

BESIDES the history of the Catholic Church in Newfoundland, this book contains a considerable portion of the political history of that island, and also an account of the discovery and early history of other parts of North America. The title, therefore, scarcely indicates its scope.

The Catholic Church in Newfoundland has had to contend against two great obstacles—the long-continued opposition of the British Government, and poverty. At the beginning of the last century, priests were forbidden to enter the island, though some did so in spite of the law. And considerably more than a century later, Catholics still labored under vexatious restrictions: they were not allowed to perform their own burial rites, and they had to pay fees to the Episcopal Church, which did them no service in return for their money. All the time, too, the great majority of Newfoundlanders, Catholic as well as Protestant, were poor, as, indeed, they are still. They depend on the fisheries for a livelihood, and cling to the rocky coast, leaving a good country all undeveloped behind them. Their poverty has been perpetuated and intensified by the pernicious supplying or credit system on which the fisheries are conducted—a system which makes a few "fish lords," and burdens and demoralizes the many. As the fisherman is charged at very high rates for his supplies, and credited with only the cash price for his fish, the system looks a good deal like those "private affairs" of ours at present attracting so much public attention. But our "private affairs" some of us know how to deal with, while the Newfoundland affair puzzles everybody who considers it. Some look for a change through confederation with Canada, but, even in advocating confederation, the argument of despair is largely used. Thus an editor in St. Johns once said that what Pipes roared down the chimney to Hatchway might be appropriately said to Newfoundland: "Turn out and be spliced, or lie still and be damned!" However, notwithstanding the poverty of her own adherents, and the long-continued opposition of Government, the Catholic Church prospered, and, after the grant of a local legislature, was able for a while to control it, and to keep great influence in politics always.

Many have been moved to tell the whole story to the world—the book before us is the fifth history of Newfoundland; and yet the story is not an easy one to tell truthfully, the political line of division having been for many years almost coincident with that of religion and race. Now, our author's predecessors were all Protestants. To be sure, no one of them could be called a bigot; and if we admit that they had prejudices, it is only because we believe that all men, including (Archbishop Whately to the contrary notwithstanding) even members of Parliament, are more or less prejudiced. But our author, being a Catholic, has, of course, read the works of his predecessors with "watchful jealousy." The Protestant reader is pleased to see that he makes few specific charges against them, and yet amused to note the generally mistrustful way in which he alludes to them. Moreover, he makes it plain that towards the writings of Washington Irving or Dean Stanley his mental attitude would be the same. The idea that all Protestant authors should be read with caution may be in part an inference from the consciousness of his own bias. At all events, whether conscious of it or not, biased he is. He lashes the British Government for its treatment of Catholics, but Catholic wrongdoing is either passed over in silence, or not adequately stated. He is very wroth with Sir Humphrey Gilbert for threatening to cut off people's ears if they should speak disrespectfully of Queen Elizabeth, but makes no mention of the actual cutting off of the ears of an editor of St. John's (and that, too, in the middle of the nineteenth century) for his criticisms of Catholic politics. He speaks contemptuously of the smallness of the pension allowed by the British Government to the first Catholic Bishop of Newfoundland—O'Donel—for "important services"; but he understates the nature of those services as the disclosure of a threatened "mutiny." What Bishop O'Donel did was to disclose a formidable plot, entered into by soldiers and civilians, to massacre many of the Protestants of St. John's and some of the "outports," while at church one Sunday. Indeed, our author seems to imply that it is really difficult for Catholics to perpetrate wickedness, which comes easy enough to Protestants. He quotes the fifth Bishop (Mullock) to the effect that he was unable to find evidence that any Catholics were implicated in the extermination of the Beothick Indians—both clergymen apparently forgetting that one is very likely not to find what he earnestly hopes he may miss. A man like the Mr. Murphy whom Matthew Arnold has told us about—that champion of "the Protestantism of the Protestant religion" who was afraid that the Catholic clergy had designs on Mrs. Murphy—would probably have been more successful.

Notwithstanding his strong bias, however, our author, we hasten to remark, is not disposed to be censorious towards Protestants, so long as they are not Papist-baiters. It evidently gives him pleasure to be able to state that, in the bad old times of persecution, Protestants were often the first to give priests warning of their danger if an English cruiser were seen near the coast; and he fairly exults over the circumstance that the fourth Bishop (Fleming) was the formidable and successful champion of religious liberty in behalf of the Methodists of Newfoundland. With due allowance for the fact that it was against the pretensions of the Church of England that Bishop Fleming made war on behalf of the Methodists—it being obviously one thing to believe that "Church, as they call it," should be tolerant, and quite another thing to believe that "*the* Church" should be so—we gladly admit that he was as liberal-minded as a "consistent" Catholic can well be.

The same may be said for our author, who is a modest man, as well as a comparatively liberal one. If he does not think that any of his predecessors has made a book which comes up to his standard of what a history should be, neither does he think that he has done so himself. He is conscious of a certain lack of unity in his book, due to his treatment of the early history of Newfoundland in connection with that of other parts of North America, and his confining himself to the affairs of Newfoundland in his treatment of her later history. The idea occurred to him that it might have been better to make two books out of his material than one; and we are ourselves of opinion that, from a literary point of view, it would have been better. He speaks, again, of "compiling" a history of the 'Life and Times of Bishop Mullock,' the present work ending with the death of Bishop Fleming. If he does write such a book, it will, in all probability, be no more a mere compilation than the one before us, which is not made out of other books, but is the result of many years' study and research among original sources of information. That portion which treats in detail of the history of Catholicism in Newfoundland, our author thinks will prove interesting only to Catholic Newfoundlanders. We are of opinion that he here underestimates his own powers of selection and narration. Many of those details have a human interest, and not merely an ecclesiastical or local one. No one could read unmoved the story of the building of the cathedral in St. Johns—one of the most imposing church edifices on this side of the Atlantic. The larger part of the work was actually done gratuitously by the poor. Even the women lent a helping hand, in a very different fashion from that familiar to us at fairs and chicken-suppers: they carried away in their aprons the gravel and clay which had to be removed before laying the foundations. So, too, the narrative of the pastoral visitations of Bishop Fleming makes a pleasing picture. The Bishop went from one settlement to another in a fishing-boat. His fare was fisherman's fare. He ate "fish and vang" (codfish and salt pork boiled together), and drank, presumably, "fisherman's tea" (strong tea liberally sweetened with molasses). At night he had to put up with such accommodations as some poor little fishing village afforded. Everywhere he met with a hearty and affectionate welcome, Protestants sometimes uniting with Catholics to do him honor, and merchants who had some bunting hoisting the Union Jack. In the more remote settlements the visit of a Bishop was a rare event indeed. In some of them they had to get along without a resident clergyman, pious women sometimes conducting simple religious services, and "hedge schoolmasters," or the like, if such learned persons were to be found, performing wedding ceremonies A story is told of one of these, whose custom it was, on such occasions, to recite all the Latin he knew, and that was the *De Profundis*.

The entire work will prove valuable to Catholics who wish to add to their knowledge of their Church, and to Newfoundlanders of all creeds who wish to add to their knowledge of their country; and the first half of it is worthy of attention from students of early North American history. General readers, especially if Protestants, will need to do some skipping; but they will find little in the book to offend, and much to interest them. Many of them, on laying it down, will regret the divisions of Christendom, however necessary they may affirm them to be. The style of the author is generally plain and direct, though there is here and there a little of the "fat of speech." Bishop Mullock is termed "colossal-minded"—an epithet which is commended to the attention of Republican politicians.

The volume is well printed, and neatly bound in green cloth; but it has no index, for which the good table of contents affords at best but a sorry substitute. A good index would at least double the value of the book to a student.

Sancta Sophia and Troitza: A Tourist's Notes on the Oriental Church. By Frederick William Holls, of the New York Bar. New York: Published by the Martin Luther Society. 1888.

The Land of the Nihilist: Russia—Its People, its Palaces, its Politics. A narrative of travel in the Czar's dominions, by William Eleroy Curtis. Belford, Clarke & Co. 1888.

The Russian Peasantry: Their Agrarian Condition, Social Life, and Religion. By Stepniak. Harper & Bros. 1888.

THE unpretending essay of Mr. Holls, read before the Martin Luther Society of New York, describes his visit to the mosque of Aya Sophia at Constantinople and the monastery of Saint Sergius at Troitza near Moscow, with those natural reflections called out by the author's religious tone of mind and the robust Protestantism of his audience. It is easy and not unpleasant reading, containing nothing new, nothing very striking, and nothing particularly objectionable.

It is with reluctance that we take up the book of Mr. Curtis, who has fairly outdone the feats of even French newspaper correspondents. With apparently an interest in his subject and a desire for information, he has succeeded in making at least one error in every important or material statement, and has given to a great number of the atrocious woodcuts with which his book is disfigured, false or misleading titles. And all this he has done, "although he had read every book he could find on the Russian Empire," in order to supply the want of a guide-book, apparently being unaware that the third revised edition of Murray was published in 1876 and can still be procured, and that a new and still better edition has just been issued, to say nothing of 'Studies in Russia,' by Augustus J. C. Hare, of the excellent guide-book by Baedeker published in 1883, and of a French guide besides.

The book of the Nihilist leader who conceals himself under the pseudonym of "Stepniak," deserves much more respect. It is in part new, in part reprinted with some changes from the *Times* and the *Fortnightly Review*. The opening of the columns of the *Times* to the arguments and statements of Nihilist writers is perhaps the greatest conquest brought about by all their bomb-throwing and explosions. It is a book, however, to be read with caution, and in a questioning spirit. Compare the interesting chapters on "Russian Religious Dissent" with the recent articles on the same subject by M. Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, which are the carefully weighed statements of an honest investigator. Although "Stepniak" is well informed and an acute observer, he is writing an argument to support a cause; and one cannot help feeling that the man who would throw the dynamite bomb of an assassin, would not stick at the lesser crime of making a false citation. Still, viewed simply as the argument of Nihilists, Radicals, Socialists (or Liberals, as they would probably prefer to be called, in order to avoid the prejudice attaching to their original designation) the book affords much food for serious thought. The author no longer endeavors to amuse the reader with the story of the "Revolution," and with the adventures and sufferings of foolish, enthusiastic, half-educated young men and women; but seriously sets himself about the task of explaining what are the problems, as he understands them, in Russian life and government which must some time be solved. Until these be fully understoood, it is too soon to talk about the remedies for evils in the Russian body politic—remedies which it will take long to apply, and which will probably in the end not be of the kind desired by "Stepniak" and his friends.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, L. Illustrated Commentary on the Epistle to the Romans. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Allen, J. H. The Tariff and its Evils. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Bacon, T. S. The Beginnings of Religion: An Essay. London: Rivingtons.
Barrett, F. A Recolling Vengeance. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Bolton, Sarah K. Some Successful Women. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.
Brown, W. P. A Sea-Island Romance: A Story of South Carolina after the War. John B. Alden.
Browning, R. Poetical Works. Vol. VI. Dramatic Lyrics; Luria. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Bryant, W. C. Thanatopsis, and Other Favorite Poems. Boston: Ginn & Co. 13 cents.
Chardenal, C. A. First French Course. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
Cheny, Edna D. Louisa May Alcott, the Children's Friend. Boston: L. Prang & Co.
Clouston, W. A. The Book of Noodles: Stories of Simpletons. A. C. Armstrong & Co.
Cochran, W. C. The Students' Law Lexicon. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.
Conforti, L. Pompei: Scene. Naples: Luigi Pierro.
Davidson, J. T. Sure to Succeed. A. C. Armstrong & Son.
Dodd, Anna Bowman. Glorinda: A Story. Boston: Roberts Bros. 75 cents.
Doniol, H. Histoire de la Participation de la France à l'établissement des États-Unis d'Amérique: Correspondance diplomatique et Documents. Vols. I., II. Paris: Alphonse Picard.
Ford, P. L. Pamphlets on the Constitution of the United States, published during its discussion by the people, 1787, 1788. With Notes and a Bibliography. Brooklyn.
Galdós, P. The Court of Charles IV.: A Romance of the Escorial. W. S. Gottsberger.
Green, Anna Katherine. Behind Closed Doors. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Groh, D. W. The Tariff in a Nutshell. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Hamilton, A. Memoirs of Count Gramont. Edited, with Notes, by Sir Walter Scott. Portrait and Etchings by L. Boisson. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Harrison, J. A. Autrefois: Tales of Old New Orleans and Elsewhere. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Heron-Allen, Kisses of Fate. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Hunt, Leigh. Stories from the Italian Poets. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.
Hurlbert, W. H. Ireland under Coercion. 2 vols. Edinburg: David Douglas.
Hutchinson, H. G. The Record of a Human Soul. Longmans, Green & Co.
Kirk, H. C. When Age Grows Young: A Romance. C. T. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Kluge, Prof. F. Etymologisches Wörterbuch. Parts 6, 7. Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner.
Kroeh, Prof. C. F. Pronunciation of Spanish in Spain and America. Hoboken: C. F. Kroeh. 20 cents.
Lee, J. R. Chromatic Chart and Manual of Parliamentary Law. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 25 cents.
Littell's Living Age. Vol. 178. July to September, 1888. Boston: Littell & Co.
Mathews, W. Wit and Humor: Their Use and Abuse. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $1.50.
Minto, W. The Mediation of Ralph Hardelot: A Novel. Harper & Bros. 30 cents.
Morris, C. Half-Hours with the Best Foreign Authors. 4 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Phyfe, W. H. P. The School Pronouncer. Based on Webster's Dictionary. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Price, W. Choix de Contes de Daudet. Boston: Charles H. Kilborn.
Report of the United States National Museum, under the direction of the Smithsonian Institution. July, 1885. Washington.

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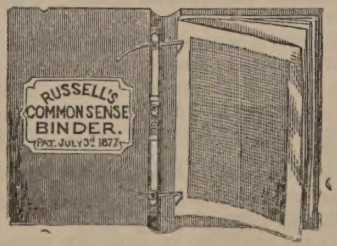

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 25, 1888.

The Week.

THE Mills bill was passed by the House on the 21st of July. The Senate Finance Committee, which, according to the boast of its members, had not waited for the House to act, but had taken up the subject almost at the beginning of the session, did not report upon it until the 4th of October. Then it brought in an entirely new measure—a measure which purported to reduce the revenue by $75,000,000 per annum. Fifteen days later, the Senate abandoned this measure for the present, by passing a resolution of adjournment. So far as it has done anything, it has gone directly counter to the instructions of the Republican party in national convention assembled. In the way of reducing the surplus, it has done nothing. On the contrary, it has refused to allow any other branch of the Government to do anything. When we look at the public necessities, and especially at the daily and pressing need of stopping the inflow of money into a Treasury already gorged with $97,000,000, we are compelled to believe that the Republican majority of the Senate could not agree among themselves on the Finance Committee's bill, and that they resolved to adjourn in order to prevent an open disagreement.

Now let us take a glance at the situation which the Senate leaves behind. The surplus at the beginning of 1887 was $55,258,701. It is now $97,934,305, and is only kept down by large disbursements for bonds bought at high premiums. If the Senate had joined the syndicate of bond speculators, it could not have played into their hands to better advantage than it has done, for it has made known to them and to everybody that the Government must continue to buy bonds at prices fixed by the holders, under stress of a financial panic caused by sweeping into the vaults of the Treasury the money needed for moving the crops and carrying on the ordinary business of the country. The Secretary of the Treasury announced the other day that he had already bought the bulk of the bonds needed for the sinking fund of the present fiscal year, and Assistant Secretary Maynard has prepared a statement showing that, as matters now stand, the accruing surplus up to June 30, 1889, will be $109,854,000 *additional* to the amount now in hand, *i. e.*, about $207,000,000 next midsummer. The Republican Senators, in their endeavors to belittle the surplus, have counted all the extravagant appropriations of the present session as disbursements of the present year, when in fact but a small part of the river and harbor, public buildings, navy, and ordnance appropriations can be expended within the year.

Gen. Joseph R. Hawley is upon the stump for the Republicans in Connecticut, denouncing the Democrats as free traders for supporting a bill which places certain articles on the free list and reduces the duties on others. The only comment which seems called for upon such speeches from such a source is the republication of the following extract from a speech delivered by Joseph R. Hawley in the United States Senate on the 22d of January, 1883 (*Congressional Record*, Forty-seventh Congress, second session, Vol. xiv., Part II., page 1429):

"I speak for a great mass of men, capitalists and laborers, who are deeply and seriously involved in these matters of legislation. I belong to a people who believe in the theory of protection; who believe in its moderate and reasonable application; who desire a reduction of the tariff on many things, and who will gladly assent to many reductions on other matters; who will be very glad to reduce the duties on their manufactured goods if you will cheapen their raw material; who are ready to add very largely to the free list, but above all who reasonably ask the Congress of the United States for some sort of action. Their purposes are not concealed; their motives are not corrupt. A reduction of the tariff has been inevitable for the last four, five, six, or seven years. The people of Connecticut desire the question to be settled."

The general worthlessness of wages statistics as raw material for voters receives a fresh illustration in Senator Cullom's speech on the tariff on the 11th inst., for we find on the same page remarkable discrepancies between two separate statements of the wages of cotton operatives in the United States, both being presented by the Senator as correct. The first is a particularized statement showing twelve different kinds of service in cotton manufacturing and the wages thereof, and three in other mechanical labor employed about the mills. This is said to be "compiled from Volume 20, United States Census." The other is from the "Sixteenth Annual Report of Labor, by Mr. Carroll D. Wright," in which Mr. Wright does not deal with the particular branches, but lumps them together under the head "Cotton Goods." The two are presented in adjoining columns, and refer to weekly wages. The average of the twelve cotton-manufacturing employments in the first table is $8.66 per week; in the second it is $6.45 per week—a difference of 40 per cent. We judge that Mr. Wright's is the more nearly correct, because we observe that in the first of the two tables apprentices are set down as getting $15.30 per week, while mule spinners get only $9.21 and dyers only $6.51. Mr. Cullom gives us also the corresponding rates of wages in English cotton factories. It is worth remark that John Bull does not give apprentices so much advantage over skilled craftsmen as we do, although he holds them in higher estimation than dyers, paying them, according to this table, $5.08, while he allows dyers only $4.96 and strippers $4.45. Mule spinners, according to this table, get in England $6.96 per week. Mr. Blaine, in his celebrated report on the cotton-goods trade of the world, said that spinners in England were getting $7.20 to $8.40, master spinners running as high as $12, and in Massachusetts $7.07 to $10.30, the English working fifty-six hours per week and the American sixty hours. Upon the whole, we think that Mr. Cullom has added as much confusion to the wages question as anybody who has tried his hand at it.

It is not an agreeable task to expose Mr. Blaine's lies in his Western campaign. Nothing but dire necessity could induce us to touch such a Falstaffian mess, which grows more monstrous every day. For example, he said a few days ago that Secretary Fairchild had deposited a million dollars in Chairman Brice's bank, and that Mr. Brice was making $50,000 per year out of the use of this money. It turned out that "Chairman Brice's bank" never had a dollar of Government deposits, although the Chase National Bank, in which he has a small interest, and whose president is a Republican, did have a deposit. Secretary Fairchild said in his speech on the 13th inst. that he never knew that Mr. Brice was a shareholder in the Chase National Bank, nor did he ever know what were the party affiliations of any bank officers or shareholders. The only rules were that no bank should have more than $1,100,000, and that all should be treated alike, provided they put up United States bonds as security. Everybody knows that this was a true statement. Mr. Blaine knows this as well as other people. Mr. Fairchild showed also that a bank having $1,000,000 of such deposits, thus secured, instead of making $50,000 per year out of the use of the money, made only $5,650, against which was to be set the risk of depreciation of the security bonds; and that the banks were now voluntarily returning the money, because it was not, on the whole, worth their while to keep it.

At Chicago Mr. Blaine poured out another volley of untruths. Among others he said:

"But on a larger scale, and as between communities rather than individuals, look at what the Secretary has done. He has placed in the State of New York, in banks of his own selection, nearly thirteen millions of dollars of Treasury funds, and in this great Western body of States, comprising Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, Kansas, and Nebraska, with double the population of New York, and in special need of ready money at this time to move the crops forward to market, the Secretary has given little over $5,000,000; the rule of the Secretary apparently being that to a State of political importance to the Administration, $13,000,000 are given, and to seven States with double the population, that are hopelessly Republican, considerably less than half that amount. [Applause.] Such political gambling and personal sporting with funds of the common Treasury of the people of the United States has never been dreamed of before in this country."

The answer to this is plain to every man of sense. As there was no discrimination made between banks, it follows that if $13,000,000 was deposited in banks in the State of New York and only $5,000,000 in seven Western States, it was because the said seven States applied for only $5,000,000, while the

one State applied for $13,000,000. There is no mystery about this. The security required was the same in all cases. Banking capital is more abundant at the East than at the West. When Mr. Blaine made his great cackle about savings-bank deposits in Massachusetts and Great Britain, he omitted to mention that such deposits in Massachusetts were greater than in all the States west of the Alleghanies and south of the Potomac taken together, including California. The reason for this is that the Western people can generally make better use of their earnings than to put them in savings banks. In like manner, Western national banks can generally make better use of their money than to buy bonds to put up as security for Government deposits.

The Boston *Commercial Bulletin* makes the charge that the Mills bill is a sectional measure. "It removes," says the *Bulletin*, "the duty on Northern 'raw materials' and on Northern manufactured articles made from Southern 'raw materials,' but leaves the duty on Southern 'raw materials' either untouched or substantially protected." Well, we beg to inquire, is not wool a Southern raw material? According to the official returns of 1887, the sheep in the State of Texas were valued at $9,281,890, while those of Ohio, the next largest, were valued at only $8,888,430. Is not turpentine a Southern industry? Turpentine is on the free list in the Mills bill. Is not lumber a Southern product? The truth, as everybody knows, is, that the great bulk of our uncut timber is in the forests of the Southern States; and lumber is on the free list in the Mills bill. Is not jute a Southern raw material? Mr. McKinley and Judge Kelley told us so with great vehemence in the present Congress. Is not cotton-seed oil a Southern product? That also is put on the free list in the Mills bill. Is not hemp a Southern product? That also goes to the free list. The charge that the Mills bill is a sectional measure will not bear investigation.

In its agitation over the decision in the ribbon case, the *Tribune* has forgotten its cue, and directly contravenes that great foundation principle of protectionist organs and orators, that a tariff is not a tax; and that if it be a tax, it is paid, not by the consumers in this country, but by the foreigner who produces the goods imported. Says the *Tribune*:

> "It is represented that duties amounting to more than $7,000,000 will have to be refunded by the United States to importers if the decision in the ribbon case is sustained by the court of last resort. Every dollar of this $7,000,000, more or less, will go into the pockets of importers, *for the ribbons have been sold to consumers at prices based upon the duty which the law was intended to impose.* Nobody imagines that the importers, if they get the $7,000,000 out of the Government, will refund the money to the purchasers of ribbons, if indeed that were possible."

We put in italics, as in rosemary, for remembrance, the *Tribune's* incautious admission that in this single matter of ribbons the sum of $7,000,000 has been paid, not by foreigners, but by the "consumers" in the United States, through increased "prices based upon the duty which the law was intended to impose."

The *Times* publishes interviews with members of the Faculty of Cornell University, which show that the President and thirty-four of the forty-four professors will vote for Cleveland. "It is a significant sign," says one of them, "to see the majority of our earnest thinkers and students, who were with the Republican party heart and soul in all questions relating to slavery, deserting that party in a body on the question of protection." In the past it has been the boast of the Republican party that the intelligence of the country was with it. Now it sneers at educated men, while it tries to bully and bribe poor and ignorant voters into its support.

We believe it is strictly accurate to say that Mr. Henry C. Lea of Philadelphia, whose attack on the President in the *Independent* we notice elsewhere, is the only man of his kind and standing, whether Mugwump or Democrat, in the Eastern States, who has gone over to the Republican camp in the present contest, after having been driven out of it by Blaineism in 1884. Against this solitary desertion of a man of talent, cultivation, and character may be set fully a score of open adhesions to Cleveland from the Republican ranks, by authors, professors, ministers, journalists of greater or less distinction. In fact, there is nothing more remarkable in the present canvass than the rapid transfer of intelligence from the Republican to the Democratic side, and the rapid transformation of the Republicans into the party of selfishness, ignorance, and brute force, such as the Democrats were before the war. The Republicans resist the revision of the tariff, as the Democrats resisted the abolition or restriction of slavery, simply and avowedly because the few think they can make more money by keeping things as they are. They appeal to the ignorant to resist it because it will bring them into competition with foreign "pauper labor," just as the Irish used to be urged to mob the anti-slavery men in order to keep "the niggers" from coming North to take away their work. They distribute the forged extracts and quotations, just as the pro-slavery newspapers used to put ferocious lies into the mouths of anti-slavery men and women. How like the charge that "Cleveland is the English candidate" is to the old pro-slavery "corker," "Do you want your daughter to marry a nigger?"

That little value is to be attached to any of the current estimates as to how men are going to vote this year, is strikingly illustrated by the claim of the Republican managers in Indiana that "the returns show that there are 65,000 young men in Indiana who will be eligible to vote for Presidential candidates for the first time this year," and that a considerable majority of these new voters will support Harrison. The "young men who will be eligible to vote for Presidential candidates for the first time this year" are those twenty-one, twenty-two, twenty-three, and twenty-four years old, and a glance at the census of 1880 would have shown these sapient managers that the number of native white males in Indiana twenty-one, twenty-two, twenty-three, and twenty-four years old in 1880 was far more than 65,000—no less indeed than 79,214; while the increase of population during the interval would carry the number of such young men at the present time considerably above 80,000. The Republican managers are probably no nearer right in their guess that a majority of these new voters are going to support Harrison. An army twice as large as that in Indiana has attained the voting age in New York State. The census of 1880 showed 157,087 native white males in this State twenty-one, twenty-two, twenty-three, and twenty-four years old, and the increase of population since 1880 must make the number considerably larger now. Here is a body of voters considerably larger than the whole number who went to the polls four years ago in both New Hampshire and Vermont, who have no record whatever in national politics. More than three-fourths were born after the close of the war, and have no associations with the issues of the slavery period. If a majority of them vote for Cleveland, he is certain to carry New York.

A lithographed copy of a letter from one John Hess, an English dealer in shoes, to somebody in this country, saying that he (Hess) has forwarded a sample of children's shoe, which he would like to export to the United States if it can be done at the price named (twenty-seven shillings per dozen), is being circulated in the shoe factories along the Hudson River, together with the startling information that the London price per pair is only 56 cents, while it costs 65 cents to make the same article here. This difference of 9 cents, says the circular accompanying the letter, "must fall on the wage-earner." As the Mills bill does not make any change in the tariff on boots and shoes, and as we export those articles in considerable quantities to the British colonies, in competition with Mr. John Hess and others, the value of the lithograph to any intelligent mind is nil. But such things are not addressed to intelligent minds. They are raw material for the "cyclone of fear" which has not yet come. But could anything be more disastrous to the city of New York than the idea, if it could ever be put in practice, that foreign trade is an injury to the country? This is what the circulators of this lithograph mean. They know that workingmen do not understand the petty details about the cost of children's shoes, about lastings, findings, nails, thread, trimmings, boxes, etc., but they think that workingmen will be frightened by a simple letter from an English merchant, sending a sample of his goods to this country to see if there is a market for them. In other words, they think that workingmen are afraid of foreign commerce or can be made afraid of it by a

facsimile of a letter. It is well to remind the workingmen of New York that the foreign commerce which passed into and through this city in the year 1887 (imports and exports) amounted to $763,000,000, and that any political party which should succeed in driving it away, would take the bread out of the mouths of one-half of the people who now find their living here.

Mr. Theodore Roosevelt has issued an "appeal" in behalf of the Republican candidate for Mayor, in which he says that if he had himself polled the full Republican vote when he was a candidate in 1886, he would have been elected by 6,000 plurality. He begs Republicans to be loyal to Col. Erhardt for this reason. Mr. Roosevelt's view of his own candidacy appears to be somewhat different from the one which he took shortly after his defeat. It will be remembered that he went abroad almost immediately. He was met in London, on November 27, 1886, by a *World* correspondent, with whom he talked freely; and in the course of his talk, after "paying a high tribute to the honesty and ability of Mr. Hewitt," said that "he was compelled to enter the race against Mr. Hewitt because, since he was selected, it was necessary that he (Roosevelt) should make a sacrifice for the sake of maintaining the party organization." One sacrifice that he made was the swallowing of his formerly emphatically expressed conviction that partisan considerations should not be allowed to enter into municipal elections. He ran in 1886, not because he expected to be elected, but to "maintain the party organization." That is what Col. Erhardt is running for now; and Mr. Roosevelt's appeal, like his candidacy, is a sacrifice in the interest of that tremendous public necessity.

The decision of Judge Lawrence in the Tilden will case, if sustained by the Court of Appeals, will put the city of New York in possession of the best public library in the world. Of course, there are many greater and more valuable libraries than any that can now be collected by any sum of money whatsoever, but the great libraries, like the Bodleian, the British Museum, the National Library at Paris, the German university collections, and the Library of Congress are not public libraries in the technical sense; they are not libraries from which every citizen can draw books and take them home to read. Nor is the Astor Library such an institution, still less the Lenox Library. The Tilden Library, as we understand the bequest, is to be in the fullest sense a library of the people. In this respect the benefaction is unique and unparalleled. The only things approaching it are the Newberry Library at Chicago, not yet fully established, and the Boston Public Library, an old and admirably conducted institution, which might well serve as a model for the Tilden Library when the trustees find themselves free to begin their work. The Tilden bequest is not only the foundation of the greatest public library in the world thus far, but it is the greatest benefaction that the city of New York or any American city has ever received. We do not recall any bequest to a municipality which can be compared with it, unless that of the Duke of Brunswick to the city of Geneva may equal it in amount. Every citizen of the Empire State will be proud of this noble monument of a great man when the intentions of the donor shall have been realized, and every one, whether his station be high or low, will be a partaker of the blessings which he intended to distribute.

The London *Economist* has been keeping a very sharp eye on the French copper syndicate. In its issue of October 6 it shows that the statistical position is very bad for the syndicate. The supplies of copper have gained on the demand every month since November, 1887. The increase of supply over demand during the year has been 45,580 tons, and the stock on hand is now between 100,000 and 120,000 tons. The *Economist* discusses the "claim" of the syndicate that the supplies in the hands of manufacturers and all the old scrap-copper that was available have now been worked off, and hence that there will soon be a reduction of the stock on hand. This position is considered fallacious for the reason that it makes no account of the abnormal supply from the mines stimulated by the increased price, the opening of new mines, or the lessening of demand consequent upon the high price maintained by the syndicate. The higher rates for money are also mentioned as an element of cost in carrying a stock in which $35,000,000 to $40,000,000 are now locked up. In order to restrict the output of the mines by 25 per cent. the syndicate have offered to advance the price of copper to the producers sufficiently to compensate them for the reduced output. But if this could be done without still further lessening the bona-fide consumption, it would operate still further to bring new mines into the field or to put new activity into old and abandoned ones. The *Economist's* conclusion is, that "the position of the syndicate is extremely doubtful, although it is impossible to say when the inevitable collapse is likely to happen. It may occur as suddenly as the collapse in the case of tin, or it may be postponed for months. But the end is certain."

Alexandre Dumas has been writing a preface to a book by Baron de Vaux on *Le Sport*, and a very amusing and characteristic discussion it is, for the only branch of the "sport" he treats is duelling, and this he makes a peg on which to hang wonderful stories (which recall the 'Voyages en Suisse' of forty years ago) of feats of muscular strength of both his father and grandfather. His father was such a wonderful shot that the Government had to withdraw the permission given him to shoot in the forest of Compiègne, in order to prevent the total extirpation of the game. He was such an athlete that when a cabman on a rainy night refused to carry him for the legal fare, he seized him, and put him on the box by main force. When a gigantic conductor of a diligence was insolent to the passengers, he kept knocking him down until he cried for quarter. His grandfather, the General, was equally wonderful on horseback. He would ride a horse into a gymnasium, take hold of the two rings, and raise himself up, lifting the horse also between his legs. In one of his fights with the Austrians, he charged twenty men, his bridle-reins between his teeth, and a pistol in each hand. He killed two men with the pistol-shots, then threw the pistols away, and killed one man and wounded eight with his sabre. The rest naturally took to their heels. In fact, he sabred the Austrians so much that they called him "The Black Devil." On another occasion, a young man having behaved impolitely to him at the opera, he threw him out of a box into the orchestra stalls. The grandson makes some fun of the present harmless style of French duelling, and thinks it might be suppressed by enacting as follows: "Duelling is lawful, but if any duel does not result in the death of one of the two combatants, or in a wound, disabling the person receiving it for both business and pleasure during a period of one month at least, the said combatants shall be liable jointly and severally to a fine of 10,000 francs, and imprisonment for two years." But the real, sanguinary duel he believes in, because it enables men to satisfy the passion of hatred, which he says is as "much a part of the human soul as love."

Dumas's ridicule of the present style of French duelling appears to have hurt the feelings of M. Albert Wolff, the well-known Parisian journalist, and he maintains in the *Figaro* that duels are not so harmless as they seem, and that the legislation proposed by Dumas would not suppress them. He shows, in the first place, that it would be very unfair to fine or imprison duellists for not killing each other, because some of the most desperate duels end harmlessly, owing to the skill of the combatants; he cites cases in support of his thesis. Moreover, duels do end fatally with reasonable frequency. Did not Viguier kill Caze, and Dichard kill Massas, and was not Labruyère run through the body by Melville, and was not Rocques of the *Courrier Français* put to bed for one month by a sword-thrust, just when everybody supposed the combat ended? Moreover, the pistol is not so harmless either as M. Dumas would have us believe. Was not Potter put to bed for two months by a ball from Carmona, and the painter Dupuis killed outright? And does not Meyer carry a ball in his abdomen, which kept him on his back for several months, and does not Gaston Jollivet carry to this day the marks of a ball which came near killing him? And was not Wolff himself present at a duel where one of the combatants, having fired his shot, stood waiting for his adversary's ball for fully a minute, but luckily was only hit in the coat-collar? The duel, in these times, when "people have so little respect for each other," Wolff thinks the only protection for one's personal dignity, and it is as fatal and bloody as any sensible man need desire, M. Dumas to the contrary notwithstanding.

A BARREN "ARRAIGNMENT."

Mr. Henry C. Lea of Philadelphia, a faithful and devoted friend of civil-service reform, but also a faithful, devoted friend of our present tariff, has a scathing article in the last *Independent* on Mr. Cleveland's record as a civil-service reformer. He sums up his charges as follows:

"Mr. Cleveland was elected under the pledge that he would carry out the reform. In place of that he has dealt it a blow which, though not mortal, will require years of earnest effort to recover from; for the prostitution of patronage in return for Congressional and other support has taken fresh root and more sturdy life than ever. His reëlection would signify the public acquiescence in this. It would mean that the people at large care nothing for reform; that they are satisfied to have political bosses foist their henchmen into office; that patronage is still, as of old, to be wrangled for between Congressional office-brokers; that office is still to be the coin in which to pay political debts and gain the service of political *condottieri;* that the conduct of public business is a secondary consideration, and that the Civil-Service Commission may remain as a convenient toy to amuse infantile reformers."

If the question which Mr. Lea is presenting to the voters were, "Shall we reëlect Mr. Cleveland, or go without a President for a few years, until we find one whom we can trust with the distribution of the patronage?" or if the voters were a great debating club, and the question for the day was whether Cleveland had fulfilled his pledges, or whether he had reformed the civil service, or whether he was a truly good or only a moderately good man, we confess Mr. Lea's arguments, or rather his "arraignment," would make considerable impression on us.

But the business before the voters is not academical discussion. It is political action. They are not called on to decide simply whether Mr. Cleveland has been all they expected him to be, but whether he is a better man, all things considered, for the place of President of the United States than Mr. Harrison. Consequently, nobody who sets before us, as Mr. Lea does, Cleveland's shortcomings, without telling us what he expects of Harrison, can be said to have contributed anything useful to the present controversy. Not one allusion to Harrison's record as a civil-service reformer does he make. Not one particle of information does he offer the wretched Mugwumps as to what use Harrison and his followers will make of the offices in case they get into power. Mr. Lea's diatribe, in fact, reminds us of a man who, finding a friend "in a hole," should stand on the edge, minutely describing to him the hole itself and all the horrors of his situation, but should carefully refrain from telling him how to escape, or offering him any aid in doing so.

It is our painful duty—we hate to be in the attitude of setting right before the public a man whom we respect so much as we respect Mr. Lea—to supply some of that information to civil-service reformers about the choice they have to make on the 6th of November which Mr. Lea has thought fit to withhold.

This choice lies between Cleveland and Harrison. Not to elect Cleveland is to elect Harrison. To "make an example of Cleveland" is to elect Harrison. Mr. Lea's simile —"When a farmer nails a chicken-hawk to his barn-door, he not only gets rid of a plunderer, but he gives a wholesome warning to its fellows"—is not apposite, because in the present case it is proposed to give another chicken-hawk the run of the barnyard. What kind of chicken-hawk is this other? That is the question. Let us have some light on it. We must remember, in the first place, that Gen. Harrison is not a new man in public life. He has been in the Senate six years, and during that period it is a matter of notoriety that the Capitol contained no more gluttonous office-seeker. One of the Cabinet jokes during Garfield's short term was that Blaine said "Harrison had asked for thirteen more first-class missions than there were." What Harrison's views were as to the use and abuse of the civil service were indeed sufficiently set forth by him in his letter of April 3, 1883, to Mr. N. Filbeck, touching the appointment of a revenue collector in Indiana. He said, in answer to the assertion that the appointment of a certain Carter had been made to oblige a certain Pierce, "I desire to say to you, this is not true. The appointment is made by me alone upon what seems to be the weight of [Republican] influence in the district." In other words, he has been an avowed spoilsman, pure and simple. In his letter of acceptance he approves of the Civil-Service Law, which we believe Cleveland has, on the whole, faithfully executed, and makes exactly the kind of promises Cleveland made as to appointments not covered by the law, but adds significantly: "I know the practical difficulties attending the attempt to apply the spirit of the civil-service rules to all appointments and removals. It will, however, be my sincere purpose, if elected, to advance the reform." We believe he does know these practical difficulties much better than Cleveland did when he took office, for he has been one of the difficulties himself; but there is in neither his career nor his character the smallest reason for supposing that he would make half the battle against them that Cleveland has done.

Nor is there anything in the attitude of his party in this canvass to warrant the belief that he, a weaker man than Cleveland, would have even as much help in meeting these difficulties as Cleveland has had. There is not in the Republican party a single prominent politician in good standing who can be called a warm advocate of the reform. More than this, there is not among the Republican newspapers a single journal of weight or prominence whose tone towards the reform is not one of more or less veiled derision, or which ever seeks to make it a pressing or important question. The contrast between what Cleveland's experience in these particulars has been and what Harrison's would be, is, indeed, very great. In this canvass, on the Republican side civil-service reform plays no part whatever, and no reference is ever made to it except for the purpose of illustrating what is said to be Cleveland's perfidy and hypocrisy. In the report on the civil-service abuses made by Senator Hale's Committee, there is no condemnation of these abuses on behalf of the public service. They are denounced simply as evidences of the President's bad faith. In fact, one finds nowhere, in looking over the field, the trace of a belief among leading Republicans that his delinquencies would be in the least degree culpable if he had not promised to abstain from them. This position was boldly taken by leading Republican Senators, at the beginning of his term, in the debate over "the papers," and has never been receded from. Moreover, the openly manifested contempt for the reform has even been carried so far as to cover the numerous Republicans who, contrary to all precedent since Jackson's day, have remained in office under the present Administration. They are actually spoken of as black sheep for retaining their places.

For all these reasons, and a great many others which we cannot for want of space produce here, we do not hesitate to express our belief, while admitting to the fullest extent the President's shortcomings, that his defeat by Gen. Harrison would be the signal for a "clean sweep" which, for promptness, completeness, and ruthlessness, has not been equalled since the outbreak of the war; that even the "painful inch" which we have gained during the past four years would be totally lost, and that the victory would be taken as a license to put the reform of the civil service out of sight during the present generation, and as a triumph over the reformers even more than over the Democrats.

SAVING TRUTHS FOR YOUNG POLITICIANS.

Mr. Moorfield Storey of Boston has an interesting article in the *Harvard Monthly*, on politics as a career and as a duty. Mr. Storey is abundantly competent to speak to young men on this question, because he has been a faithful observer of politics and politicians, and a faithful participator in political controversies, ever since he got his first taste of politics thirty years ago as the private secretary of Charles Sumner. He is now a leading member of the Boston bar, and has, from an uncompromising Radical Republican, become, by a process now very familiar, an uncompromising Mugwump; consequently he may safely be said to speak with knowledge on the question now presenting itself to so many educated young Americans, In what manner can I best promote the purity and efficiency of the American Government?

To many young men, with a taste for politics, and with a fair facility with the tongue or pen, the answer to this will seem simple enough. Nine out of ten of them will say that if they wish to make their abilities useful to the country in legislation or administration, they must seek to get themselves elected to office; that it is only in office that a man can make himself directly felt in the work of government; and that, as office can only be obtained through party service, they must, above all things, cultivate fidelity to party. This class, however, Mr. Storey puts through a terrible sifting process, for he tells all young men

who wish to call their souls their own, and give the country honest work, that they must not think of taking an elective office if they are obliged to depend on the salary for a livelihood. The temptations to which mere love of popularity and mere love of place and power expose the politician in a country of universal suffrage, are great enough in all conscience. It is not every character which is capable of resisting them; in fact, most men in public life, in a greater or less degree, yield to them. But from the man whose bread and butter, and those of his wife and children, are dependent on his getting a renomination, and whose renomination depends on his pleasing his local managers, independence and honesty are not to be expected. The strain is too great for ordinary virtue. There is hardly anything which even good men will not, in the last resort, surrender for a support. Therefore Mr. Storey excludes from his audience all young men who go into politics for revenue only. Concerning them, as the poet says, he argues not, but makes a note of them and passes them by.

After they are gone, there remains a certain number, which of late years has been increasing, of young men of inherited private fortunes, greater or less in amount, who, finding themselves relieved from the necessity of daily toil, and having a strong taste for public life, and being animated by more or less patriotic fervor, seek in politics a field for their ability and energy. These, largely we believe under the influence of the English tradition, can rarely persuade themselves that they are really "in politics" or really exerting an influence on the Government of their country, unless they are in possession of some sort of elective office, and especially a seat in some legislative body. That they are correct in this view, all practical politicians whom they consult are sure to impress on them. They accordingly take at once, as the first step in their career, to cultivating party loyalty and rendering party service by close attention to the nominating process, beginning with the primaries and ending with the conventions, by sinking individual views and preferences, and by the elimination from their mental habits of everything which makes concession to other people hard or distasteful. After the requisite amount of such training and service, and the payment of a certain sum of money, a nomination is pretty sure to come to a well-to-do young man in either of our great parties; and if he has connected himself, as he is pretty sure to have done, with the one which is the stronger in his locality, the election follows as a matter of course. There have been several conspicuous instances among us of late years of political careers begun in this way, and of the conversion of promising political young philosophers into very unpromising political partisans, through the belief that to make a creditable political career in this country you must, no matter what your talents or acquirements may be, hold office; and that without office, no matter what your talents or acquirements may be, you can have no influence on the march of public affairs.

It is to the victims of this which we may in some cases call soul-destroying delusion, that Mr. Storey mainly addresses himself. They are lured to their moral and political ruin by inattention to the most striking and in some ways most important political phenomenon of our time, the gradual decline of legislators in real power and influence, and the gradual withdrawal from them of all discretion in dealing with legislative problems, and of all share in moulding the opinions which are finally embodied in laws. We are far from saying that an educated young man does wrong in seeking a seat in Congress or the Legislature, or may not render the State good service while there. What we say is, that an educated young man who believes he will increase the weight or influence in affairs which his talents and character give him by getting an office, and makes the smallest sacrifice of conviction or independence in order to get it and keep it, commits a great mistake. On the contrary, in order to get the office, he in nine cases out of ten sacrifices everything which prevents the office from being a very degraded form of slavery.

Only very exceptional men, even in our day, stay in office through a party nomination without being ready, whenever called on, to defend all party doctrines and party acts. The more a party nominee plumes himself on his character, his culture, or his independence, the more eager will the managers be to put him on the stump as an apologist; and the first time he opens his mouth in obedience to their demands his moral value vanishes. Not only does his peculiar influence perish in the public eye the minute he proclaims himself a partisan, but his future becomes as insecure as that of the Christian gentleman who has paid his first instalment to a blackmailer. To the plain people whom he dazzled with his "culture" he becomes simply a useful charlatan, while to the class in which he was bred, and which he has deserted, he is simply a man who has sold himself without the wretched plea of necessity. It is to the unfortunates who feel tempted to tread this path of shame and failure that Mr. Storey addresses himself. May his remarks be blest to them! They are but an expression of the great saving truth, that "A man's a man for a' that."

THE EVOLUTION OF THE WAGES ARGUMENT.

THE most amusing thing about the present campaign has been to watch the protectionists storm one another's positions. Without a leader, and marching under heterogeneous banners, hardly a battery has been planted but that it has presently been found to be sending its shells into some section of the allied forces. It has now come to be recognized that the only munition that can safely be used is the pauper-labor bomb, which serves to fill the air with dust and scare such laborers as still believe that American wages are not really earned, but are charitably increased by a slice from capital's share of the product of our industries.

Yet this wages argument, though endorsed by the united intellect of living protectionist leaders, appears almost ludicrously strange when contrasted with the utterances of the protectionist fathers. During the first fifty years of our national history such an argument was never thought of. Then it was said: "We must have protection in spite of our high wages." Only within the last generation was the claim put forth that "We must have protection because of high wages." And not until the infant-industry cry had degenerated into a senile absurdity did misrepresentation take the place of argument, and protectionists begin their present clamor, that "We have high wages because we have protection." The evolution is so remarkable that it is worth while to examine more closely the process.

Before the Declaration of Independence the chief industrial grievance of the colonists was the refusal of Great Britain to grant them free trade. Our young manufactures, except those of iron, were repressed by law in order that we might be the customers of the British factories, and our trade with other nations was hampered and forbidden in order that British merchants might retain a profitable monopoly. The colonists protested against these restrictions because they prevented them from buying goods cheap, and there were at that time no powerful interests which would applaud the absurdity that it is a blessing to have goods dear. When, therefore, independence had been won, and the demand arose for a moderate temporary protection for infant manufactures, nothing would have been more absurd than for protectionists to have claimed that past protection was the cause of the difference between American and European wages. Yet the difference then was even more marked than it is to-day. Adam Smith, the ablest English champion of the Americans in their protest against monopolistic restrictions, writing in 1773, described American wages as follows (Book I., chapter viii.):

"England is certainly in the present time a much richer country than any part of North America. The wages of labor, however, are much higher in North America than in any part of England. In the province of New York, common laborers earn three shillings and sixpence currency, equal to two shillings sterling a day. Ship carpenters ten shillings and sixpence currency, with a pint of rum worth sixpence sterling, equal in all to six shillings and sixpence sterling. . . . The price of provisions is everywhere in North America much lower than in England. . . . If the money price of labor be higher, therefore, than it is anywhere in the mother country, the real command of the necessaries and conveniences of life which it conveys to the laborers must be higher in a still greater proportion."

Those who have doubted the correctness of Adam Smith's conclusions have never doubted the correctness of his observations.

This great contrast in wages being everywhere admitted, it was naturally used by the free-traders as one of the arguments against prematurely forcing American labor into less productive channels. The protectionist reply to this received its best statement in Henry Clay's great tariff speech of 1824. Mr. Clay said (Speeches, vol. i., p. 266):

"The fundamental error of the gentleman from Virginia, and of the school to which he belongs, in deducing from our sparse population our unfitness for the introduction of the arts,

consists in their not sufficiently weighing the importance of the power of machinery.

"*In former times, when but little comparative use was made of machinery, manual labor and the price of wages were circumstances of the greatest consideration. But it is far otherwise in these latter times. Such are the improvements and the perfection of machinery that, in analyzing the compound value of many fabrics, the element of natural labor is so inconsiderable as almost to escape detection.*"

Again (p. 279):

"In considering the fitness of a nation for the establishment of manufactures, we must no longer limit our views to the state of its population and the price of wages. All circumstances must be regarded, of which that is, perhaps, *the least important*. Capital, ingenuity in the construction and adroitness in the use of machinery, and the cheapness of the raw materials are those which deserve the greatest consideration. *All these circumstances* (except that of capital, of which there is no deficiency), *exist in our country in an eminent degree, and more than counterbalance the disadvantage, if it really exists, of the lower wages of labor in Great Britain.*"

At the time Clay said this, "all these circumstances" did not exist anywhere in America to the degree which they exist even in Nebraska and Dakota to-day. The development of labor-saving machinery which the last generation has witnessed was in his day undreamed of. The dearness of capital, owing to its scarcity; the impossibility of manufacturing on a large scale, owing to the sparse population; and the ability of labor to do better by utilizing our bountiful natural resources—all placed the East of that day on a level with the extreme West of our own. But in the Eastern States to-day, when machinery has reached its marvellous development, when capital is so cheap that the State of Ohio borrows on almost precisely the same terms as the Government of Great Britain, when the cheapest transportation in the world makes manufacture on the largest scale possible, America does possess every one of Clay's more than counterbalancing advantages except cheap raw materials, and this advantage is prevented only by the useless, wasteful, and absurd taxes which the Senate bill would retain upon them. Unless Mr. Clay's followers are willing to assert that his great argument of 1824 was free-trade theorizing, they must admit that it is to-day an unanswerable argument, not only for tariff reform, but for tariff abolition.

Mr. Clay did exaggerate,—no man can avoid it who attempts to defend an absurdity; but his exaggeration in asserting that, in analyzing the value of manufactured goods the "element of natural labor is so inconsiderable as almost to escape detection," is gentle and timid compared with the representation of the Senate Committee on Finance that the greater expense of this element in America demands a tariff of 47 per cent. on the total value of factory goods. If American economic history demonstrates anything, it demonstrates that American labor, by its energy and capacity, by its "ingenuity in the construction and adroitness in the use of machinery," in spite of higher wages, can produce the cheapest farm and mine products in the world, can build the cheapest houses in the world, can furnish by far the cheapest railway service in the world, and, wherever 40 per cent. tariffs on raw material and machinery do not bar the way, can also lead the world in the production of cheap manufactures.

But if the argument that the high wages in our factories necessitate the perpetuation of an inordinate tariff be founded on misrepresentation, the other argument, that our high wages have been caused by this inordinate tariff, is based upon falsification—the falsification of the most salient fact in our economic history. The wages in American industries always and necessarily corresponded with the value of the products. The laboring class never asked for the protective tariff, and from the beginning until now their only connection with it has been that they have paid the bulk of the millions every year collected. In latter times it has indeed been urged that the money is eventually spent in the employment of labor; but just as much labor would always have been employed if the laborers had been permitted to spend it themselves.

THE TARIFF ON BOOKS.

THE Mills bill, as it was passed by the House of Representatives, exempts from duty "Bibles, books, and pamphlets *printed in other languages than English*, AND books and pamphlets, and all publications of foreign Governments, and publications of foreign societies, historical or scientific, *printed for gratuitous distribution.*" The Senate Committee on Finance, in their report (No. 2332) submitted October 4, to accompany their substitute for the Mills bill, point to this clause as illustrating one of the numerous inconsistencies which they pretend to have discovered in the latter bill, and claim that according to its provisions "Bibles and other books in foreign languages, printed for gratuitous distribution, are free; while Bibles and other books in foreign languages, if printed for sale, are dutiable at 25 per cent. ad valorem." A reference to the paragraph, as printed above, will show that no such construction of it is tenable, and that the words "printed for gratuitous distribution" do not apply to the first phrase at all, but refer only to the publications of foreign Governments and foreign societies; while the latter publications, on the other hand, are not qualified by the words "printed in other languages than English."

The liberality of the House in proposing to allow citizens of the United States to accept free of tax such publications as were supplied to them without cost by the generosity of foreigners, did not seem excessive. Indeed, to many of our citizens that seems a peculiarly oppressive tax which is levied by their own Government upon the knowledge which is gratuitously furnished to them by foreign institutions. A foreign Government or a foreign society offers the American citizen, without a penny of cost, books which may contain knowledge of the highest value to him; but his own Government refuses to deliver them to him until it has first set an imaginary price upon them for the purpose of taxing him one-quarter of that amount. This does seem a somewhat remarkable way in which to encourage the spread of knowledge among our people. But to the Senate Committee it appears reasonable enough, apparently; at least they have taken pains to strike out that portion of the paragraph in the Mills bill which attempted to abolish this state of things; and the clause has been pared down to simple permission of the free importation of "books and pamphlets printed exclusively in languages other than English." Even an untaxed Bible, when printed in English, is not endurable to the Senate Committee.

During the discussions in the Senate upon the International Copyright Bill, a Republican Senator asserted that it was the "ardent hope and expectation" of his party that the day might never come when the duties should be taken off of books. Nevertheless, we believe that the rapid approach of that day is inevitable, and that it may safely be predicted that even fifty years hence it will be a matter of astonishment and incredulity that a Senator, supposed to represent that portion of our country which boasts the greatest intellectual advancement, should have ventured to announce that the political party which claimed to embrace the best intellect of this country was possessed, in the year 1888, of an "ardent hope and expectation" that the time would never come for the abolition of a most reprehensible fraud, affecting the highest interests of the people. For what can be more blamable upon the part of a Government *with an overflowing treasury* than to check, by the interposition of a heavy tax, the influx of the means of moral and intellectual advancement? During these same discussions upon the Copyright Bill, the following dialogue took place in the Senate Chamber:

"Mr. Beck—The object of this bill, I understand, is to disseminate knowledge among men?

"Mr. Chace—Certainly, to encourage it.

"Mr. Beck—Now, why not allow our own people to obtain, in the cheapest way they can, the product of the brains of foreigners? In other words, if we are to help our own people, and at the same time allow the people of all foreign countries to have the reward of their own genius and their own talents, why not have free trade as regards books among all countries? Then our people would get the cheapest, and everybody would be protected at home and abroad, and the people would get the benefit. That would be fair all around, would it not?

"Mr. Chace—I would say to the Senator that that is a very Utopian idea. If we could get the foreign countries to do it, perhaps we might; but they do not do it, and they will not do it.

"Mr. Beck—Suppose we make the offer to them to bring their books in free for our people if they will do the same thing, and they would jump at it, I think."

Senator Beck's argument is incontrovertible, therefore his proposal is "Utopian." But the Senator from Rhode Island is mistaken in supposing that the other nations of the world are as short-sighted as the United States in this direction. Even the strongest "protective" States of Europe are too intelligent to put a tax upon the instruments by which their people are to grow in intelligence and culture; and for the few civilized countries of the world which do tax foreign books, the excuse can be made that they are struggling

with bankrupt exchequers—an excuse which the United States cannot plead. An examination of the tariff laws of the world (a few for countries of minor importance not being available), shows that the following countries charge no import duty whatever upon books of any kind: Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Great Britain, Greece, Netherlands, Norway, Rumania, Turkey, Barbados, Bermuda, Ceylon, Corea, Ecuador, Hawaiian Islands, Honduras, India, Natal, Newfoundland, New South Wales, Nicaragua, Queensland, South Australia, Tasmania, Victoria, and western Australia. To this list there might justly be added some other countries; for example, Sweden, where, according to the new tariff law of July 18, going into effect on January 1, 1889, all books are admitted free of duty except Bibles and hymn-books when bound abroad. Upon the latter a charge of 13½ to 53 cents per kilo is made, according to the kind of binding. In Portugal also all books are free but such as are printed abroad in the Portuguese language (except when by Portuguese authors resident abroad), and these pay a duty of 10¾ cents per kilo. The same rule holds in Russia, all foreign books being admitted free, but unbound Russian books (when printed abroad) paying $1.50 per pood (equal to thirty-six pounds), and when bound $2.25 for the same weight. In Chili all books are freely admitted, except such as contain engravings, upon which the same charge seems to be made as would be made on the engravings, viz., 35 per cent. ad valorem. New Zealand appears to admit books without charge, except in the case of one class called "gift books," which pays 15 per cent. ad valorem. In Italy unbound foreign books are admitted free, but when bound, duty is charged at the rate of $3.86 per 100 kilos, while unbound books in the Italian language only pay the same duty as would be charged upon the paper upon which they are printed, viz., $2.90 per 100 kilos. All unbound books relating to the sciences, arts, and industries are admitted without charge into Venezuela, as well as newspapers and periodicals; but bound books are charged $6.64 and upwards for each 100 pounds weight, according to the quality of the binding.

Twenty-eight States, therefore, including most of the great nations of the world, have absolutely free trade in books, while seven others only charge duties upon exceptional kinds of books. It should be borne in mind that the great bulk of foreign books are sold to the reader unbound, and that the exportation, therefore, of bound editions would be exceptional, and they would consist of special classes of books, such as school-books or holiday volumes. This is a very fair foundation for Senator Beck's Utopian idea. It is, indeed, altogether unlikely that any single nation in the world would reject a proposition coming from the United States for reciprocal free trade in books.

Of the countries which distinctly advocate a duty on books, but two belong to Europe, namely, Spain and Switzerland. The former charges $8.10 per 100 kilos upon works printed in the Spanish language and $1.93 per 100 kilos upon books in foreign languages; while the latter country makes a uniform charge of 19.3 cents for each quintal of weight. The South American and Central American States for the most part charge duties upon books as follows: Argentine Republic, from 45 cents to $1 per kilo; Brazil, 32 to 62 cents per pound, according to binding; Mexico, 3 cents to $1.20 per kilo, depending on the material used in binding, Peru 10 per cent. ad valorem, San Salvador 5 per cent. ad valorem, United States of Colombia 20 cents per kilo, Uruguay about 65 cents per kilo. Hayti makes a specific charge of from 3 to 20 cents per volume on bound books, according to size, reducing the amounts one-half if the works are unbound. Classical books and school-books, however, are admitted free. Porto Rico charges from $5.40 to $6.90 per 100 kilos, depending upon the country from which the importation is made. In Canada the usual duty is 15 per cent. ad valorem, but upon Bibles, prayer and hymn books only 5 per cent. is charged, while the free list includes all books printed more than seven years, all publications of Governments or by scientific societies, and books prepared for the deaf and dumb and the blind. It may be remarked, concerning the various British colonies, that some twenty years ago they passed laws establishing charges upon imported foreign reprints of British copyright books, not as tariff taxes, but as a method for collecting, upon behalf of the British author, the copyright royalty. Such of these laws as had not been repealed by later copyright statutes were abrogated when Great Britain, on behalf of her colonies, joined the International Copyright Union.

THE INFLUENCE OF THE RELIGIOUS NOVEL.

THE reported exclusion from the Ipswich (Eng.) Library of 'Robert Elsmere,' on the ground of its being a "dangerous book," in the eyes of the trustees, suggests many inferences as to the mental condition of those gentlemen. Any that they might consider uncomplimentary we have no purpose to mention, being bent only, for the present, on examining the idea upon which their action must have been largely based—the idea, namely, that the novel is a highly effective instrument of religious propaganda. We can only hazard a guess at the contents of the library over which such faithful guardians are set, but there is little risk in assuming that they have admitted into it the works of Darwin, possibly some specimens of historical criticism as applied to the Biblical documents, very likely some volumes of essays on social reform and allied topics. In fact, the larger part of the raw material worked up in 'Robert Elsmere,' in kind at least, may probably be found—and very little the worse for wear, too—on the shelves of the Ipswich institution. At any rate, it is common for those who stand sentinel over the reading of the youthful mind to let a treatise pass unchallenged, though they give their sharpest *qui vive* to a novel meant to convey the same teaching.

It would be curious if this should turn out to be a survival of the time when the novel, as such, was taboo among the promoters of the cloistered virtues. Certainly it has happened in other departments of religious censorship that what was once a stroke of decapitation, aimed at a whole species, has become a dubious wielding of the shears of discrimination, clipping at one or two ill-favored varieties. However this may be, we may at once admit that there is a certain element of truth in the view that the religious novel may pierce armor from which religious argument falls away blunted. That truth is, that the novel wins a readier and wider hearing than the essay or the monograph can hope for. Many persons are attracted by anything in the shape of a story who would shrink from reading a book demanding close and consecutive thinking. This is the power of logic translated into terms of life and set aglow with passion. If it is only a question of the comparative number of readers, there is nothing to debate about. Where 'Supernatural Religion' has slain its tens, 'Robert Elsmere' will slay its thousands.

But to hear is one thing, to hearken is another. In so far as a novel preaches, it must be content to fare as preaching does. What can only confirm faith should not be expected to create it. Those who already believe the truth which the story-teller strives to set forth in her tale, believe it on other evidence—assent in sympathy; others wonder, or become angry, at any rate dissent. What the professional novel-reader thinks of the didactic twist given to the narrative upon which he has been induced to enter is fairly enough implied in cynical Labouchere's remark, to the effect that he could not see what objection the Ipswich trustees could take to 'Robert Elsmere'; he, for his part, considered it an entirely harmless book, over which he had fallen sweetly asleep more than once. In fact, the greatest direct effect which that novel could produce upon any mind not already in the same drift with it, would be, not a change of belief, but the sending to the real sources of a change of belief—in this case, the methods and results of modern science, and the historical and comparative study of religions. And one would think that the ingenuous young mind of to-day found too many finger-boards, on every road, pointing that way, to make it a matter of surprise or indignation that Mrs. Ward should have erected one more.

This idea, that religious truth dressed out in the attractions of a novel has a seductive power far beyond that of unadorned religious argument and appeal, may be tested by giving it an application the reverse of that thus far noticed. Instead of the heterodox novel laid before the orthodox reader, let it be the orthodox novel laid before the heterodox reader. It is not very probable that the novels of the late E. P. Roe had more effect upon Matthew Arnold than, say, Nelson 'On Infidelity.' One would not mail to Prof. Huxley the most powerful of Mrs. Prentiss's religious stories, and live in hope of hearing that it had turned him from the error of his ways. Or, if this be said to be quite unfair, since the question is of

influence upon immature minds, let the assault be made upon the children of men holding and teaching in their families such opinions as Arnold held and Huxley holds. It is hard to believe that the "Pansy" books would be successful religious emissaries in such a case. Free-thinking parents might shudder, we admit, at finding such works in the hands of their children, but it would be in fear of something else than religious effects.

The stalwart old theologians had an excellent show of reason for their blunt talk about "effectual calling" and "reprobation." So mysterious are those mental processes which result in changed conviction, that we cannot blame the men who took the easy leap from incomprehensibility to divine arbitrariness. So impossible is it for us to understand why the argument which bends one mind is broken on another, entirely like the first, as far as we can see—why the personality that dominates one life beats in vain against its mate—that we cannot wonder at those who said that argument is nothing and personality is nothing, and that new belief and purpose are forced on the soul by the Eternal Power. Yet we have learned something more than they knew of the subtly generative forces that lie back of the birth of mental children strangely unlike their known parentage. One thing we have learned is that insinuated truth is usually more successful in shaping conviction than arguments flung boldly from an unmasked catapult. This is of the highest importance for the novelist to remember. George Eliot wrote all her novels on that principle. Her free-thinking friends often wondered, sometimes asked her, why she did not let her genius give wings to the religious views she was known to hold. She would not do it. She based her refusal partly on the danger of frightening away her readers; but she could have feared this only because she knew that the teaching they were getting from her was destined to work mightier changes than any she could effect by bolder methods. She struck at a deeper and more vital thing than wrong conceptions of religion, namely, wrong conceptions of morality. Those who learned from her to believe in scientific morals would have already destroyed the substance of a religion based upon an unscientific morality, and the form of it would go, all in good time.

Meanwhile, the fact of such a book as 'Robert Elsmere' coming to be written at all, especially to be written by the person who did write it, is really of more weight and suggestion than anything in the novel itself. Mrs. Ward will certainly find an entry in the next edition of Galton's 'Hereditary Genius' under the Arnold family. Few will dispute that Rugby Arnold's granddaughter has drawn much from his loins. The scholarship, the moral earnestness, the philanthropic zeal, the courage—family heirlooms are they all. But the religious view? Is this atavism too? Well, we only know that the children's teeth are not set on edge unless the fathers have eaten sour grapes. Descendants do but lengthen a man's experience, and give his views a chance to mature. It is but an example of the progress from generation to generation, to be observed all about us, that the grandchild yields in showing an ancestral talent increased by the usury of time. This is the great fact, the fact of steady religious change, that makes all arguments for religious change insignificant because it is so much more forcible an argument than any of them. And the great merit of 'Robert Elsmere' is, we believe, the faithful way in which it holds up the mirror to common religious experiences of the age. If astonishingly to reveal the thoughts of many hearts is the proof of a great writing, then such is that book; but that is quite apart from the power of making proselytes, which the Ipswich trustees dreaded.

THE ART AND CRAFTS EXHIBITION.

LONDON, October 6, 1888.

IT requires the courage of enthusiasts to open an exhibition in London during the dullest of all seasons, while most of the frequenters of exhibition rooms are still lingering by the seaside or shooting in Scotland. The moment for a new venture is unpropitious in the extreme, yet there was a goodly gathering at the New Gallery on Saturday, September 30, at the private view of the Exhibition of Arts and Crafts. All who really take genuine interest in art, and who desire beauty of design and ornament in their homes, will wish all success to the Exhibition and its promoters. The aims of the Society are to bring before the public decorative work of all kinds, and to educate their taste as to design, and form and excellence of workmanship, in all the manual arts; also, to give all credit to those who execute the displayed object, and to this end the catalogue gives the name of the designer and also of the executants where any responsibility falls upon them. It seems that this new and quite unprecedented plan of cataloguing met with little encouragement from the principals of the great London firms who contributed objects. They protested against advertising their workmen, and naturally enough, for it was not in their own selfish interest to do so; but Mr. Walter Crane, the President, whose socialistic principles are well known, was imperative on this head, and has in most cases carried his point, so that honor will fall where honor is due—to the worker, and not to the capitalist who employs him. Besides thus bringing into prominence the generally ill-paid work of clever operatives, it is to be hoped that this Exhibition will lead many young enthusiasts, not gifted with any special genius for painting, and longing vainly to follow an artistic career, to turn their capacity into less ambitious channels and to seek to educate themselves for some manual art.

Our exhibitions, crowded as they are with inferior work, refuse thousands of pictures every year, and yet the number of artists and art students is ever increasing. On the other hand, among the cultivated classes there is a great desire to improve the interior of their homes by decorations of all kinds; and one can easily understand that in so dark and dismal a city as London, where the houses are for the most part so dingy and similar as to their exterior, people should seek to make pleasant homes, and love to adorn them according to their means and tastes; and here we have displayed what is needful for that purpose, from wall-papers and chintzes to exquisite tapestries from the looms of Morris & Co. at Merton Abbey, rich *gesso* work by Burne-Jones and Walter Crane, together with every kind of less ambitious and costly forms of decoration. On entering the Gallery the first object which meets the eye is a copper fountain by W. A. S. Benson. The novelty of the material for this purpose is more striking than effective. The design of the fountain is very simple: a copper basin raised on a brass stem, in the midst of which a tiny temple of brass and copper stands, with glass sides, through which one sees a ball rising to the top and tumbling again as if thrown. To watch this ball would pleasantly while away an idle hour of summer, and it is to be hoped that the directors of the New Gallery may retain it to rest the eyes of their visitors in the summer during the picture exhibition. Mr. Henry Holliday's reredos for a church in Philadelphia occupies a prominent position in this hall. It is executed entirely by himself and Mrs. Holliday in Venice and Murano smalti. The system of work is excellent, the coloring is bright and beautiful as regards the draperies, but the heads and hands are not pleasantly designed: they are not conventional and simple enough for mosaic, and not of a type suitable to the subject. When we compare this with the designs for the apse of the American Church of St. Paul's in Rome, by Burne-Jones, in the North Gallery, we become convinced of the all-importance of firm, simple lines, and of the necessity of conventional forms for this art. Notwithstanding the Byzantine character, intentionally adhered to in Burne-Jones's compositions, we find all the originality and immense power of invention of this great master of decorative design, the greatest England has ever produced; and, indeed, with the exception of Raphael, we turn in vain to the past for one who can be said to have produced so much that is lovely and excellent in design.

Two colored designs for further mosaics for the arches of the same church are particularly lovely. In the Annunciation, the scene takes place in a sandy, desert-like country. The Virgin has been seeking for water, her pitcher is beside her; her attitude at the angel's message is full of pious humility. In the Tree of Life, Adam stands on one side, with the implements of field labor; Eve on the other, a tiny baby in her arms, a tattered skin girt round her, a young child, Cain, clinging on to her scanty skirts. The Tree of Life, between the two figures, on which a pitiful Christ hangs, completes the design. But words cannot give the piety of the sentiments expressed in this composition, so simple, so conventional, and so complete. Beside these, by the same hand, are two immense cartoons for the Church of St. Philip's, Birmingham, the birthplace of the artist—the Nativity and the Crucifixion—in which these well-worn themes are treated with great originality. In the Crucifixion, the crowd beneath the cross with the dead Christ is composed of centurions, whose long lances group well with the central figure, supporting the composition so often rather bare and graceless. Near these cartoons, in the same gallery, we admire a gorgeous *cassone*, so magnificent that it would well suit the vast rooms of some Italian palace. This is also a work in *gesso* in high relief, lacquered and painted by Burne-Jones. The design of the front panel is of the Garden of the Hesperides. The tree with the golden apples is in the centre; round its trunk a blue-green, slimy dragon writhes, bending its neck towards a cup of wine which a graceful maiden on her knees is offering; on the other side of the tree, another maiden plays on an ancient instrument to soothe the monster. The tints are all put on over burnished gold, varying its hue; only the faces and hands are painted of a pale, warm, uniform

flesh tint, contrasting well with the brilliancy of the leaves, fruit, and drapery, and the flowers of the field in which the figures kneel. On the side panels verses of William Morris are engraved, explaining the subject, and the back panel is also in simple gold, with a design of deer eating the leaves of a tree branching from the centre of the panel. This is simply engraved in line in the *gesso*.

Walter Crane, whose skill in all the decorative arts is so well recognized, has many examples of *gesso* work. The most beautiful and masterly seems to be the St. George and the Dragon, a prize panel tinted in lacquer. Some of your readers may not know that *gesso* is composed of plaster of Paris, glue, and cotton wool, and that it is very durable and effective for works in relief. It becomes as hard as stone, and is particularly suitable for mantelpieces and panels and ceilings. We have also, by this artist, the six sketches in color for a painted frieze, illustrating the story of "The Skeleton in Armor" of Longfellow. These were executed on a large scale for the house of an American lady at Newport. There are also very effective wall-papers, and a portière in embossed leather, hand-painted on silver lacquer. In the gallery we see the illustrations, so well known, in every stage of color-printing, thus explaining the process they have to go through; also, examples of repoussé work.

Mr. Spencer Stanhope's hanging cupboard is one of the important and elaborate objects of the principal room. The frame is rich Florentine carving, gilt, and partly painted in blue. The central panel represents a band of youths and maidens, all clad in blue, dancing under medlar trees, in which little cupids are perching, preparing to shoot at the revellers. Beautiful glimpses of Italian landscape are to be seen between the tree stems. On either side panel the designs are of figures clad in varied colors; one to the right reminds us of the same artist's "Lethe" picture. The painting is exquisitely finished and very harmonious in color throughout; it seems to be painted in tempera.

Another very finely finished work is a grand piano in green-stained oak, with very elaborate patterns of silver lilies in *gesso* intertwined with gold roses. Round the sides are other patterns of flowers — anemones with leaves, and other more conventional running patterns. The ornamentation of this piano is the work of Miss K. Faulkner.

Mr. W. de Morgan, the potter, has a very remarkable show of tiles and lustre ware. His principal work is a gigantic chimney-piece, in which tiles with painted ships are inserted. The tiles are beautiful in themselves, but they do not seem employed to their best advantage in this mantel-piece, as the principal group is too high up to be sufficiently seen. There are entire cases of plates and bowls of bright copper lustre ware, silver lustre also, and a panel composed of tiles on which are peacocks, with their tales curled alternately towards and against each other; also, a pyramid of tiles, some of which are as bright in color and as beautiful as Persian work.

Mr. Benson has some good copper lamps, and some finger-bowls, likewise in copper, and a sideboard in light wood of simple design.

We note a case of exquisite bindings of Mr. Cobden - Sanderson — the tooling in gold on leather very highly finished, and the designs each especially adapted to the volume it clothes. For example, a small copy of "Romeo and Juliet" has a pattern of intertwined hearts on pale-blue morocco. Each volume shows how far perfection of finish can be carried in the art of bookbinding.

We now come to the exhibits of the firm of W. Morris & Co.—wall-papers, stamped velvets, chintzes, brocades, and brocatels for furniture and house decoration, in rich, flowing patterns and bright, harmonious coloring; a beautiful sideboard in mahogany, and a cabinet in inlaid Spanish mahogany; a hand-made carpet, and very lovely tapestries, which seem quite the richest form of wall decoration. In one here displayed is a St. Cecilia. The larger and more important piece represents lions, foxes, and a hare, with leafage between. In looking around at the numerous designs for wall-papers and textile fabrics by other firms and by artists not yet known to fame, we cannot help noting how they all seem to have followed in the path opened to them by the example of Morris and the artists who, together with him, formed the company that did so much to sweep away the monstrosities of furnishing of the earlier Victorian epoch. These artists were Ford Madox Brown, D. G. Rossetti, and E. Burne-Jones. The last-named alone still furnishes designs for the firm; for beside the tapestries there is a water-color drawing of the Adoration of the Magi, to be executed in the looms of Merton Abbey for Exeter College, Oxford.

A glass case, containing illuminated MSS. from Mr. Morris's own hand, has attracted the greatest attention. The 'Rubáiyát' of Omar Khayyám is especially rich in designs which cover the page, underlying the writing. The patterns are in gold, sometimes with touches of color; the capital letters are marvels of invention. In 'A Book of Songs' the little miniature pictures are very beautifully designed and painted. Some pages also of the Odes of Horace make one wish one could hold in one's hand and turn over the leaves of these splendid manuscripts, which have never been shown before to the public.

The art of needlework is very well represented in all its wide range of capabilities. Some full-length figures by Miss Burden show great skill, but, to our mind, are less adapted to needlework than less ambitious designs. There is a magnificent portière worked in colored silks on white linen by Mrs. and Miss Morris, the pattern of fritillaries, crown imperials, and large roses. A book-cover, which is to be used for binding 'Love is Enough,' designed and worked by Miss May Morris, will no doubt revive the old embroidered book-bindings; for to what better use could one put really delicate work than this? Some very original cabinet panels by Mrs. Walter Crane are remarkable; also a mantel valance worked in colored thread on black merino, the designs being by Walter Crane. Other important panels and screens in floss silk are displayed by Mrs. Holliday, Mrs. Coronio, Miss Una Taylor, and Miss May Morris. Excellent samples of work on linen of the very best kind, and some facsimiles of old Greek lace, are sent by Miss M. A. Smith. The Chiswick Press sends a case of books printed between the years 1831 and 1888.

We must not fail to mention two cartoons for stained glass by Ford Madox Brown, whose work is so rarely to be seen, as for many years he refrains from exhibiting. These drawings are very individual and full of character. There is also a crucifix in tinted sculpture, of very remarkable workmanship and design, by Christopher Whall, an artist as yet not much known. The four ends of the cross contain compositions of children in adoration and sorrow, all treated with the tender feeling Donatello infused into his children, and yet the work bears a distinct English character. We have no space to describe more, although there is much to interest and instruct us. The catalogue contains short essays on each art by the leading men on the Committee for Arts and Crafts, who will later give lectures, each on his own subject, at the New Gallery during this Exhibition.

THE THIRD GERMAN MODERN-LANGUAGE CONVENTION.

DRESDEN, October 3, 1888.

THE success of the Modern-Language Association of America, organized in 1883 through the efforts of Prof. Elliott of the Johns Hopkins University, encouraged certain members of local modern-language associations in Germany to organize there a general association. The first meeting was held in the city of Hanover, the second at Frankfort-on-the-Main, and the third the past few days here in Dresden. The fourth session will be held at Stuttgart, and, instead of in the fall of '89, in the spring of '90.

The meeting at Dresden has been interesting in itself as well as compared with our association at home. Of course, in a city with so many attractions as the Saxon capital, the members could not be held to attendance on many long sessions, and the management wisely took it upon themselves to arrange even the diversions in such a manner that they could, as much as possible, be participated in in common, and thus more cheaply. In this way a *Festkarte*, costing 10 marks, or $2.50, entitled one to take part in the dinner on the Belvedere on Saturday and the banquet and ball in Meissen on Sunday, to view the royal collections and the exhibition prepared by certain members of the Association, and also to one of the best seats in the theatre in Old or New Town ("The Magic Flute" and "King Lear"), a ticket to one of the panoramas in the city, and a guide-book of Dresden. Friday evening there was a social reception at the hotel at the sign of the Three Ravens, Saturday night at the close of the theatre a *Festkommers* in the Kaiserhof, and Monday afternoon an *Abschiedstrunk* at the Bismarck Restaurant. Saturday morning the Association was received in the beautiful Hall of the Polytechnikum with words of greeting from the Saxon Minister of Education and a member of the Common Council of Dresden. When the gentlemen retired from the hall, the members rose to their feet—a ceremony which they were also requested to go through after the reading of the names of members who had died during the year. Saturday morning and afternoon and Monday morning were held the three sessions of the Association; and of the seven papers announced five were read and in part discussed. The fewness of the subjects presented was one of the excellent features of this meeting. There was no sense of a need of hurrying or of cutting short interesting discussions, and the members were able to give each paper due attention and develop a real interest in the subject presented. The discussion became at times animated, especially with reference to methods. There were not wanting, any more than with us, those who take part in debate because they love to hear themselves talk; still, I could not but admire the promptness with which the chief bores of this class were silenced.

The first paper was read by Baron von Locella, an Italian resident in Dresden, on the study of Dante in Germany. It seems that no other foreign poet has been translated and edited in Germany to such an extent as Dante. Prof. Körting of Münster spoke on the aims and tasks of the Romance philology of to-day. He complained that in the study of Romance philology and literature French enjoyed more

than its due share, urged that more attention be given the other Romance languages, and recommended the preparation of a volume of selections from the less familiar of these idioms. Dialect study proper he would, however, leave to natives, because of the great advantage they possess. He referred to the want of grammars at all up to the standard of the philology of to-day, and suggested the desirability of an investigation that would show what classes of Latin words passed into the various Romance languages, and thus throw light upon the history of civilization. Dr. Mahrenholtz of Dresden read an essay on Friedrich Melchior Grimm and the part he played in making the Frenchmen of his day acquainted with German literature and ideas. Prof. Stengel of Marburg presented briefly a plan to gather material for the preparation of a history of French grammar in Germany, and appealed to the members of the Association to help him by collecting the titles, etc., of such grammars as might be in their local libraries.

The only pedagogical paper was presented by Principal Dörr of Solingen; it was on "Reform in Modern Language Instruction," and called forth much earnest discussion. The subject of a reform in the method of teaching modern languages had been brought up at the previous meetings of the Association, and resolutions passed to the effect that the Association was in favor of a change in the method of instruction, subordinating grammar and translation into the foreign language, making reading the basis of instruction, and emphasizing oral reproduction. A number of instructors have undertaken to teach on this plan, but Dörr had begun a similar method several years ago, and the object of his paper was to describe his mode of instruction and state his experiences. Neglecting theoretic phonology, he begins by teaching orally the numerals and the few verbal forms and conjunctions required in the formulas of addition, multiplication, and the like. Then come counting-out rhymes, little poems, short stories, etc. With the second year the first book is employed, and that a reader. Here attention is paid, not only to pronunciation and such difficulties as the language presents, but also to the text itself, which must lie within the intellectual sphere of the pupil and (if possible) have connection with his other studies. Grammar is taught very slowly, one subject only being considered at a time, and that for several consecutive lessons. The use of the foreign language, even in the grammatical explanations, is insisted upon when possible; a translation into the mother tongue is at first required, but later a free reproduction in the foreign language preferred. The pupil's attention is early drawn to the fact that the foreign word does not always correspond to any one word in the mother tongue; later he is taught to distinguish classes of words, and to perceive the force of prefixes and suffixes; still later his attention is directed to figurative and idiomatic expressions, and to the conception underlying them. Translation into the foreign language is entirely discarded. This is, in brief, Dörr's method as he has worked it out in the past nine years, and with the success of which he is well satisfied. As sufficient evidence of its superiority to the usual method, he regards the greater spirit and pleasure with which he, as well as the pupils, come to the recitation and take part in the exercise, as compared with that in classes he conducted at the same time according to the old method. He seems to forget that this very enthusiasm with which he teaches his new method is largely the cause of that of his pupils, and a chief source of his success. He himself does not deny that the method has its less sunny sides, and finds that it makes much greater demands upon the teacher, and is less successful in proportion as the language is inflectional; there being, indeed, a decided difference even between English and French.

In the succeeding discussion, the following points seemed to find nearly general approval, viz., that phonetic transcriptions were the source of more mischief than good; that translation into the foreign language should be kept up by the side of free reproduction; that, while there was much in the old system that was wrong or led to evil results, it was not wise to throw it entirely overboard, nor was full salvation to be found in the new method in its present form; finally, that reform was impossible under any method so long as the training of those aiming to become teachers is restricted to the subjects to be taught, and does not extend to pedagogical principles. This latter point will receive the hearty endorsement of all who have observed, by the side of the unequalled learning of German scholars, their deplorable ignorance of pedagogical principles and incapacity as teachers. Finally, a resolution was offered and passed to the effect that it was the sense of the Third German Modern Language Convention, that it is desirable that as many further experiments as possible be made with the method of instruction which treats the foreign language as a spoken rather than a written one, and has for the basis of instruction a continuous specimen of the language to be learned, instead of disconnected sentences. This resolution cannot be regarded as an unqualified declaration on the part of the Convention in favor of the new method; for, to say nothing of the guarded form in which it is put, it was passed by a majority vote at the close of the day, after a long discussion, and with the understanding that, should it not be passed, the discussion should be continued.

After some deliberation it was decided to withdraw from the *Neuphilologisches Centralblatt* of Hanover the privilege of designating itself the organ of the Association, and not to grant this privilege to any other journal nor establish a special organ, but to publish independent brochures for distribution among the members, as the Modern Language Association of America does.

A report was given as to the efforts made by the Association to induce the various German States to establish travelling scholarships, for the purpose of enabling students desirous of becoming teachers of modern languages to spend some time in the countries where those languages are spoken. Thus far Baden alone has taken steps in this direction, while in Saxony there is good prospect of speedy action. Prof. Stengler proposed that the Association give the other States a year to consider the matter, and then, if unsuccessful, "begin again, and bore and bore till the hard wood is bored through."

The Association now has more than 800 members, with an attendance on this year's convention of 126. Its membership, different from that of our association in America, is made up for the most part of teachers in the high schools and colleges of technology. Of university professors, besides those mentioned above, there were present R. Wülker, the chairman, Zupitza, Voll nüller, Viëtor, Kölbing, etc. There were two from America present.

One novel feature connected with this year's meeting was an exhibition of pictures, books, etc., illustrative of the works and times of Dante, Shakspere, Scott, Burns, Molière, and Sandeau. These collections were made by certain members of the Association from public and private libraries, and were arranged for exhibition in the rooms adjoining the hall where the Association held its sessions. The collections were not all made on the same basis; that pertaining to Dante including illustrated and other editions of his works and translations of them, while the others were restricted mostly to pictures and busts. The Dante exhibition, the most important, was made by Baron von Locella, who was loaned many rare and valuable works by Prince George of Saxony, the Department of Instruction of the Kingdom of Italy, the city of Florence, etc. A list of the subdivisions of the Molière collection will give a good idea of the best of the other exhibitions: Busts and pictures of Molière; pictures of the house where Molière was born, representations of his arms, and facsimiles of his autograph; illustrated editions of his works and other engravings and pictures illustrative of them; musical compositions of his works and representations of the musical instruments of his day; representations pertaining to the history of the theatre of the time and Molière's troupe; pictures of patrons and friends; engravings and other pictures illustrative of the civilization of the seventeenth century.

Sunday morning the members of the Association, accompanied by their wives, daughters, or friends, went by special train to Meissen. At noon there was a banquet in "Die Sonne"; later we made a tour through the beautiful halls and apartments of the Stammschloss of the Saxon kings, and in the evening took part in the ball, or sat near by, drinking coffee and chatting, or watching the comical performances of those who danced the *cotillon*.

GEORGE HEMPL.

Correspondence.

ON PARAPHRASING FROM THE GERMAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Rosenkranz's 'Pedagogics as a System,' translated by Anna C. Brackett (St. Louis: 1872), we find the following statement:

"Cleanliness will not endure that things shall be deprived of their proper individuality through the elemental chaos" (p. 31).

On page 54 of Part Second we find Miss Brackett's paraphrase of this passage as follows:

"Cleanliness will not have things deprived of their distinctive and individual character, and become again a part of original chaos. It is only a form of order which remands all things, dirt included, to their own places, and will not endure to have things mixed and confused."

Finally, on page 96, we have a paraphrase by Dr. Harris:

"Cleanliness means 'a place for everything, and everything in its place.' To take a thing out of its proper relations is to 'deprive it of its proper individuality,' and in an 'elemental chaos' everything has lost its proper relations to other things, and has no longer any use or fitness in its existence."

These quotations illustrate the thought embodied in my note in the *Academy*, which has served your correspondent "X" as a text for his fine moralizing. All I intended to say was that the speculations of a German educational philosopher frequently need, not only to be turned literally into English, but to be paraphrased, as Miss Brackett and Dr. Harris have done in the

volume cited, in order to come within the ready comprehension of the ordinary reader. Any disparagement of German educational literature, as such, on my part, is a gratuitous assumption by my anonymous critic, for an unworthy purpose. W. H. PAYNE.

PEABODY NORMAL COLLEGE, NASHVILLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I join hands with your correspondent "X" in his condemnation of Prof. Payne. I am myself one of those astonishing prigs who take their Kant in all his original Teutonicity in order to get "the flavor of the German," and I am sure that *I* can see in the German philosophers nothing but luminous simplicity and crystalline lucidity. Conceive, then, with what a shriek of *Zaghaftigkeit* I greeted the suggestion of Dr. Harris, in his introduction to Rosenkranz, that the translation is probably "more comprehensible than the original." What is this but saying that English common sense is superior to German philosophical ponderosity, and what is *that* but accepting the heresy of Prof. Payne? I declare, the discovery gave me such a turn as I have not experienced since I read the utterance of Carlyle (himself something of a German scholar) apropos of 'Wilhelm Meister': "Goethe is the greatest genius that has lived for a century and the greatest ass that has lived for three. I could sometimes fall down and worship him; at other times I could kick him out of the room."

Let us cry aloud to the errant members of the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club to leave the primrose path of Miss Brackett and Dr. Harris, and make their way into the steep and thorny road of Rosenkranz. Y.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you allow me space for the following, to be set over against "Prof. Payne on German Books on Pedagogy"?

"On the whole, philosophical speculation has been a hindrance to the Germans, often bringing into their style an element of the senseless and incomprehensible. The more they have given themselves to certain philosophical schools the worse they write."—*Goethe*, through Eckermann. In another place Goethe, speaking of a German writer of his time who was under Hegel's influence, said: "In his book we come upon places where the mind halts entirely, and we no longer know what we are reading." Hosmer says, "The besetting defect of German writers . . . is an obscurity, proceeding sometimes from a wilful imitation of the conduct of the cuttle-fish, sometimes from want of the sense of proportion." Matthew Arnold has criticised severely the "ponderous, roundabout, inane," in German literature, and so have others: and so, perhaps, would "X" if he should try to explain Rosenkranz's thought in losing his "proper individuality in the elemental chaos." If any profit is to be got from such writers, surely a literal translation is not sufficient for the ordinary reader.

Prof. Payne is Chancellor of the University of Nashville, and in addition President of the Peabody Normal College. This position was taken, not for his own profit or convenience, but from the thought that in this place he could do most to advance the condition of the teachers of the South, and through them their schools. This work I hold to be akin to, but higher than, patriotism, and for this reason I am moved to speak against his would-be defamer. Yours, FRANK M. DREW.

GENOA, ILL., October 16, 1888.

THE UNIVERSITY NEED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is gratifying, indeed, to read such sentiments as were expressed in your editorial on Columbia College in the *Nation* of October 11. Especially is it gratifying to students who have finished their undergraduate work, and are now looking about for still higher courses and broader opportunities for study. The time is now at hand in America when the leading universities must offer to their graduates superior advantages for original work, and more abundant opportunities for independent investigation than those prescribed in the regular college curriculum.

The history of the growth and development of seminary and post-graduate work at the University of Michigan well illustrates the exegencies of the times. In 1883 there were eleven students graduated with higher degrees; only about one-half of them, however, were really post-graduates and were pursuing seminary work in the true sense of that term. In 1887 there were sixteen successful candidates for degrees who were pursuing their work upon the University system. Thirteen of these were working for the higher degrees (M.A. and Ph.D.). According to the University Calendar of 1887–88, there were in all fifty-nine students pursuing courses of study under the direction of the university for the higher degrees. Nine of these received their degrees last June. The total number of students pursuing work on the university system last year was twenty-two, thus showing a marked increase in the popularity of this method of study among the students. (I may say in parenthesis that the university system is one of final examination, and not one of examinations upon each book gone through during the semester. It encourages investigation, and prompts students to original work, and is conducted in a similar manner to post-graduate work.) Already this fall more than fifteen applications are in for higher degrees from students in residence; and about one-half of these applications are for the Ph.D. degree.

Thus we can see the constant increase in the number of students pursuing higher work. The illustration furnished by the University of Michigan can, in a similar manner, be obtained from the other great universities of this country. But this is not all. We cannot suppose that these students, having pursued their special lines of work up to their higher degrees, are then to give up all their expectations of future study at some still higher institution of learning. On the contrary, it is safe to say that one-half of the post-graduates in our colleges now are contemplating extended courses of study abroad. The fact is, that not less than 20 per cent. of these post-graduates do go abroad for study, sooner or later, and many more would if their means would allow.

The question, then, that presents itself, not only to those who are now post-graduates, but also to those who are soon to be such, is, Why cannot America furnish as advanced instruction as Germany or France; and why cannot American college professors establish here in the United States *Seminarien* of as high grade as those of Leipzig, Bonn, or Berlin? It would be a far wiser outlay of money on the part of Mr. Clark in Massachusetts, or Mr. Sanford in California, to found for students, and professors, too, a school where the *depth of things* could be arrived at more nearly, and investigation be carried on for its own sake, than to found two additional universities like those already existing in this country.

The tendency of students at the present day to become specialists brings this demand for higher instruction up to a necessity. That there is such a demand, every one can see; that it should be met speedily and adequately, no one will deny. And it is hoped that the time is near at hand when the idea expressed by President Barnard in his report will take tangible shape, not only at Columbia, but also at other of our great institutions of learning. Our great need, beyond all doubt, in this country is for a few "real universities." Yours truly,

F. C. CLARK.

ANN ARBOR, October 15, 1888.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your article on Columbia College, in the *Nation* of October 11, closes thus:

"The country needs all the help it can get from the very highest culture in resisting the torrent of materialism which has, ever since the war, been flowing over the land; and for such culture nothing would do so much good as two or three real universities."

No one will gainsay this. But in all those able and earnest discussions of the subject of a real university which of late years have from time to time appeared in the *Nation* and in some of the best periodicals, one very important thing is always overlooked. As matters now stand, I fear we are far from being ready for such a university; not, indeed, for want of preparatory colleges, nor for want of able professors, nor yet for want of sufficient desire on the part of our students for high attainments. And yet we should lack the students. In order that we might have the students, certain *legislation* would first be necessary, which, however, is not to be looked for in any of our States.

Let me explain. No one who has pursued a course of studies at a German university, and has become acquainted with the life there, imagines that a majority of the students there study because they love studying, or even from a desire for excellence. On the contrary, the real motive power is the fear of the difficult state examination, which must be passed in order to take any position of profit or honor. Take the case of the medical student. In the first place, he is not admitted as a regular student of medicine unless he has passed his examination of "maturity" at the gymnasium (only foreigners being admitted without this); but furthermore he is not allowed to practise, even after graduation, unless he has also passed that state examination. So it is again in the case of the lawyer, and likewise in the case of the divine.

We have on this side of the ocean no such regulations, nor are we likely to have them. Imagine a law to be made that no person should be admitted as a medical student, or as a law student, unless he were able to write, in good Latin and also in correct French, a composition upon a given subject, and unless he should have a pretty thorough knowledge of general history, etc. All this is out of the question. Nor shall we have, for a long time to come, anything like those state examinations. But it must be admitted that for the *average* student everywhere some such strong outer motive is really necessary. The absence of some regulation similar to those mentioned produces with us this lamentable state of affairs, that such numbers of our doctors and lawyers are really uneducated and ignorant.

Let us, then, before we try to have a true university, endeavor to get some effective regulations concerning the licenses of our doctors and our lawyers, and soon our standard of ambition as to general acquirements will rise,

and we shall be on the way to get ready to have a real university. Respectfully yours,

WERNER A. STILLE.

ST. LOUIS, October 15, 1888.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There is one sentence in your editorial on Columbia College that seems to me to be erroneous, or at least very liable to misinterpretation. It is this:

"The country needs all the help it can get from the very highest culture in resisting the torrent of materialism which has, ever since the war, been flowing over the land; and for such culture nothing would do so much good as two or three real universities."

As the subject is one of some importance, I beg leave to offer a few observations. From your main proposition, I think few intelligent men will dissent; as to the conclusion, the case is much less clear. On reading the article, one is led almost unconsciously to think of Germany, where there are more real universities than in any other country; and the question naturally suggests itself, Is materialism less prevalent there than among us? I have spent some years at different times in Germany, chiefly in the company of university men, and have for nearly a score of years been a diligent reader of German books, but my observations do not warrant the inference which seems to flow from your remark.

I am aware that the spirit of materialism usually manifests itself in one of two ways: the man of thought is often materialistic in his philosophy and spiritualistic in his life; caring little for those things that may be seen and handled, he sets a high value upon intellectual riches. On the other hand, there is the practical materialism which one meets so constantly in this country, no less among church members than among other people, that is greatly concerned about material prosperity, but comparatively indifferent about those things which persons of culture esteem above all else. This class is so numerously represented that we may well use the Horatian dictum "Tanti quantum habeas sis," to characterize the most prominent trait of our contemporary thought. We may give a slightly different turn to an observation of Ampère on the poet Ausonius, by saying that the great majority of our church-members are Christians, and therefore spiritists, when they pray, but materialists during most of their remaining waking hours.

But I am led to think that a kind of materialism which has more or less claim to be called philosophical is very common in Germany. Often it is philosophical only in that it claims to be ratiocinative. "Es glaubt kein Mediciner an einen Gott," "Alle Mediciner sind Atheisten," are expressions that I have heard used more than once to designate the faith, or lack of faith, that is characteristic of a numerously represented and influential profession. This statement is, of course, not literally true, but I have seen no reason to doubt that it contains much of truth. It is well known, too, that the writings of such ultra-materialists as Büchner and Vogt are much read in books and periodicals. The materialism of other popular writers is less openly avowed, though hardly less patent. The signs of the times in France likewise indicate that there, as in Germany, the belief in a personal immortality is a rapidly decreasing quantity. If, then, it be our object to promote idealism in thought and life, without regard to the question of man's personal immortality, we cannot do better than to encourage the founding of real universities, in which instruction shall be absolutely unrestricted; but if it be our concern to encourage Christian orthodoxy, of even the most liberal type, something else is needed. S.

ATHENS, O., October, 1888.

THE POINT OF VIEW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the matter of the religious condition of the back towns there will hardly be any dispute that a grave problem exists. What constitutes the cause of this problem, however, will be a subject of very great difference. To you, the cause of these facts, which, as you say, are "notorious," is the declining force of Christianity. To many of your readers, on the other hand, the cause will be found in the general drying up of country civilization. With scarcely an exception, the depleted church is the inevitable result of a depleted social existence. The back towns, for over a generation past, have yielded up most of their choicest elements. The young, vigorous, and creative life has sought its appropriate sphere in the cities. In most cases the actual numbers are very much less, and in all cases the proportion of actual business and enterprise is smaller than what it once was. Life, society, even humanity, are at a very low ebb in comparison with the state of former times. Now, that the church, which relies for its existence on the leading spirits of any community, should not be deeply, and in some cases hopelessly, affected by the deterioration of life in general, would be simply incredible.

The missionary, then, in the back towns is not trying to do over again a work which once flourished and now has fallen into decay: he is attempting a really new work. The field is the same, but an entirely new set of conditions make it an entirely new work. It is a new generation and a genetically different one. The missionary to the back towns of Vermont and western Massachusetts is really a pioneer, trying to make Christianity intelligible to a mind which, however it may have seen and known the form of godliness, has only in a few devout hearts known the power thereof. But, like a missionary to China or Japan, this Vermont missionary must learn the language of the people, and must know the language in which alone the Christian life is able to make itself understood to the people. The methods proposed in the late numbers of the *Andover Review* have just this end in view. They represent a desire on the part of the minister to be understood. You think these methods are grotesque, and that they are as little likely to promote religious feeling as the study of botany is likely to promote the scientific idea of taxation. But the problem is so difficult a one, and the conditions of success so complicated, that an opinion on the merits of such methods belongs of right only to those who are working in and among the people to whom they are directed. A summer acquaintance with the country will not do. Not the widest acquaintance with large tracts of country, or of innumerable instances of dwindling churches and contentious congregations, will aid much in judging of these proposals. But actual residence fits a man for speaking—actual sharing of what is a very hard and grinding lot; and no one can have the one and do the other without feeling how true and scientific these methods are—the methods you quote.

You will pardon a minister for dissenting from your view that the case is a hopeless one, the force of Christianity having spent itself. Nothing less than the strongest confidence that the force of Christianity has not spent itself, but is equal also to this hardest of problems in the hardest of conditions, could keep a serious man an instant longer at such posts. But, reinforced by the feeling of whose service it is he labors in, and with such an appeal to his humanity and to his spiritual imagination, he can afford his utmost, and expect finally a religious success which shall be complete.

I am yours truly, JOHN TUNIS.

[Even though to the country minister alone an opinion "belongs of right," yet we may be allowed to remark that we did not say "the case is a hopeless one, the force of Christianity having spent itself." We said it is required to find why "there is no more power" in that force—*i. e.*, no more than there is. We know of no one who will say that that force in the "back towns" now is what it was when the disciples "were all with one accord in one place." But if the force of Christianity be not "declining," or declined, how comes it that "Life, society, even humanity, are at a very low ebb in comparison with the state of former times," with the church "deeply, and in some cases hopelessly, affected by the deterioration of life in general"? For what has "the proportion of actual business and enterprise" to do with religion?—ED. NATION.]

HOISTING THE ENGINEER WITH HIS OWN PETARD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I do not think attention has been called in your columns to a rather unexpected result of the activity of the American Protective Tariff League. Its system of offering prizes for essays by members of the Senior classes in colleges and universities began last year, the subject announced being "The Advantages of a Protective Tariff to the Labor and Industries of the United States." Among many competitors was Mr. Crawford D. Hening of that renowned stronghold of protection, the University of Pennsylvania. Mr. Hening made a thorough study of the subject—so thorough that he not only won the first prize, $250, but also became sufficiently interested to continue his investigation after his immediate work was accomplished. In time he became convinced that, whatever may have been the advantages of a high tariff in the past, what the country needed now was a thorough revision of the tariff, with a conservative reduction of duties, as proposed by Mr. Cleveland and the Mills Bill. The result was a new essay on "The Tariff and the Surplus," for which he chose as a motto Milton's words, "By this time, like one who had set out on his way by night, and travelled through a region of smooth and idle dreams, our history now arrives on the confines where daylight and truth meet us with a clear dawn, representing to our view, though at far distance, true colors and shapes."

The new essay has been printed by the Pennsylvania Democratic State Committee, in much better type than the Tariff League saw fit to use for the first one, and it deserves at least an equal number of readers. It is to be hoped that some of this year's essayists will be as successful as Mr. Hening in attaining the regions of "daylight and truth." Thus will the American Protective Tariff League become, though unintentionally, a blessing to the country. C. C. B.

PHILADELPHIA, October 22, 1888.

COTTON HOSIERY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It has been stated by you that "free

wool" will be a benefit to the manufacturers of this country. If "free wool" would benefit them, why doesn't "free cotton" benefit them? With all the facilities and natural advantages we have in this staple, we cannot to-day compete with the manufacturers of England, France, and Germany in the production of cotton hosiery.

One of our city's greatest industries, up to five years ago, was the manufacture of cotton hosiery for men, women, and children. To-day this industry, in the finer grades of goods, is dead. I can give you the names of half-a-dozen mills in this city that, up to five years ago, turned out 10,000 to 12,000 dozens of cotton hose a day. To-day they do not make a pair. How do you account for this? No other mills have started up to make the same class of goods. The seamless goods have not driven them out of the market, because the gauge is too coarse, making the stocking too heavy and clumsy to take their place.

Look in our retail-store windows, and see the ladies' foreign-made hose selling at 15 cents to 25 cents per pair, men's half-hose 12½ cents to 25 cents per pair, children's hose from 10 cents to 20 cents per pair. These are the goods that have driven our goods out of the market.

What is the reason they have driven us out? Do not say, as Mr. Mills did, that the foreign manufacturer has a secret process by which he makes these goods. We can get the same machines he uses and can get the same skilled labor right here in this city to-day that has made goods like we speak of. Do not say the duty on dyes used in the goods is the cause. If the foreign manufacturer got his dyeing for nothing, it would only make a difference of 20 to 25 cents a dozen in his favor. May be you will say it is the protection that the spinner gets for his yarns that makes the difference. The yarn used in these goods is worth about 22 cents per pound. The duty on this is 10 cents a pound and 20 per cent. ad valorem. The goods weigh about 1⅓ pounds to the dozen. This would make about 25 cents per dozen. Here is a difference of 50 cents per dozen in favor of the foreign manufacturer, and remember this gives him his dyeing for nothing. To offset this the foreign goods have to pay a duty of 35 per cent. ad valorem.

At $1.50 per dozen (which is a very low average), this would be 52½ cents per dozen added to their cost. And still, with all this "robber tax," as you term it, the foreign manufacturer continues to make goods for this market and make money at it, while our mills at home have to close up or get in some other branch. What is the reason of this? We can *surely* get the raw cotton as cheap as they can. But can we get the "labor" as cheap as they can? Would not the same state of affairs occur if we had free wool? Yours very respectfully,

JOHN J. ARMSTRONG.

No. 27 BANK STREET, PHILADELPHIA, Oct. 13.

[There are two possible explanations of the misfortune which befell Mr. Armstrong's friends, the hosiery manufacturers of Philadelphia. One is, that they had too much tariff, for whereas the duty on cotton hosiery prior to 1883 was 35 per cent. ad valorem, it was raised to 40 per cent. by the tariff of that year. As Mr. Armstrong fixes the date "five years ago" when the industry began to decline, the coincidence seems rather remarkable.

The other possible explanation is, that they relied too much on the tariff and gave too little heed to industrial progress in the manufacture of hosiery. This would not be the first case in which failure had resulted from too close attention to business in Washington and too little at home. At all events, the cotton-hosiery manufacture is successfully carried on in Rhode Island, and what is done there ought to be done in Philadelphia with equal business qualifications. The tariff is the same in both places, and there ought not to be much difference in the rate of wages. There is no difference to speak of between the Rhode Island wages and English wages in the hosiery trade. Any industry which cannot get on under such conditions, with a protection of 40 per cent. (which, by the way, is not changed by the Mills bill), ought to be smitten with the great hammer of Thor.

Coming back to Mr. Armstrong's first query, we suppose he would not contend that a tax of 10 cents a pound on raw cotton would revive this ruined industry.—ED. NATION.]

THE PRICE OF STEEL RAILS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The protectionists "point with pride" to the tariff on steel rails, and claim it as a triumph of protection that it has reduced the price from over $100 per ton to present price. I, of course, don't believe the protective tariff did it, but am unable to find an explanation of the decline in price. It seems to me the *Nation* would help the cause if it could find space to print a brief history of the steel-rail industry, pointing out the causes that have conspired to bring about the fall in price.

Respectfully yours, F. D. HUTCHINS.

LANCASTER, N. H., October 18, 1888.

[The answer to this question is summed up in the improvements and inventions applicable to the production of steel rails that have come in play during the past fifteen years. The details have often been published and are easily accessible. It is sufficient to say that, since the price of rails has fallen in England even more than in this country, the tariff had nothing to do with it.—ED. NATION.]

THE PRESIDENT'S ENGLISH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A writer in the last *North American Review*, under the head of "The President's English," attempts to prove Cleveland's intense egotism by contrasting his marked use of the first personal pronoun with the modesty of our earlier Presidents in referring to themselves as individuals in their public utterances. In proof of such offensive egotism, the writer produces an extract from Cleveland's letter of acceptance containing 712 words, in which he shows the use of the first personal pronoun 45 times, or once in every sixteen and a fraction words.

It is interesting to notice that Washington, the most notably modest of all our Presidents, uses in his Resignation of Commission speech, December 23, 1783, one first personal pronoun in every twelve and a fraction words. In his Inaugural Address, April 30, 1789, he uses, in the first paragraph of 315 words, 21 first personal pronouns, or one in every fifteen, while his Farewell Address, which has become an American classic, presents extracts which show quite as free a use of the objectionable pronoun as the extract cited from Cleveland's letter.

Such an attempt to prove "personal egotism" must necessarily seem puerile in the last degree, even to a GOOD REPUBLICAN.

OCTOBER 12, 1888.

FRENCH CONSTITUTIONAL CHANGES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The author of the article on "French Constitutional Amendment," in the last issue of the *Nation*, is slightly at fault in regard to the history of the constitutional changes introduced in France since the adoption of the present Constitution in 1875. Two *revisions* of the Constitution have taken place, but not in 1884 and 1885, as is stated by the author of the article. The dates are 1879 and 1884. The effect of the first revision was merely to decree the return of the Houses and President from Versailles to Paris.

Another mistake of the article consists in presenting the change from the *scrutin d'arrondissement* to the *scrutin de liste* as a constitutional amendment. The law governing the elections to the Chamber of Deputies was never a part of the Constitution. It could be, and was, changed in the same way as any other law, and no meeting of the National Assembly is now needed in order to prescribe a return to the former mode of voting. Students of French political matters may remember that the occasion selected by Gambetta's enemies to bring about his downfall, in January, 1882, was his proposal to establish the *scrutin de liste* and to make it part of the Constitution. As the law governing the elections to the Senate was a part of that instrument, Gambetta thought it only logical that the same character should attach to the law governing the elections to the lower House. The rejection of Gambetta's plan was what induced M. Ferry, two years later, to try a different system, and to take the law relating to the elections to the Senate out of the Constitution. That was the main change introduced in the Constitution in 1884, and the law abolishing life-senatorships and enlarging the constituency of the Senate, which was afterwards passed, was merely a legislative enactment, not a constitutional amendment.

Without entering upon any discussion of the present rather tangled revision question in France, I will say that I agree with the author of the article in thinking that the main change needed in the Constitution is an amendment making it more difficult in the future to amend it further. But, even while wishing for such a change, I might shrink from desiring a meeting of the National Assembly now, in the present unsettled condition of the public mind. An assembly of nearly 900 members is always pretty much of a mob, and no one can predict what would come out of such a meeting.

Yours truly, A. C.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY, October 22, 1888.

[We must adhere to our words. The removal of the seat of government from Versailles to Paris in 1879 is not spoken of by French publicists as "a revision of the Constitution." What are known as "revisions of the Constitution" occurred in the years we gave, 1884 and 1885. The change in 1885 from *scrutin d'arrondissement* to *scrutin de liste* is called in all the books a revision, because it changed an electoral law passed by the National Assembly sitting as a Constitutional Convention, which law was, like a similar "special law" providing for

the election of the Senate, to all intents and purposes a part of the Constitution, and differed from other parts solely in being amendable by the two Chambers acting in their ordinary legislative capacity, instead of by the two Chambers sitting together in National Assembly, or, as we should call it, the joint convention.—Ed. Nation.]

"*TO ELIMINATE*" AND "*ELIMINATION.*"

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Having recently had occasion to look into Mr. E. S. Gould's *Good English*, I there chanced on the following sentence at p. 186:

"Others speak from the throat in a hollow, sepulchral tone, and with an elaboration of syllables and emphasis so mixed together that no ear can *eliminate* the individual words."

This is from the "revised edition" of 1880; but it appears, on turning to the preface of the first edition, that the sentence dates from 1865.

Mr. Gould's claim to a knowledge of the way we are to speak and write our language, if we would do so irreproachably, is most confidently implied throughout his book. Nor does any competent judge of that performance require to be told that his criticisms aim at conformity with all that is exact, not to say fastidious. An idea of his qualifications for handling the subject of which he thought himself a master is, however, furnished by the specimen of his composition given above. During the course of fifteen years he failed to discover that he had there used the verb *to eliminate* in a sense which, probably, no other writer has ever imposed on it, namely, that of 'to distinguish or 'to discriminate.' The error of somehow misusing the term is one that is common, and no less common, I believe, in the United States than in Great Britain. To call attention to it cannot, therefore, be amiss.

It is only as a verb transitive that we find our adaptation of *eliminare*. Almost invariably, above all in the present century, our best authors, in their employment of *to eliminate*, have, further, kept very close to the usual signification of its Latin original. Whether in popular diction, or in scientific, they have generally intended to convey, by it, with reference to what is superfluous, irrelevant, injurious, or unwelcome, the notion of its ejection, extrusion, removal, or riddance, or else, figuratively, that of its deletion or expunction. In passing, *to eliminate* was unknown to Dr. Johnson. As to *elimination*, he had to take it, unexemplified, from his predecessor Bailey; and Dr. Richardson ignores it entirely.

Numerous inaccurate writers that might be specified so use *to eliminate* that, for all the aid of contexts, the meaning which they attach to it is matter of uncertainty. Here and there, however, they clearly understand it to be one with 'to separate'; as though they had previously misapprehended some such phrase as "to *eliminate* impurities," or "to *eliminate* a poisonous element." And even professional guides to English have occasionally contributed to establish this corrupt innovation. One of these is the Rev. James Stormonth; and Dr. Worcester, besides partially misdefining *elimination*, taken as an algebraic technicality, represents Bp. Joseph Hall as identifying the word with 'separation,' though the passage to which he refers, cited in full by Archdeacon Todd, lends no support to such an equation.

I now come to the *Synonyms and Antonyms* of the Ven. C. J. Smith (1867), from which the subjoined congeries of preposterously false philology is transcribed:

"Eliminate, *v. tr. E* and *limen*, a threshold. To bring out from the recesses of private concealment into the public light of day. Hence, 1, to explain; 2, to extract; and 3, to extract what is superfluous or objectionable.

Syn. Elucidate, Explain, Enucleate, Segregate.

Ant. Mystify, Obscure, Involve, Smuggle, Foist, Import, Confound."

It will not surprise any attentive reader of our older literature to be told that Horace's use of *eliminare* has been tentatively Anglicized.

"So settled, that, at no time . . . hee open himselfe, or suffer his tongue to *eliminate* any part of his thoughts." Daniel Tuvil, *Essaies Politicke and Morall* (1608), fol. 114 *v.*

"Whatsoever it is that here we do is, by some that come hither, and write all they hear, presently *eliminated*, and carried to them, which hath caused many hard reports to pass of us, both with them and otherwhere." Rev. John Hales (1618), *Golden Remains* (1673), Part II., p. 64.

Elimination, to import 'unwarrantable disclosure,' 'indiscreet divulgation,' 'blabbing,' has also appeared in print:

"These curious quærees, and fabulous *eliminations* of hels secrets, which S. Iohn properly calleth the deepnes of Sathan," etc. Bp. William Barlow, *A Defence*, etc. (1601), p. 175.

The strictly etymological sense of *to eliminate*, recalled to mind by Dr. Young's affected "*eliminate* my spirit, give it range," and seen in the ensuing extract, may be of infrequent occurrence:

"For God's love, Madam, help you . . . to help to *eliminate* out of his house this offendicle." Abp. Matthew Parker (1567-8), *Correspondence*, etc. (1853), p. 314.

As to relevant quotations in which there is nothing either peculiar or objectionable, three will amply suffice:

"Its balsams, gums, resins, aromata, and all other bases of its sensible qualities, are, as is well known, mere excretions from the vegetable, *eliminated*, as lifeless, from the actual plant." S. T. Coleridge, *Literary Remains*, Vol. II (1836), p. 345.

"M. Comte's subjective synthesis consists only in *eliminating* from the sciences everything that he deems useless, and presenting, as far as possible, every theoretical investigation as the solution of a practical problem." J. S. Mill, *Auguste Comte and Positivism* (1865), p. 185.

"The most rigid Calvinist cannot *eliminate* his instincts." Mr. J. A. Froude, *Short Studies on Great Subjects*, First Series (1867), p. 399.

From among scores of authors who have misconceived the verb and the substantive under notice, it will be enough to cite a few who surely should have known better than to do so:

"The technical affixes employed in *eliminating* derivative from primitive words." Professor H. H. Wilson, *Sanskrit Grammar* (1841), Preface, p. vii.

"The Nature of the Soul is, also, conclusive; it being utterly impossible that such infinite ideas as God, eternity, space, extension, hope, and fear could ever be *eliminated* by either the will, the reason, or the finite evidence of the finite senses." *Foreign and Colonial Quarterly Review*, Vol. II (1843), p. 337.

"In answering these inquiries, we should have to consider separately every collateral influence and circumstance, and, by a most subtle analysis, to *eliminate* the real effect of art from the effects of the abuses with which it was associated." Mr. John Ruskin, *The Seven Lamps of Architecture* (1849), p. 201.

"Classification sets itself to the arrangement of all those bodies which meet its view, and are possessed of common qualities; and thus general ideas are *eliminated*." "It is gratifying to watch the progress of discovery, and to imagine that we are elaborating truths, or *eliminating* principles, from facts that are patent to our own observation." Dr. Samuel Neil, *The Elements of Rhetoric* (1854), pp. 33, 213.

"The various events by which one people [viz., the Jews] was *eliminated* from the varied races of mankind." Sir J. P. Wood (now Lord Hatherley). *The Continuity of Scripture* (1867), p. —.

"Let us construct our hypotheses for an hour, or a day, or for years; they are of the utmost value in the *elimination* of truth." Dr. Michael Faraday, in *Lectures on Education* (1854), p. 68.

A good number of my quotations from which those immediately preceding are selected have, I find, already been produced in Dr. W. B. Hodgson's *Errors in the Use of English*. Dr. Hodgson's researches and my own discover that *to eliminate* has wrongly had attached to it, with more or less distinctness, the various senses of *to bring out*, *develop*, *distinguish*, *educe*, *elaborate*, *elicit*, *elucidate*, *evolve*, *free*, and what not. Such has been the result of a mere weakness for a learned-looking expression, without inquiry touching its meaning; and it certainly behooves any one who would escape the suspicion that, science left out of consideration, he is not even a moderate Latinist, to take heed how he *eliminates* and what he subjects to *elimination*.

The Dictionaries, to which I once more return, are, by reason of their meagreness, and on other grounds, far from being satisfactory in their treatment of *to eliminate*, especially as employed in non-scientific language. Archdeacon Todd and Dr. Richardson have, between them, as authorities for it, only Dr. Young, the poet, as cited above, Bp. Lowth, and Lovelace, of which three the last, in his "thou . . . *eliminat'st* thy door," makes the word denote "to pass beyond"; an interpretation not likely to be questioned by any one who consults Dr. Latham. Where synonymized, as by Dr. O. W. Holmes, with 'to deduce,' 'to infer,' Dr. Webster's editors now correctly characterize it as "recent and improper," after having, in 1864, simply recorded it, without an accompanying note of censure.

Your obedient servant, F. H.

Marlesford, England, September 3, 1888.

—In the second column of your 152d page, l. 4, the printer has put "misusage" for "coinage." Among several other typographical errors in my letter on *Suppositious*, two more may be noticed. John Lawrence has "suppositious *causes*," not "cases." Again, for Vol. "XII." of the *Quarterly Review*, read "XIX."

Turning over a book published in 1854, I lately came across *suppositious* as a substitute for "suppositional," *i. e.*, "hypothetical." *Suppositious* in the same sense, which is equally bad, is not very unusual in my experience of spoken English.

Notes.

A library edition, 12mo, of Walter Besant's novels has been begun by the Messrs. Harper. The same firm have compressed the thirty-six volumes of John Morley's "English Men of Letters" series into twelve, making a "People's Edition."

D. Appleton & Co. will publish on November 1, 'On the Senses, Instincts, and Intelligence of Animals, with Special Reference to Insects,' an illustrated work by Sir John Lubbock.

Chas. Scribner's Sons have nearly ready the first volume of their 'Cyclopædia of Music and Musicians,' a work to be profusely illustrated, and printed only in a limited edition; a 'History of French Painting,' by Mrs. Clara H. Stranahan; and 'Gibraltar,' by the Rev. Henry M. Field.

'Musical Instruments and their Homes' is the title of a work announced by Dodd, Mead

& Co. The illustrations, which number nearly 300, with the accompanying description, form a complete illustrated catalogue of the remarkable collection of musical instruments now in the possession of Mrs. John Crosby Brown of New York. The text has been written by Mrs. Brown and Wm. Adams Brown. The book will be issued in sumptuous style.

'Pen and Ink Papers on Subjects of More or Less Importance,' by Brander Matthews; and 'B. C. 1887,' a volume of travels in British Columbia, by Messrs. Lees and Chutterbuck, authors of 'Three in Norway,' are in the press of Longmans, Green & Co.

'The Private Correspondence of Daniel O'Connell,' which we have already announced as on the eve of publication, in two volumes, by Longmans, Green & Co., consists chiefly of the hitherto unpublished letters of the "Liberator," abundantly annotated, and connected by only sufficient narrative to explain the occasion of them. Although called private, O'Connell's letters, even those to his wife, are chiefly on public topics.

White & Allen announce illustrated editions of 'Favorite Folk Ballads,' *e. g.*, "The Old Folks at Home," "Annie Laurie," etc.; a sumptuous edition of Goldsmith's 'Poetical Works,' edited by Bolton Corney, with forty illustrations on Japan paper; and 'The Hottentot Blue Blook; or, Smith and Schmidt in Africa,' by C. M. von Seyppel, the German antiquarian humorist.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have in press a 'History of the Celebration of the 100th Anniversary of the Promulgation of the U. S. Constitution,' edited by Hampton L. Carson; a 'Life of Henry M. Stanley,' by the Rev. H. W. Little; a 'Memorial of Sarah Pugh,' one of the foremost and most respected anti-slavery women of Philadelphia; 'Paradoxes of a Philistine,' by Wm. S. Walsh; and 'The Writer's Handbook.'

Among the autumn announcements of Estes & Lauriat, Boston, are Keats's 'Endymion,' illustrated by W. St John Harper; Tennyson's 'Fairy Lilian' and 'Bugle Song,' both illustrated by various American designers; 'Song Birds and Seasons,' illustrated; 'The Goupil Gallery of Photogravures'; 'Recent Italian Art,' a portfolio of photo-etchings; and 'European Etchings,' twenty in number, with descriptive text.

Trübner of Strassburg, the publisher of Kluge's 'German Etymological Dictionary,' proposes to get the fourth edition out in time for the holiday trade. Seven of the ten parts have already reached us.

The second volume of Ten Brink's 'History of English Literature,' devoted mostly to Chaucer, is in press.

'The Case of Emperor Frederick III.,' embracing the official reports of the German physicians (translated) and of Sir Morell Mackenzie, and reviewed by Henry Schweig, M.D., of this city, will be published directly by Edgar S. Werner, 48 University Place.

Bismarck *non obstante*, Mr. S. Zickel, 19 Dey Street, New York, has reprinted from the *Deutsche Rundschau* the diary ('Aus Kaiser Friedrich's Tagebuch 1870-'71) which has caused so much pother in Germany, and which, by reviving the memory of the late Emperor and renewing the popular affection for him, has made the present Emperor's absence from the country less felt—and his return, considering the persecutions going on in his name, perhaps less desired.

We praised last year on its appearance the 'Fifty Years of English Song' edited and arranged by Henry F. Randolph (A. D. F. Randolph & Co.). This anthology of the Victorian era we found to be admirably selected and annotated, and most carefully printed, as well as published in excellent taste. It has since been, with good reason, thought worthy of promotion into a large-paper edition in the same number of volumes (four), but with a limitation to 250 marketable copies. The result is an extremely dainty set, bound in boards covered with pale olive-green paper, and white label bearing the title in red and black. It is now both in better shape and in better season for holiday-giving than last year, and cannot fail to be appreciated.

The sixth volume of the 'Poetical Works of Robert Browning' (Macmillan) takes in the Dramatic Lyrics, and the longer "Luria," dedicated in 1846 to Landor. The author says in a note that the majority of the poems, though often lyric in expression, are always dramatic in principle, and might properly enough come under the head of "Dramatic Pieces." The previous volume, it will be remembered, was designated "Dramatic Romances."

Nine pocket volumes, added to "Cassell's National Library" since we last kept the tally of it, embrace Shakspere's "Merry Wives," "King Henry V.", and Part 2 of "King Henry IV.", Scott's 'Marmion,' Steele's 'Essays and Tales,' Defoe's 'Tour through the Eastern Counties of England, 1722,' Roger Ascham's 'Schoolmaster,' Fénelon's 'Existence of God,' and more of Plutarch's 'Lives'—a fair image of the scope of this useful collection.

"Bohn's Select Library" (Scribner & Welford) adds C. R. Kennedy's version of 'Demosthenes on the Crown,' and Pauli's 'Oliver Cromwell.'

With good literary, and we trust with good commercial, judgment, the Messrs. Putnam have added two-thirds of Leigh Hunt's 'Stories from the Italian Poets' to their convenient and (so to say) intimate "Nuggets Series." The Dante biographical sketch and annotated abstract of the 'Divine Comedy' fill one of the little volumes; the Tasso, Ariosto, and Pulci, another. This leaves out Boiardo, and the appendix of metrical examples and versions, which the publishers are ready to make into a third volume if they receive the proper encouragement. Orignally published in 1846, amid the fever of the Tractarian movement, the Dante portion was edited with a motive of helping to stem the Catholic reaction ("in a corner") of Newman and his associates. This furnished the "existing reasons" alluded to by Hunt in his preface, "why it is salutary to show that he [Dante] . . . must not have his barbarism confounded with his strength."

The London *Athenæum* for September 29 announces the speedy publication by the Cambridge University Press of an important work on the 'Divine Comedy' by Dr. Moore, Principal of St. Edmund Hall, Oxford. It will contain (1) a critical account of the text of the 'Divina Commedia'; (2) the collation of seventeen MSS. throughout the whole of the 'Inferno'; (3) the discussion of disputed readings of about 180 passages throughout the poem, which have been collated in about 250 MSS.; (4) appendices on families of MSS. and other subjects bearing on the textual criticism."

In the same number of the *Athenæum* Mr. William Davies suggests a special indebtedness of Milton to one Domenico Mantova, a Brescian *gentiluomo* and poet, whose *Rime* were published at Venice in 1554 as an appendix to the 'Rime di diversi eccellenti Autori Bresciani.' The correspondences cited do not seem to us very convincing, and no single line emerges which, in addition to the general cast of the sonnets, implies adaptation from the Italian original. A marked disagreement must be admitted between

"Now that the fields are dark and ways are mire"

and

"Mentre che chiaro è 'l ciel, puro e sereno."

That Milton got hints for his 'Comus,' and even the scheme of it, from George Peele's "Old Wives' Tale," is maintained by Peele's latest editor, Mr. Bullen, and his reviewer in the *Athenæum* of October 6.

Mr. John Gilmer Speed, of the well-known Kentucky family, and author of a Life of Keats, his great-uncle, has assumed the editorship of the *American Magazine*.

The October proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society opens with an account of a recent survey of Christmas Island, an uninhabited island in the Indian Ocean, remarkable because of its "coral covering." This is followed by a description, by the Shah of Persia, of a new lake, which appeared some six years ago, about thirty-five miles south of Teheran. There is a tradition, to which the Shah refers, that it formerly existed, but disappeared on the birthday of the Prophet. According to the map, which is copied from that published in the Teheran gazette *Irân*, where the article originally appeared, the lake is about twenty-five miles long by five broad, and is estimated to be about thirty-three feet deep. "The water of the lake is brackish and bitter, but it is very clear and sparkling, and its color is blue." This number also contains Sir C. W. Wilson's address before the British Association on trade routes, in the course of which he calls attention to the fact that the steamers constructed for the Suez Canal route to the East "are quite unfitted for the voyage round the Cape," and that consequently the English carrying trade would be liable to paralysis in case the Canal was blocked by war or by accident. He spoke slightingly of the probable effect of the Panama Canal upon commerce, even "when completed as a maritime canal, without locks." Mr. H. H. Johnston contributes a paper, accompanied by an unusually fine ethnographic map, on the "Bantu Borderland of Western Africa," the region extending from Old Calabar to the base of the Cameroons, and interesting from the number and variety of the languages spoken in it. Mr. Johnston has collected vocabularies of twenty-three of the principal ones.

We have received the second *livraison* of Longnon's 'Atlas Historique de la France,' of which we noticed the first part some four years ago. The present instalment, like the last, consists of five plates—No. 6, containing nine small maps of France and its neighbors at various dates from 817 to 950, and Nos. 7 to 10, which together compose a magnificent map of Gaul in the tenth century. The nine small maps, with their succession of petty changes, present vividly to the eye the confusion in political relations which characterized the closing years of the Carolingian epoch. We are accustomed to reckon the division made at Verdun in 843 as practically establishing the boundaries of the kingdom of France, and in the long run it was so; but we learn from these maps that these territories were broken up in less than fifteen years, and it is not until the reign of Eudes, in 890, after several intervening changes, that we again find France with the dimensions of 843. The great map of the tenth century affords a no less interesting observation, as we learn from it (by a comparison with the maps of the earlier *livraison*) that the territorial divisions which Cæsar found in existence, B. C. 58, continued without any essential changes until the full establishment of feudalism—subdivided from time to time, but with very few real changes of boundary. The

tribe of Cæsar became the *civitas* of Augustus, and this in its turn the *gau* (*pagus*) of the Frank Empire. It will be noted that the title of this map is not *France*, but *Gaul*. It is bounded by the Alps and the Rhone; it is divided into the large provinces of Lorraine, France, Burgundy, etc., and does not therefore show upon its face just what was under the rule of Hugh Capet, and what under his contemporaries of Germany and Burgundy. The province of Burgundy, for example, was divided between the kingdoms of France and Burgundy; but to see where the line ran, it is necessary to consult the small map in Plate vi. Plate ix. contains also a small map of the civil provinces, and another of ecclesiastical divisions. We still read the hopeful announcement that the parts will appear on an average one a year.

For the sixteenth time we have the 'Publishers' Trade-List Annual,' with its catalogue of all the book-makers who choose to be represented in it (New York: Office of the *Publishers' Weekly*). In the nature of the case, the volume grows in bulk with the increase of the lists, and this year's seems the bulkiest of all. Its prime use is for the trade, but any book-purchaser can consult it with profit.

—How shall we say anything new of the 'Supplement to Poole's Index to Periodical Literature' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.)? The same chief editor and assistant, the same unsalaried devotion, the same general scheme, the same indispensableness to the student, the same typographical proportions—what remains to tell of this addition to the 'Poole's Index' of 1882, covering the five years to January 1, 1887? In the first place, the scheme has been greatly enlarged—by taking on forty-six new associates and by indexing thirty-three sets of periodicals not existing before 1882, and twenty-eight older sets now first (at least completely) indexed. Hence the Supplement for five years fills 483 pages, or almost exactly one-third of the edition of 1882, an enormous ratio considering that the first edition of the 'Index' was published in 1848. It must needs be, too, that with the increase in the contributors the range of topics is multiplied, but this we cannot well prove. What is clear is, that the present mode of compilation, which is *current* and not retrospective, tends inevitably to multiply topics of immediate and more or less ephemeral interest, and to give the 'Index' the character of a "Conversation Lexicon," if we may use the expression—a key to "the vital questions of the day, in philosophy, social science, politics, and literature." We will instance two particulars: the chief books of the day are here indicated and embalmed in references to the leading reviews of them; and the death of any great man is signalized by grouping about his name the most striking obituary notices, etc. Spencer's 'Data of Ethics' and Tolstoi's works are examples of the first class; Darwin, Emerson, Longfellow, George Eliot, Grant, Wagner, D. G. Rossetti, of the second. Some of these personages, dead, require as much space in the Supplement as, living, in the previous 'Index'; some even more. Then there are topics which are wholly new, like Knights of Labor, Henry George, Tonquin, Home Rule, Blair Educational Bill; while old topics revive in force and receive greater absolute or relative attention, *e. g.*, Nihilism, Socialism, Civil Service, Tariff, Copyright, Divorce, Electricity, Congo, Henry Irving (who now outstrips Washington Irving). Ireland fills four and a half pages against ten and a half in 1882, and remains one of the chief topics of the English-speaking race. Finally, and still leaving unsaid many things, it should be remarked that this work is a guide to books as well as to magazine articles; to the authors of books, also, and the "men of the day" in all walks of life; and measurably to the writers concerning both. All praise again to Mr. William F. Poole, Mr. William I. Fletcher, and the disinterested men and women who have combined to spin this clue to the wilderness of current thought; who never rest, but are daily toiling over the quarterly 'Co-operative Index' which furnished the substratum of the present Supplement, and which after five years will be gathered up into a volume like that before us.

—Mr. W. Howard White contributes to the *Railroad Gazette* of October 5 some very striking observations upon the ratio of population to railroad mileage in the United States. Beginning with the year 1850, prior to which time Mr. White considers railroad building as somewhat abnormal, there has been a very noticeable regularity in the decrease of this ratio. The number of inhabitants to each mile of railroad in 1850 was 2,571, while in 1887 this number was only 412; and the decrease has been so steady as to admit of representation by a curve which seems to be hyperbolic in charac ter. There was a conspicuous interruption of the curve at the time of the civil war, and another after the panic of 1873, but its nature is not materially affected by these disturbances. Estimating the future increase of population on the basis of the past, the prolongation of the curve would indicate for 1890 a population of 396 to the mile of railroad, and the limit of the curve would be approximately reached in 1898, with a population per mile of 325. It would appear, therefore, that the normal rate of railroad building for the five years from 1885 to 1890 is about 8,000 miles a year, and that 9,000 miles would be in excess of the limit indicated by the curve. As there had been built nearly 21,000 miles at the beginning of the present year, it is clear that a halt must be called soon unless some new factor is to be introduced into the situation.

— To the satisfaction of its numerous well-wishers and the confusion of those who prophesied its early death, the *Journal of Morphology* enters upon the second year of its existence with the promise of two numbers besides the one just issued. This contains five papers, each excellent in its way, and representing as many distinct (and *strictly morphological*) subjects and modes of investigation. The editor follows up the paper in the previous number with a discussion of "the seat of formative and regenerative energy." Prof. Cope considers "the tri-tubercular molar in human dentition" from the standpoint of evolution and racial and comparative anatomy, and concludes that it "constitutes a reversion to the lemurs, and not to the anthropoid apes or to the monkeys proper." The shortest and the longest papers are Dr. Tuckerman's account of the "gustatory organs of a bat," a subject apparently but little investigated, and Dr. Patten's "Studies on the Eyes of Arthropods," which is not only good in itself, but accompanied by a remarkably complete "summary." Prof. Osborn's finely illustrated "Amphibian Brain Studies" is partly a digest of his previous publications, and partly an account of the "nerve-fibre courses," more especially those of the medulla oblongata of the "hell-bender," Cryptobranchus. There are also comparisons with the brains of the lamprey and the lung-fishes, Dipnoans. Notwithstanding some points which might be justly criticised, the paper as a whole is so instructive and suggestive as to occasion deep regret at the intimation on the opening page that the author's labors in encephalic anatomy may not be nearly so continuous as they have been since 1879.

— The September-October number of the *Centralblatt für Bibliothekswesen* contains the conclusion of O. von Gebhardt's article, in which he endeavors to trace the history of the manuscripts discovered at Bobbio in 1494, by Merula. He finds as the result of his investigations that the twenty-five titles given in Merula's list represent fifteen separate manuscripts, of which seven are still preserved in various libraries, four have disappeared, but are represented either by manuscript copies or early printed editions, and four are completely lost. Max Harrwitz gives a list containing the titles and dates of the first works printed at some fifty places, ranging from the sixteenth to the eighteenth century, correcting, with much exultation, the dates given in the 'Dictionnaire de Géographie' of P. Deschamps, whose name, by the way, he misspells. In several instances, too, the corrector is himself in error; thus he commits the egregious blunder of giving 'Klopstock's Messiah, attempted from the German by Jos. Collyer, 1795,' as the title and the date of the first book printed in New York! And a reference to so common a handbook as Cotton's 'Typographical Gazetteer' would have furnished him with still earlier dates for Bergamo, Coburg, Danzig, Novara, etc. There is an interesting account of the sale of the late Karl Goedeke's library. The attendance was small, and as a result the prices, generally speaking, were low, many a literary rarity going for a mere song. Of the collection relating to the Reformation the major part was secured by the Hamburg Library. A. Keysser reports that he has discovered in the Cologne Library a copy of the printed fragment of Cornelius Loos's treatise 'De vera et falsa Magia,' the printing of which was stopped and the manuscript confiscated by the Inquisition. The fragment comprises the first eight sheets of the work, containing the preface and chapters 1–53 of the first book. The importance of this find would be much greater had not the original manuscript of the first two books been discovered in 1886, by Mr. G. L. Burr, in the city library of Treves, as was related in No. 1115 of the *Nation*.

FAY'S CONCORDANCE TO THE DIVINE COMEDY.

Concordance of the Divina Commedia. By Edward Allen Fay, Ph.D., Professor in the National Deaf-Mute College. 8vo, pp. vi, 819. Published for the Dante Society, Cambridge, Massachusetts. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.; London: Trübner & Co. 1888.

A SLIGHT comparison of Dr. Fay's Concordance of the 'Divine Comedy' with any one of the Italian or German compilations which have hitherto had to serve us in its stead, helps one to appreciate the admiration which Mariotti expresses for the English Concordances of Shakspere and the Bible in his 'Dante e la statistica delle lingue.' Englishmen, he says with wonder, as if he were describing the invention of some new engine of war—Englishmen seem to have been induced to contrive concordances by a desire to find references rapidly; and he goes on to recommend that some diligent student of Dante should try to produce a similar marvel. A foreigner, however, has been the first to complete this most practical *Hülfsmittel* for the thousands who read and study Dante as a master, and still more for those whose pleasure it is to dissect

the 'Divine Comedy' in the most approved philological fashion.

It is strange that a concordance of the 'Divine Comedy,' a book of reference natural and necessary, as it seems to us, is really the last point in a long line of indices and vocabularies. To be sure, there has been a printed *rimario* since 1602—that of Carlo Noci, which, revised by Volpi in 1727, and reprinted by Le Monnier in 1853, is sufficiently well known. But, despite the fact that a *rimario* does not often give one a ready clue to the whereabouts of a word or passage, there was for a long time nothing better. From the fifteenth century there had been scattering attempts at compiling lists of proper names, obscure words, and the like; but the first printed matter of any value was Volpi's three clumsy 'Indici richissimi della Divina Commedia . . . che tengono la vece d' un intero Comento' (1727), which consisted of short biographical and critical notes and similar matter, alphabetically arranged under three inconvenient headings. In 1852 Blanc published his 'Vocabolario dantesco,' Carbone's translation of which (1859) is perhaps better known than the original. With this really valuable book, which contains a complete list of the words used in the 'Divine Comedy,' together with much well-arranged and usually accurate information of various kinds, progress ceases for some time. Castrogiovanni's 'Fraseologia poetica e dizionario generale della Divina Commedia' (1854) is a foolish and inaccurate phrase-book and anthology, designed chiefly for the inspiration of Sicilian youth; and Ferrazzi's 'Fraseologia' (1865), though surprisingly complete, is not even an approximation to a concordance. Bocci's 'Dizionario storico, ecc.' (1873), a small and rather rambling book with a very long title; Locock's 'Biographical Guide to the Divine Comedy' (1874), and the fragment of Count Gaddi's 'Vocabolario enciclopedico dantesco' (1876), are mere forerunners of Poletto's valuable 'Dizionario dantesco di quanto si contiene nelle opere di Dante Allighieri con richiami alla Somma teologica di S. Tommaso d' Aquino' (1885). But even this, crowded as it was with references and cross-references, which in part took the place of a concordance, was by no means suited to do the full duties of one.

Meantime there had been attempts at actual concordances. De Battines mentions two that were never published, and a third, also unprinted, 'Indice completissimo di tutte le voci contenute nella Divina Commedia,' which was compiled in 1844 at the expense of Lord Vernon. In 1883 appeared a *saggio* of 'La Concordanza dantesca' of Signor F. Vassallo-Paleologo of Girgenti. According to a recent article in the Neapolitan *Staffetta*, it would seem that the author had originally planned his work after the ordinary fashion of concordances, but that he was dissuaded by certain eminent advisers, who declared that a bare concordance would be uninteresting. What the public wanted was a book that could be read from one end to the other with pleasure—in other words, a concordance of some 2,000 pages, in which all words cited should be accompanied by a context of from five to twenty lines. The two small parts of the new work (1886), which Signor Vassallo-Paleologo has since published, are naturally ill-adapted for use, and they are, furthermore, not particularly accurate. Since 1886 no other parts have been published.

At last, however, thanks to the careful industry of Dr. Fay and to the generous interest and support of the Dante Society, we have a complete concordance to the 'Divine Comedy,' with 819 pages of text and some 44,000 references. The text is Witte's, though such words of the Le Monnier edition as differ from Witte's are inserted in their proper places, and variants of either text in the citations are carefully noted. The method of citation is best shown by an example:

"ETERNA. nel mondo. . M'insegnavate come l'uom s'*eterna*.—*Inf.* xv, 85."

Each word, *e. g.*, *buon*, *buona*, *buone*, *buoni*, is given in its proper place with the citations which go with it, and not under its theme word (*buono*), although, in the case of the "shorter and commoner pronouns, prepositions, adverbs, and conjunctions, and the more frequently recurring forms of the verbs *avere* and *essere*," the citations and references are omitted (unless there is some noteworthy peculiarity in the use of the word in question) and *sovente* is added in their stead, *e. g.*,

"DUE; DUO. *Sovente*."

Whether this method of indexing is better than that of Blanc, who puts inflections and other forms under the theme form (*buon*, *a*, *e*, *i* under *buono*) is still an open question. To the present writer it seems that it is not. One uses a concordance to find a passage from some word which serves as a clue, or else to see the various ways in which the author uses a word. In the first instance, it is just as easy to look for an inflectional form under the theme word; and, in the second instance, it is much more convenient to find all the inflectional forms under a single theme form.

It is curious, too, to note that in Dr. Fay's scheme no phrases are noticed. This is natural in most instances. *Ab antico* can be found from *antico* just as well as if it had been registered under *ab antico;* but to phrases such as *ad ora ad ora*, *a due a due*, one gets no clue whatever, for *ora* and *due* are both without citations (*sovente*). This suggests a question as to the order in which a number of citations should be arranged. Dr. Fay has two rules:

"The first of these is the sense in which the reference word is used; for instance, under the word *cielo* are first grouped together the citations in which the word means sky; secondly, those in which it means heaven; thirdly, etc. . . . The other principle . . . is the alphabetical order of the words of the context most closely connected with the reference word. These are assumed to be, for a substantive, (1) the verbs of which it is the subject, (2) the verbs of which it is the object, and (3) the prepositions by which it is governed; for an adjective, etc."

But there some 170 entries under *cielo*, and there is nothing to show where one meaning of the word ends and another begins, nor does the second principle seem other than unnatural and inconvenient. The reader can test it for himself if he will look for a line under *donna*. Perhaps the wiser plan would have been to take no other rule than that of relative place in the poem. That would have the advantage of complete simplicity at least, and it might prove to be vastly more convenient for both the maker and the user of the concordance.

But these are minor points—points for Dr. Fay to consider, if he be brave enough to undertake another great task, a concordance to the minor works of Dante. Another point of the main scheme remains to be noticed, the attempt to denote by an asterisk "words and word forms, more or less unusual, used by Dante (according to the best texts) only in the rhyme ending of the verse." By "words . . . used by Dante only in the rhyme ending," by the way, Dr. Fay probably means words that Dante uses only in the 'Divine Comedy,' for certain words which he stars are found elsewhere in Dante (*e. g.*, *Plato* is quite the ordinary form in the 'Convito.') This charge against Dante, that he used strange or obscure words or forms *per grazia della rima*, is an old one. The oft-quoted statement of the 'Ottimo' is two-sided, and the somewhat similar remark attributed to Pietro di Dante should not have much authority with us. Nannucci was the first to defend Dante, and he did it fiercely. ('Intorno alle voci usate da Dante secondo i commentatori in grazia della rima,' 1840.) Schneider (1869) tried to confute Nannucci, Zehle (1886) disproved much of Schneider, and Zingarelli (1884) has added new facts to the discussion. As a matter of fact, however, no one seems to know very much about the question. The text to all Dante's works has not yet been definitively settled, and we know as yet too little what his whole vocabulary really was. Nor has more been accomplished for the other documents which show what the written language was in the time of Dante. Until all this is known and much of it tabulated, there is little need of discussing the matter. It may be interesting, however, to notice that Schneider finds Dante guilty of breaking the rules of "good usage"—if so pedantic and academical a phrase can be used for the loose freedom of the thirteenth century—in rhyming words and for the sake of the rhyme in some 580 instances, or in one line in every 24. Dr. Fay finds the same in about 500 instances, or in one line in every 28; or, throwing aside interchanges of *i* and *e* in verb endings, where Dante seems to have had a real choice as to which of two forms he would use, in 402 instances, *i. e.*, one line in every 35. To the writer, it seems that the list is still large. A further sifting, allowing Dante a good deal of freedom in the choice of words which show some slight phonetic or inflectional peculiarity, would seem to reduce it to about 225 words, or one straining for the rhyme in every 63 lines.

Still, it is an undoubted fact that many of the difficulties in the 'Divine Comedy' are due in one way or another to difficulties in the rhyme words; and whoever has the knowledge and the industry to undertake to investigate the matter thoroughly, will be a benefactor to all students of Dante. It is to be regretted that Dr. Fay did not leave the question still open by stating what tests he had applied to words before marking them as rare. Among the words marked with an obelisk as used only by Dante (by which we understand Dr. Fay to mean only in the 'Divine Comedy') there are at least two which are also found in the 'Convito' (*colletta*, in *Conv.* iv. Canzone, and *osannare*, *Ibid.* iv, 28), and there are others which one might expect to find in other writers of the time (Nannucci gives a reference in Fra Guittone for †*Aggrato*). A list of the words marked with an asterisk and of those marked with an obelisk would also be valuable as an appendix.

Of course, the Concordance brings out many facts as to Dante's vocabulary. Mariotti had already given us the number of words which he used in the 'Divine Comedy,' 5,860 to the 5,642 of the Latin Bible, the 8,000 of Milton, and the 15,000 of Shakspere. The proportion of the adjectives to the nouns (1 to 3), the rare use of superlatives (there are only 17 in the whole poem, a mere fraction of the number in the 'Vita Nuova'), and other data which Mariotti gives, are all borne out by the Concordance. The immense importance of the verbs and the emphasis put on simple physical action are seen everywhere. *Dicere* is used about 750 times, and *facere* and *vedere* even oftener. It seems truer than ever that Dante's verse "holds itself erect by the mere force of the substantive and verb, without the help of a single epithet." The use of adjectives is sometimes very curious. *Buono* is used only 110 times, while

alto is found some thirty times more. It is just what one would have wished: *alto* is so much nearer the tone of the whole 'Commedia' than *buono*. And everywhere throughout the book there are half pages of lines which one reads with real pleasure, so significant is each fragment of the whole, so sharp is the light thrown on the recurring word in each set. One thinks involuntarily of a line of sword-points.

Dr. Fay has put on the title-page of his book the motto

"In che i gravi labor gli sono aggrati."

It well denotes the loving and accurate care with which he has performed his heavy task. His book—the first of its kind in centuries—is not for a day: full generations of lovers and students of Dante will place it on their shelves beside the 'Divina Commedia.'

AN INDIAN OFFICER.

Reynell Taylor, C.B.C.S.I. A Biography by E. Gambier Parry, author of 'Suakim, 1885,' etc. London: Kegan Paul & Co. 1888.

WHEN the British in India obtained possession of the Punjab, the duty also devolved upon them of administering a strip of territory which was not properly a part of the Punjab. This strip was known as the Trans-Indus frontier. It extended for a distance of about eight hundred miles, between the Peshawur Valley in the north and the city of Mooltan in the south, and was bounded on the east by the Indus, on the west by the Suleiman Mountains. About midway in this tract of territory lies the district of Bunnoo, a well-watered and beautiful valley, remarkable alike for the fertility of its soil and the profusion of fruits and roses which beautify the landscape. The inhabitants, however, of this lovely region did not exhibit in their lives and character the beauty of the scenery around them. A more ruffianly population than the Pathans of Bunnoo, when the British first occupied the valley, could with difficulty have been found on the surface of the globe. Their character may be inferred from a little anecdote which General Nicholson (the soldier who fell in the assault of Delhi in 1857) has recorded of a certain Bunnoochee child. Nicholson asked this child if he knew that it was wrong to kill people. The child responded that he knew it was wrong to kill with a knife or a sword. Why? "*Because the blood left marks.*" This child had graduated early in the school of murder, considered as one of the fine arts. But though the Bunnoochees admitted in theory the superior excellence of an assassination which left no revealing traces behind it, the knife was the ordinary implement with which a man avenged his wrongs upon his fellowmen. He did not care for a fight in the open field.

"His idea," to quote General Reynell Taylor's own words, "of a successful field was—time, midnight, and a long-sought rival or enemy asleep under his vine in the open air; no witness but the moon, and leisure given for three well-planted blows of a small, broad-backed knife, which makes a deadly three-cornered wound like that of a bayonet, under which a man may live long enough to drink the full bitterness contained in the knowledge of his enemy's triumph."

The free use of this small, broad-backed knife during a long space of time had induced a state of things which made of every village in the valley of Bunnoo a walled and isolated fort, the inhabitants of which did not venture, except by stealth, to enter the streets of another even though it was situated in their immediate vicinity. "When," ran the Bunnoochee proverb, "a man enters a strange village, he takes the strut out of his walk." It was seldom, however, that a man entered upon an enterprise so full of peril. Men passed from infancy to youth, from youth to old age and the grave, without in the whole course of their lives getting a mile or two beyond the walls of their native village. The valley was an incessant scene of bloodshed and murder. Village against village, chief against chief, the never-ending blood feuds were handed on from generation to generation. At the same time, the Bunnoochee was, in his own way, a profoundly religious man. He liked the practice of murder. He would, with absolute equanimity, swear away the life of another, from private spite or merely to oblige a friend; but during the season of Ramadan—the Mohammedan Easter—he was a scrupulous observer of the fast ordained by the Prophet.

"Before I close this letter," writes Nicholson to his friend Herbert Edwardes, "I must tell you of the last Bunnoochee murder, it is so horribly characteristic of the bloodthirstiness and bigotry of their disposition. The murderer killed his brother, and was brought in to me on a frightfully hot evening, looking dreadfully parched and exhausted. 'Why,' said I, 'is it possible you have walked in fasting on a day like this?' 'Thank God,' said he, 'I am a regular faster.' 'Why have you killed your brother?' 'I saw a fowl killed last night, and the sight of blood put the devil into me.' He had chopped up his brother, stood a long chase, and been marched in here; *but he was keeping the fast.*"

The Bunnoochees, however, crouching behind their walled villages, were not the sole occupants of the valley. The mountains overlooking this village were the dwelling places of the Wazeerees—a mountain tribe which presented, in their leading traits of character, a marked contrast to the Bunnoochee proper. They were as manly, brave, and truthful as the Bunnoochees were cowardly and treacherous. The difficulty of finding a subsistence in the hills had forced a considerable part of this tribe to migrate to the plains. The Bunnoochees made desperate efforts to expel the intruders. For this purpose, they even laid aside for a time their internal feuds. But the weak and dissolute denizens of the plain were no match for the hardy mountaineers, and the Bunnoochees, worsted in the field, resolved upon a peace tempered by assassination. This policy did not answer their expectations. The Wazeerees retaliated with an energy and rapidity which speedily convinced the Bunnoochees that it was inexpedient to persist in it. The Wazeerees were in consequence acknowledged as undisputed possessors of the lands which they had seized—about one-third of the valley. They looked upon the Bunnoochees with scorn, and the two races held altogether aloof the one from the other.

Such was the country and such were the people to which Reynell Taylor (the subject of Mr. Gambier Parry's biography) was sent at the age of twenty-five—a solitary Englishman, with instructions to substitute a reign of law for the system of violence, oppression, and murder which had hitherto prevailed. Reynell Taylor was one of a group of young officers whom Sir Henry Lawrence, the new chief administrator of the Punjab, had collected around himself. There was such a remarkable similarity of character in the men composing this group that a description of Reynell Taylor might, with a few trifling alterations, be accepted as a description of any one of them. They one and all possessed in a striking degree those traits of character which, among the wild tribes they were sent to civilize, were regarded as most admirable. Reynell Taylor, for example, was, from the physical point of view, a splendid specimen of humanity, a man perfectly fearless, a finished swordsman, a fine horseman, and a mighty hunter. In the martial exercises in which these Pathans of the frontier delighted, there was not, in all probability, to be found, throughout the district which he ruled, a man so expert as himself. And so it was with Herbert Edwardes, with John Nicholson, with Lumsden, and others of the group we have referred to. They were, one and all, hunters and fighters as well as rulers. They vindicated their right to rule by the splendor of their performances in the chase and the foray.

But they also possessed in common another, and, for the immediate work before them, an even more important characteristic. All Moslems are devout, in that the existence of an invisible world is an ever-present consciousness with them. "If God will" is the exclamation with which a Moslem enters upon all business whatsoever. "God be praised!" is the exclamation with which he invariably brings all business to a close. And Reynell Taylor, Herbert Edwardes, and others, like their master, Sir Henry Lawrence, were men of that evangelical type of Christianity which believes in special providences, which sees "the hand of God" in all things that it undertakes to do, and which stands, therefore, in very close spiritual affinity with the religious convictions of the earnest Moslem. Wherein these men differed from those over whom they were set to rule was all in favor of their right to do so—in the larger outlook born of western culture, in their respect for law, in their consideration for the week and the poor. Reynell Taylor was a conspicuous example of these latter qualities. A man who shrank from no danger on a field of battle, he was gentleness itself in all the relations of peaceful life. The last act of his connection with the district of Bunnoo was to found and endow a Christian mission there; but the Bunnoochees had then learned to regard him as "the good angel," and were wont to say that if all British officials had resembled Taylor, they would have become Christians without the intervention of missionaries at all. In the volume before us, the story of Reynell Taylor's exploits in Bunnoo, and other of the wilder districts of British India, is told by Mr. Parry in a straightforward and readable manner, and a strange, eventful narrative it is. All that Trans-Indus frontier, which he and his companions found so full of violence and murder, can now be traversed by a solitary traveller with as much security as one of the streets of New York.

An Epigraphical Journey in Asia Minor. By J. R. Sitlington Sterrett, Ph.D. [Papers of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens. Volume ii., 1883-1884.] Boston: Damrell & Upham. 1888.

THE delayed second volume of the Papers of the American School at Athens has now appeared, filling the gap in the series of four volumes. Of these volumes the first and fourth are occupied with eleven short papers, two of them on the inscriptions of Assos and Tralleis by Dr. Sterrett, one an important discussion of Greek Versification in Inscriptions by Prof. F. D. Allen, while six of the remaining eight describe theatres, temples, etc., in Athens or Thoricus. The second and third volumes are entirely the work of Dr. Sterrett, now of the University of Texas at Austin, and are wholly devoted to inscriptions. The third volume, which was reviewed in these columns not long ago, gave the inscriptions collected in the Wolfe Expedition to Asia Minor in 1885, while this second volume gives the inscriptions col-

lected in an epigraphical journey the year before.

Dr. Sterrett had already been initiated into epigraphical work in a journey in 1883 with W. M. Ramsay, the indefatigable explorer of Phrygia. As both desired to make further explorations in the fall of 1883, they agreed to go together so far as their plans would allow, starting from Tralles, on the Mæander, not far from Ephesus. The first part of their route through Caria, across the southwestern corner of Phrygia, and as far as Isparta (Baris) in north Pisidia, was investigated both topographically and epigraphically by both Mr. Ramsay and Dr. Sterrett, it being agreed that all copies of inscriptions found should belong to Dr. Sterrett, while all road-notes and rights of map should go to Mr. Ramsay. The maps in this volume, made by Kiepert, cover a large part of Northern Cappadocia, Galatia, and Southern Cappadocia, although the routes are also in part shown on the maps of Cilicia, Lycaonia, Pisidia, and Isauria which accompany Dr. Sterrett's other volume of the Wolfe Expedition. These new maps, quite reconstructing what was before imperfectly known, are of prime importance, and will control the cartography of the region until scientific surveys are made.

Inscriptions are not generally very inspiring reading, even to the specialist. The collecting of them requires great physical endurance, great patience, much experience, and a quick eye. What an epigrapher should not be is indicated, but not stated, in the notes in Nos. 38-87, many of which inscriptions had been previously copied and published in the *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique*, by MM. Collignon and Duchesne of the French School at Athens. Their readings are proved by Ramsay and Sterrett to have been hasty and careless, omitting not only letters, the beginning and end of lines, even whole lines (pp. 41, 56), but also entire inscriptions—thus saying of one square cippus (p. 101) that it is "inscribed on two sides," when, in fact, it has long inscriptions, quite legible, on all four sides. This is not the only case of such blunders; an equally bad one is noted on page 93, where, in addition to omitting one of the inscriptions on a stone, they make a blunder of fifty years in the date, by supposing the Cibyratic era to begin 25 B. C., instead of 25 A. D. It is of great importance that such work be thoroughly done, as archæologists are naturally indisposed to go over a territory which it might fairly be supposed had been recently explored by other scholars. The work of French explorers in Asia Minor during the last ten years has shown too much of this hurried and imperfect character. It is much better to take a small district and do it thoroughly. Indeed, the present trip of Dr. Sterrett covers more ground than could be fully explored, and his expedition the next year shows that he had partly learned this lesson.

Among the geographical results obtained we can mention the settling of the location of a dozen ancient towns by epigraphic evidence. Of these the most important is Tavium, fixed at Nefezkieui. The value of this discovery is seen in the fact that seven Roman roads diverged from this Tavium, and the settlement of its locality fixes many other places. The first milestone on one of these roads was found at Nefezkieni. Among other places located by epigraphic proof we notice Heraclea (No. 14), Sebastopolis (No. 25), Antioch in Pisidia (No. 92), Hadrianapolis approximately (No. 160), Pappa (Nos. 175-177), Sarromæna and Sobagena; also Mount Prien and the River Korax (Nos. 352-354). The long series of Roman mile-stones in the Trans-Antitauran region, beginning with No. 269, are of prime importance for the history of the country under the Romans. They locate the Roman roads between Comana Aurea and Melitene, and prove that Melitene was the starting-point of the roads in Eastern Cappadocia, and consequently a provincial capital under the Romans. This is a surprising fact, for, considering the great religious and political importance of Comana, one would naturally have expected to find Comana the starting-point of the Roman roads. These mile-stones give the names of the governors of the provinces, and of the emperors under whom they ruled; and it is not uncommon to find three inscriptions, one over another, on the same surface, made by successive governors who repaired the roads, the whole three being decipherable by a skilled epigrapher.

Among the more curious points brought out, we may mention that No. 21 shows descent reckoned from the mother, and possibly suggests the survival of a primitive family system among the Lycians. But this would require more evidence, as we know of cases among the Armenians of Asia Minor in which little *gentes*, named after an ancestress of mark or wealth, have grown up within a few generations. The "Pisidian gods," whoever they may be, come to light in Nos. 28-30, being invoked to punish any one who shall injure the monuments. These inscriptions also show a peculiar syntax, the dual for the plural; but not so strange as the syntax of another inscription (No. 207) in which the nominative, genitive, and accusative are all used in the same regimen after σύν. But this is no more than might be expected in a region where we find untranslatable Phrygian inscriptions (Nos. 175, 186). Nos. 56-58 give us more of the oracles used in astragalomancy, of which we have a portion in the volume of the Wolfe Expedition. Five dice were thrown. We translate a single oracle:

"An ace, three threes, and a six.
"The time is not yet favorable, but rest and make no vain attempt;
"And be not like the lioness that brings forth blind cubs,
"But plan a season of repose, and God shall give you guidance."

Nos. 243 and 245 are curious riddles; but as Dr. Sterrett gives them on the authority of a Greek physician who professed to have copied them, we shall hold them open to suspicion. Nos. 379 and 380 are interesting, as giving us further knowledge of the Caius Julius Philippus under whom Polycarp suffered martyrdom.

The volume leaves just one thing greatly to be desired. Dr. Sterrett took with him as photographer Mr. J. H. Haynes, who made several hundred pictures of ruins and scenery. There are not a few of these inscriptions that would have been much elucidated by the pictures that belong with them. We presume it is the expense that has prevented giving views of the wonderful volcanic cones, honeycombed with troglodyte dwellings. Some of the most desirable of these pictures, however, like the so-called Hittite sculptures of Eyuk or the splendid Seldjuk remains at Sultan Khan, hardly belong to the zone of antiquity discussed in this volume. If Dr. Sterrett could publish a selection of these pictures in an atlas, they would have a special archæological and artistic value.

Kiepert's labor on the maps, and Hirschfeld's long review of Dr. Sterrett's former volume, which has appeared in the *Göttingische Gelehrte Anzeigen* since our own notice was published, show the value put on our countryman's work by the two best German authorities on Asia Minor. It is greatly to be regretted that he was compelled to leave this congenial work—congenial to so few, and in which he is the sole American representative—to seek remunerative employment. Miss Wolfe, by the gift of a thousand dollars, added the fruits of a year's labor. The explorations in this volume were aided to the extent of a hundred and fifty dollars by a gift from gentlemen in Boston; but the expedition cost Dr. Sterrett personally more than ten times that amount. The men who are willing and competent to make original investigations are so rare that it is a serious loss to the reputation of American scholarship if the lack of some Mæcenas to supply the necessary funds compels them to waste such special talents and training at the teacher's desk.

Euterpe: Being the Second Book of the famous History of Herodotus. Englished by B. R., 1584. Edited by Andrew Lang. London: David Nutt. 1888. 8vo, pp. xlviii., 174.

As early as the time of Aristophanes, Herodotus was parodied and ridiculed as an inveterate story-teller; and Aristotle calls him, with some contempt, a recorder of myths or popular tales. The second book, which sketches the life and manners of the Egyptians, their religious cult and practices, and some portions of their history, is full of legends which floated on the current of the Nile in the fifth century B. C. The blindness of Pheron, and his cure by the magic efficacy of virginity; the golden gift which Rhampsinitus won at dice from Isis in the under-world; the treasury of the same monarch, and the consummate knavery of the thievish master-builder and his sons, which reappear in Greece and Hindostan, as well as in the Arabian story of Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves; the strange legend of Helen in Egypt; the marvel of the Phœnix; the tragic tale of the daughter of Mycerinus, and the device by which, to cheat the oracle, he turned day into night and doubled his allotted span of years—these and many more are excellent examples of folk-lore, whether Egyptian or foreign, whether detected in the making, or arrested on that mysterious pilgrimage from land to land which so puzzles and baffles the antiquarian. For this reason, and for its account of the religion of the earliest civilization in the world, Mr. Lang has chosen the 'Euterpe' to form one of the series which he is editing, and which began with Perrault's 'Popular Tales.'

The introduction discusses the religion of Herodotus and the question of his good faith. The latter, as we have intimated, was impugned early and often, not only in set treatises, but by casual sceptics who were too indolent to verify the facts of the historian or to heed his cautions. The caprice of criticism went so far that, while Juvenal takes the canal of Xerxes for a Grecian lie, Pliny accords to the Phœnix the honor of a grave and scientific description. Mr. Lang's essay deals chiefly with certain charges recently made by Professor Sayce in his edition of the first three books of Herodotus, entitled 'Ancient Empires of the East.' These charges are very serious and, indeed, fundamental. "Plagiarism," "affectation of knowledge," "deliberate deception," "flagrant literary dishonesty and prevarication," are some of the phrases with which the learned professor browbeats the unanswering shade of Herodotus. If they are proved, we ought to say good-bye to the "Father of History."

But, in the first place, Professor Sayce's manner does not beget confidence. He is very positive; there are no shades or degrees in his knowledge; he states matters of pure conjecture for matters of fact. He knows just where

Herodotus falsified, just where his notebook failed him, where his "dragomen" deluded him. If Herodotus withholds the name of Osiris, apparently from motives of reverential awe, it is really because he was hiding his ignorance; if he does not mention Sophocles, it is "because he had not learned him at school." These whimsical speculations, which are worth propounding as after-dinner paradoxes, are answered by Mr. Lang with a patience and urbanity which they hardly deserve. Historians like Grote and Curtius, and editors like Stein, have no such verdict to give of the character of Herodotus; indeed, he carries his own credentials. His careful readers generally become his friends. They are won by his large and humane spirit, his simplicity and good sense, his diligent curiosity, and the love of truth that is transparent through his narrative. Nowhere can they discover the shifty, vainglorious, dishonest personage, half knave and half dupe, whom Professor Sayce detects in the first three books, and who, he strangely enough admits, may be trustworthy in his history of the Persian invasion.

When we come to details, it is to be noted that the Egyptologist criticizes as history what our author expressly gives out as current tradition. "I am telling you here," he says in the 'Euterpe,' "what was told to me. Let every man adopt what seems credible to him. It is my purpose throughout my work to record what I heard from my several informants"; and this warning, given in general, he repeats from time to time, by one sign-post or another, with the most conscientious frankness and assiduity. This means, of course, that he was not professing to give history, in a strict sense: he was observing manners and customs and collecting traditions; he was doing, in fact, all that could be expected of a highly intelligent and painstaking traveller, who visits many countries without a knowledge of their language, and without access to original documents and inscriptions. The tools of later research, of the linguist and the archæologist, were not in his hands. No man was ready at that time to write a scientific history of the East or of Egypt. As Professor Maspero justly remarks of the 'Euterpe':

"He was not writing a history of Egypt. Indeed, with the best of opportunities, he could have given us only a few lists of dynasties, and have taught us nothing more than the original texts teach us to-day. On the other hand, we should have lost those marvellous narratives, with their occasional broad naïveté, which he has so charmingly repeated to us, on the faith of his guides. We should not have known Pheron, nor Proteus, nor Rhampsinitus; and this, I believe, would have been a great loss. The monuments tell us, or will some day tell us, what was done by the Ramses, the Thothmes, and the Cheops of the real world. Herodotus lets us know what was the common talk concerning them in the streets of Memphis."

The curiosity of Herodotus, to whom no trait of human nature was uninteresting, was keener, perhaps, in matters of religion than in any other subject. By training, and probably by inheritance, he was learned in mysteries and oracles and ritual. He easily identifies certain duties and rites of the Egyptians with those of his own country, and naturally concludes that they were borrowed from the oldest civilization known to him. "The hypothesis of borrowing," says Mr. Lang, "has always been a favorite with the learned." It must, of course, still be admitted, in cases where it is supported by sufficient reasons. Unquestionably, Adonis, and Aphrodite as a goddess of the sea, came from the Phœnicians; nor can we refuse the unsophisticated evidence of the Homeric hymns, and of early poetic legend sustained by historic probabilities, that the worship of Dionysus and Demeter and Apollo was imported at some early period. When, however, we widen our circle of facts and resemblances beyond those known to Herodotus, when we find, for instance, the rites of the Aztecs and the Zunis strikingly similar to those of Babylon and Egypt—we are driven to the theory which Mr. Lang has fortified in his 'Myth, Ritual, and Religion,' and which we have already discussed in reviewing that work.

The present edition of the 'Euterpe' is limited to 500 copies. The material and make-up of the volume, like that of the 'Cupid and Psyche' which preceded it, is as harmonious and attractive as a bit of rare old china. The translation chosen by Mr. Lang, with his delicate sense of literary fitness, was first printed in 1584. The translator is unknown, though the initials B. R. may stand for Barnaby Rich. He abounds in racy colloquialisms, such as, "to serve with the same sauce," "in a bad box," "I'll pipe ye such a dance," "as true as the man in the moon." His work entirely absolves itself from all care and burden of exact scholarship. He revels especially in a good story, and tells it with a delicious freedom which sometimes amounts to entire independence of the author. Compared with his slang and exuberant loquacity, the Ionic grace of Herodotus shows severely simple. But his ease and vigor and the antique flavor of his vocabulary smack of Mandeville and Marco Polo, and match to a nicety that enchanted dawn of travel and discovery which will never more return so long as Kiepert and the ordnance-maps endure.

Historical Review of the Legislative Systems Operative in Ireland, from the Invasion of Henry II. to the Union. By the Rt. Hon. J. T. Ball, L.L.D., D.C.L. Longmans, Green & Co.

THIS terse, able, and calmly written book is purely retrospective. The author eschews all reference to present politics. None the less is it a valuable contribution towards the formation of clear views regarding the settlement of the Irish question. We are not aware of any other work in which the history of the legislative systems operative in Ireland is so clearly traced. We see that probably before, and certainly after, the time of King John, legislative assemblies (under the name at first of councils and afterwards of Parliaments) were convened by the Kings of England in Ireland. Originally all who attended them were personally summoned. In the reign of Edward I. counties were empowered to send representatives. A similar privilege was soon after extended to some cities and towns. The number of counties, cities, and towns thus privileged increased along with the extension of English rule. Originally the members of these assemblies met and deliberated together. At a later date they divided into two houses. The development of the representative principle was slow and imperfect. Until the reign of Henry VIII. the natives were practically excluded; until the reign of Elizabeth neither Ulster nor Connaught enjoyed more than occasional representation, and then only to the extent of two members in the case of the former, and four of the latter. The Commons in the Parliament of James I. (called in 1613) were increased by 100 members. No qualifications of race were required from either electors or elected. The inhabitants of the kingdom were, without distinction, nominally at least, "taken into his Majesty's gracious protection." The constitution of the Irish Parliament was then a counterpart of the English. Its capacity of action was very different. It was subject to the restraints of Poynings's law, under which the approval of the Privy Councils of Ireland and England were necessary before it could pass any valid enactment. It was also checked in its action by the assumption of authority on the part of its English rival to legislate for Ireland.

Under the Commonwealth no legislative assembly met in Ireland. We have germs of the idea of union in there being a certain number of members called by Cromwell to his Parliament. Under Charles I. and under William III. and Anne, the English Parliament in express terms legislated for Ireland over the heads of the Irish Parliament. After the union with Scotland, the Parliament of Great Britain distinctly declared that it had full power and authority to bind the kingdom and people of Ireland. From the Restoration, therefore, the legislative system operative in Ireland was basely subservient to the English in all that concerned the welfare of the Irish people. It was, in the words of Grattan, "a squabbling, fretful sectary, perplexing her little wits, and firing her furious statutes with bigotry, sophistry, disabilities, and death."

Mr. Ball traces the growth of the spirit of independence in Ireland through Molyneux and Swift, the life of the Volunteers, and the establishment of Parliamentary independence under Grattan in 1782. He marks the course of events and tendencies which culminated in the union, and impartially gives the arguments for and against that measure. It is difficult to rise from this portion of the work without being impressed with the faults and failings of the Constitution of 1782. It did not stand, because it could not stand; much less could it have stood the increasing complications and closer pressure of later years. Unless Irish statesmen had shown a clearer appreciation of the situation than they did between 1782 and 1800, especially upon such occasions as the discussion of Orde's commercial propositions, a closer and more workable relation between the countries, if not effected by bribery in 1800, would have been effected by force later on. It is impossible to turn over the pages of this book without believing that Pitt and Castlereagh and Cornwallis acted with a sincere belief that their Union would ameliorate and elevate the condition of Ireland. If the experience of eighteen years brought to light the flaws in Grattan's Constitution, so has the experience of eighty eight years (whose history is outside the scope of Mr. Ball's book) proved the weakness of Pitt's Union. Let us hope that whatever rearrangement of the relations between the countries the future has in store will prove of a happier and more permanent character.

Mr. Ball appears to us too hard upon the character and doings of James II.'s Irish Parliament. It appears to us to have been broader and fairer in its spirit towards all classes of the community than those which succeeded it under the houses of Orange and Hanover. To Irishmen there must be touches full of deep pathos in every book relating to the history and constitutions of their country. In happier times to come, they will perhaps be able to read with greater equanimity than can Irishmen of the present day such passages as those which occur in one of Grattan's speeches given at considerable length by Mr. Ball, when he dwells with fervor upon the then position and glories of Ireland: "You [the Irish Parliament] are the greatest political assembly in the world; you are at the head of an immense army; nor do we only possess an unconquerable force, but a certain unquenchable pub-

lic fire, which has touched all ranks of men like a visitation."

No library pretending to any completeness regarding Irish affairs should be without Mr. Ball's book.

Cardinal Wolsey. By Mandell Creighton, M.A. [Twelve English Statesmen.] Macmillan & Co. 1888. 12mo, pp. 226.

Of all English statesmen there is perhaps none of whose character and career it is so difficult to form a just estimate as Cardinal Wolsey; not, as in the case of Cromwell, because of uncertainty as to motives or difference of opinion upon fundamental questions of policy, but because there really seems to be no accepted standard of judgment for him. He belonged in full neither to the old nor the new; or, if he did belong to the old by reason of his training and his official position, he directly and consciously prepared for the new by his prescient statesmanship and conservative spirit of reform. His pitiful subservience in the matter of the divorce has prejudiced our moral judgment against him; and yet, until this fatal temptation came to him, he appears, on the whole, an honorable man, if ambitious and self-indulgent.

Mr. Creighton has succeeded in explaining the inconsistencies and perplexities in Wolsey's career, and helping us to a correct standard of judgment. As a statesman, he rates him very high, reckoning him almost alone among English statesmen as deserving "to be estimated by what he chose to do rather than by what he did. He was greater than his achievements." But his actual achievements were not small; judged by them alone, "he was probably the greatest political genius whom England has ever produced; for at a great crisis of European history he impressed England with a sense of her own importance, and secured for her a leading position in European affairs, which, since his days, has seemed her natural right" (p. 2). This was his work as a national statesman, at that important crisis which marks the commencement of modern history, when international relations began to take a leading place in affairs, and the great international contests of the last four centuries were inaugurated. In this contest of giants, it was Wolsey who first vindicated for England a decisive place and influence. This point Mr. Creighton has worked out with care and elaborateness, and it is the key to the principal part of his work; but we are bound to say that in detail the diplomatic contests in question—perhaps the most difficult thing to narrate—are not always made lucid or even intelligible.

The chapters upon internal affairs are more satisfactory, and the closing chapter, "The Work of Wolsey," is every way excellent. His relation to the divorce is carefully discussed, and receives all the extenuation of which it is capable.

"He could not work under cramped conditions," we are told (p. 213). "When he was restricted to the small matter of the divorce, his hand lost its cunning. He was, though he knew it not, fitted to serve England, but not fitted to serve the English king. He had the aims of a national statesman, not of a royal servant. Wolsey's misfortune was that his lot was cast on days when the career of a statesman was not distinct from that of a royal servant."

"The matter of the divorce was sprung upon him, and it would have been well for Wolsey's fame if he had retired rather than involve himself in the unworthy proceedings to which it led. But the temptation to all men to think themselves necessary in the sphere which they have made their own, is a subtle one; and those who begin by hoping that they may minimize inevitable mischief, end by being dragged into the mire."

Of the divorce:

"It would have been difficult for him to find in the proposal itself a sufficient reason for withdrawing from politics, even if he could have done so with safety. Not even Wolsey could foresee the king's obstinacy and tenacity of purpose, the depth of meanness to which he would sink, and to which he would drag all around him. Wolsey found himself powerless to resist, and the growing consciousness of moral turpitude practised to no purpose degraded him in his own eyes and robbed him of his strength. When once the divorce question was started, Wolsey was pushed on to his ruin by a power of imperious wickedness, which debased others without losing its own self-respect."

"So when we speak of the fall of Wolsey, we mean more than his irrevocable loss of power. He had lost his inner strength, and no longer kept his hold upon affairs. . . . The words of the dying man are often quoted as showing the misery of those who trust in princes' favor. But they are not merely an echo of a far-off state of things which has passed by for ever. 'To serve one's country' may have a loftier and more noble sound than 'to serve one's king,' but the meaning is not necessarily different. The thought in Wolsey's heart was this: 'If I had served the spiritual interests of my country as I have striven to serve its material interests, my conscience would be more at rest.' For Wolsey was a true patriot and had noble aims. Much as he might deaden his conscience, he did not extinguish it; and his last judgment of himself expressed the sad conviction that neither his patriotism nor the nobility of his aims had saved him from actions which he could not justify, and which his conscience loudly condemned."

The book is therefore significant for two things—it shows us clearly what Wolsey did for England, and it gives us reasons for a more lenient judgment than is ordinarily passed upon him.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, E. A History of Greece. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.25.
A Collection of Letters of Thackeray, 1847–1855. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Aus Kaiser Frederich's Tagebuch 1870–1871. New York: S. Zickel, 19 Dey St. 10 cents.
Babyland. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 75 cents.
Binion, Dr. S. A. Ancient Egypt; or, Mizraïm. Buffalo: Am. Polytechnic Co.
Björnson, B. Sigurd Slembe: a Dramatic Triology. Translated from the Norwegian by W. M. Payne. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Brandt, Prof. H. C. G. First Book in German. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.
Burdick, L. D. Through Field and Wood: Lyric Verses and Sonnets. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Burrows, M. Cinque Ports. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Calkins, Mary Whiton. Sharing the Profits. Boston: Ginn & Co. 25 cents.
Concise History of Australian Settlement and Progress, together with Full Reports of the Centennial Celebrations in 1888. New York: E. N. Erickson. 65 cents.
Cook, Prof. A. S. Phonological Investigation of Old English: Fifty Problems. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Coolidge, Susan. Clover. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Cowper, F. The Captain of the Wight: A Romance of Carisbrooke Castle in 1488. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1.50.
Darmesteter, J. Lettres sur l'Inde. A la Frontière Afghane. Paris: Alphonse Lemerre.
De Puy, E. Cora. Temperance Work of the World. Chicago: Women's Temperance Publication Association.
De Trobriand, R. Four Years with the Army of the Potomac. Translated by George K. Dauchy. Boston: Ticknor & Co.
Douglas, J. Strange Threads. John B. Alden. 50 cents.
Dumas, A. The Three Musketeers. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $3.
Earle, J. A Hand-Book to the Land Charters and Other Saxonic Documents. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Field, Margaret. The Secret of Fontaine-la-Croix. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Fitzgerald, E. Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Foote, Mary Hallock. John Bodewin's Testimony. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 50 cents.
Gasparin, Mme. de. Under French Skies; or, Sunny Fields and Shady Woods. The Baker & Taylor Co. $1.50.
Glauque, F. A Manual for Notaries Public, General Conveyancers, Commissioners, Justices, Mayors, etc. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.
Glzycki, Prof. G. Moralphilosophie gemeinverständlich dargestellt. Leipzig: W. Friedrich.
Goode, G. B. The Fisheries and Fishery Industries of the United States. Section II. A Geographical Review of the Fisheries Industries and Fishing Communities for the Year 1880. Washington.
Groff, W. N. Etude sur le Papyrus d'Orbiney. Paris: E. Leroux.
Hart, V. C. Western China: A Journey to the Great Buddhist Centre of Mount Omei. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $2.
Henty, G. A. The Cat of Bubastes: A Tale of Ancient Egypt. Scribner & Welford.
Howe, E. W. A Man Story. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
Hume, D. A Treatise on Human Nature. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Ingram, J. H. Elizabeth Barrett Browning. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Keats, J. Lamia. Illustrative Designs by W. H. Low. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Knox, T. W. The Boy Travellers in Australia. Harper & Bros.
Lamb, C. Essays of Elia. Edited by Augustine Birrell. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $3.50.
Lane-Pool, S. The Life of the Right Hon. Stratford Canning. From his Memoirs and Private and Official Papers. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $12.
Lathrop, G. P. Gettysburg: A Battle Ode. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Libbey, Laura Jean. The Heiress of Cameron Hall. George Munro. 25 cents.
Longfellow's Remembrance Book. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Macmillan, H. Roman Mosaics; or, Studies in Rome and its Neighborhood. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
McCulloch, H. Men and Measures of Half a Century: Sketches and Comments. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Mendelssohn, F. Letters to Ignaz and Charlotte Moscheles. Translated and edited by Felix Moscheles. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $3.
Menkin, Adah Isaacs. Infelicia. Illustrated. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Moore, G. Confessions of a Young Man. Brentano.
Norris, W. E. The Rogue. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Orcutt, H. Among the Theologies. Boston: W. B. Clarke & Co. 75 cents.
Page, T. N. Two Little Confederates. Illustrated. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Pauli, R. Oliver Cromwell. Translated from the German. Scribner & Welford.
Poole—Fletcher. Poole's Index to Periodical Literature. The First Supplement, from January 1, 1882, to January 1, 1887. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $8.
Porter, Rose. The Story of Mary the Mother. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $3.
Publisher's Trade List Annual. 1888. Office of the *Publisher's Weekly*.
Randolph, H. F. Fifty Years of English Song. Selections from the Poets of the Reign of Victoria. 4 vols. A. D. F. Randolph & Co.
Ronayne, M. God Knowable and Known. Benziger Bros. $1.25.
Shapcott, R. The Autobiography of Mark Rutherford, and Mark Rutherford's Deliverance. Scribner & Welford.
Sidney, Margaret. Old Concord: Her Highways and Byways. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $3.
Starr, Dr. L. Hygiene of the Nursery. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co. $1.50.
Stephen, L. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XVI. Drant—Edridge. Macmillan & Co. $3.75.
Stern, S. A. Jottings of Travel in China and Japan. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Stevenson, R. L. Edinburgh: Picturesque Notes. New ed. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Stoddard, Elizabeth. Temple House. Revised ed. Cassell & Co. $1.
Tenth Census of the United States, 1880. Vol. XVII. Water Power. Part II. Vol. XIX. Social Statistics of Cities. Washington.
Vandegrift, Margaret. The Dead Doll, and Other Verses. Illustrated. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
Veley, Margaret. A Marriage of Shadows, and Other Poems. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Venables, Rev. E. Life of John Bunyan. London: Walter Scott; New York: T. Whittaker.
Verney, Lady. How the Peasant Owner Lives in Parts of France, Germany, Italy, Russia. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Waite, A. E. Elfin Music: an Anthology of English Fairy Poetry. London: Walter Scott; New York: T. Whittaker. 40 cents.
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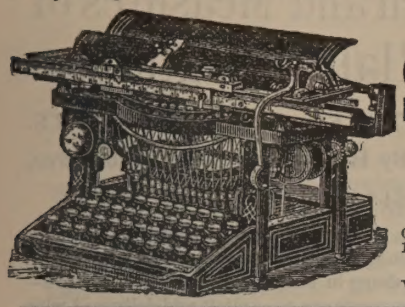

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Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1887.....		1,417,600 13
Total Marine Premiums.....		$5,060,569 22
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1887, to 31st December, 1887.....		$3,672,331 21
Losses paid during the same period.....	$1,599,468 25	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses.....	$788,846 38	
The Company has the following Assets, viz.:		
United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks....		$8,622,565 00
Loans, secured by Stocks and otherwise..		1,559,100 00
Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at.....		474,439 88
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable....		1,362,986 07
Cash in Bank.....		218,192 40
Amount.....		$12,237,283 35

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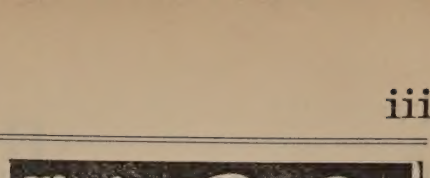

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 1, 1888.

The Week.

EARLY in the month of September, when the quotations from the London *Times* and *Spectator* and *Iron Era* began to look rather brassy, somebody in California conceived the idea of getting a letter out of Lord Sackville, the British Minister at Washington, that might be used for campaign purposes. He wrote professing to be a naturalized British-American, named Murchison, who asked for advice how to cast his vote at the coming election. He received a reply, dated September 13, which he held till the 22d of October, and then, though it was marked "Private," gave to the newspapers. Looked at in its true light, the letter is a well-meant although mistaken endeavor to satisfy an inquiring mind, under the seal of private correspondence. But it turns out that there is no such person as "Murchison," and that the writer was probably the local reporter of a California newspaper, who acted as decoy for the Republican managers. In other words, the letter which is now being used as the principal Republican campaign document, is the product of a petty fraud, of which intelligent and respectable Republicans in the earlier days of the party would no more have thought of availing themselves than of sharing in the profits of a confidence man. To this complexion it has come at last!

Next to the wonder which Lord Sackville's Murchison letter occasioned, must be placed the astonishment that Lord Salisbury should have failed to act upon the hint conveyed to him by Mr. Bayard, that the British Minister was no longer *persona grata* at Washington, and that his presence in a diplomatic capacity was henceforth objectionable. Probably Lord Salisbury had conveyed some kind of hint to Lord Sackville, expecting the latter to relieve him from the embarrassment of a formal recall. If so, we may attribute the tenacity with which Lord Sackville clung to his post to the same mental obtuseness that prompted him to write the Murchison letter. Between the British Minister and his chief, the original scandal has grown to considerably larger proportions, and now becomes a somewhat harrowing incident, akin to that which disturbed the earlier days of President Cleveland's Administration, when two European Governments successively refused to receive a particular person as the American Minister at their respective courts.

The dismissal of Lord Sackville is simply one of the train of consequences of the fisheries dispute—a dispute which would never have given the least trouble or uneasiness if there had been no Irish vote at stake. Both parties have been to blame for the use they have made of it; but the Republican party has been most to blame, because it took the lead in demagogy, and fairly pushed and goaded the Democrats into the same muddy pathway. By rejecting a fair and honorable treaty, by declaring against any treaty or any negotiations for one, by calling aloud for retaliation under an act which avoided all responsibility on the part of Congress for the unhappy consequences that might follow, by deriding the President from day to day, and charging him with want of courage and want of patriotism, they sought to win the votes of a class to whom American citizenship is secondary to their Irish origin, and whose patriotism looks only to means for spiting England. In order to test their sincerity, the President sent in his retaliation message, and then they became straightway dumb until the Sackville letter appeared. What they have done and said since is too fresh in the public mind to need recital.

A new Republican campaign document (not a forgery, but almost as bad) has been brought to our notice. It is dated Philadelphia, October 27, and is signed William W. Justice, Chairman. It is entitled "A Word to Farmers," and it sets forth the advantages to farmers of the tariff on grain, and says that if the Mills bill becomes a law, "grain will undoubtedly be placed on the free list also." Then it states that "with grain on the free list we would find our markets flooded with Russian and Indian wheat whenever the price here was higher than in Europe." The implication of this is that the price of wheat being higher here than in Europe is something of frequent occurrence, and likely to happen at any time. What are the facts? Simply these: that our annual exports of wheat rose steadily from $643,745 plus $7,098,570 of flour in 1850, to $190,546,305 plus $35,333,197 of flour in 1880, and were last year $90,716,481 in addition to $51,950,082 of flour. During this period of thirty-eight years there has been a progressive gain in the exports of wheat and flour, with variations depending upon the state of the harvest in this and other countries. What likelihood is there that the time will ever come when we shall be importing wheat from Russia and India, so that the farmer can have his innings at the game of grab, at which he has been cheated ever since protective tariffs began in this country?

A notable feature of the close of the canvass is the disposition of the Republicans to drop the tariff issue. Invitations from Democrats for joint debates upon this question are declined, as in the case of the Brooklyn Congressional District, where Mr. Coombs, the tariff-reform candidate, is anxious to appear before the people in company with his high-tariff opponent. A member of the New Hampshire Democratic State Central Committee reports that the Republicans in that commonwealth are dropping the tariff issue, and taking to personal abuse of the President and the waving of the bloody shirt. In Indiana the editor of the leading Republican paper, the Indianapolis *Journal*, is on the stump, devoting all his speeches to the bloody shirt. In Illinois, Gov. Oglesby is delivering speeches of precisely the same order. All this means that the "tariff scare" has not worked, and in their rage the Republicans are falling back on the old "rebel scare," which ceased to frighten anybody years ago.

The notion that the high-tariff men have no theory, is one of the strangest which have made their appearance in the canvass. It seems to have especially taken hold of Gen. Harrison, and to have originated in his mind that very absurd alliteration, "maxims and markets." The Protectionists have, like all human beings who are engaged in any policy or course of conduct, a very distinct theory. A theory is simply the belief that if one does certain things, certain other things will result. Every man acts on a theory from the moment he leaves his bed in the morning. He dresses, breakfasts, goes to business, and does his day's work on four distinct theories. What our simple-minded friend Gen. Harrison means when he calls the tariff reformers theorists, or "men of maxims," and the protectionists, practical men, or "men of markets," is simply that the "men of markets" make money out of their theory, while "the men of maxims" make none. He thinks the reformer's theory or maxim ought not to receive attention, because he does not add to his yearly income by it. What makes this notion very funny is, that it has been used in defence of every abuse the world has seen. The barons on the Rhine opposed the freedom of the river on the ground that the advocates of it had no practical knowledge of the pleasures and advantages of trussing travellers, and merely theorized about free rivers in their studies in Cologne and Antwerp. The proposal to put down blackmailing by the Highland clans on the Scottish border was resisted on the same ground—that the payment of blackmail gave security to the farmers who paid it, and an assured income to the Cateran chiefs, who were all practical men, familiar with affairs of this nature, while the enemies of blackmail were Glasgow and Edinburgh professors, who dreamed dreams and spun theories, and compounded maxims in their libraries. Not one of them had ever been out on a foray, or had ever driven a captured herd, or knew a single trail or ford along the border.

John Wanamaker, the great shopkeeper of Philadelphia, is one of the electors-at-large for the State of Pennsylvania on the Harrison ticket, and is one of the most zealous workers for the Republican party in the country. He is especially concerned for the interests of the American workingman, whom he burns to protect from the competi-

tion of the "pauper labor" of Europe. The amusing discovery has just been made that Mr. Wanamaker employs the "pauper labor" of Europe himself, having a factory for the manufacture of ladies' and children's apparel, jersey jackets, etc., at No. 15 Kurstrasse, Berlin. There is nothing strange about this discovery, however. Mr. Wanamaker has repeatedly urged the people of Philadelphia to buy goods made abroad in a free-trade country by "pauper labor," in preference to goods made by protected labor in this country, on the openly avowed ground that the former were the cheaper. The Philadelphia *Press* of June 10, 1886, contained a prominent advertisement by Mr. Wanamaker, of which the following extract is a fair sample:

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American collars and cuffs are made in Troy. . . . The skill of the country is gathered there. That skill controls the country.
There's a keener skill abroad, or better organization, or better facilities. Better collars and cuffs for the money.
We bring these better collars and cuffs and put them right by the side of the best American. Which will you buy?
The question is answered. You are thinking of money. The money is yours. Is it wholesome to bolster Troy at a cost of a third of your money? Is it worth your while? Will you do it? We are not such ninnies as to seriously ask you.
That's the way you reason as buyers. That's the way we reason as merchants.

Mr. Wanamaker now joins Senator Hawley upon the Chinese wall platform. He says that he buys many lines of goods abroad because he can buy them cheaper there; but he would much rather have all foreign goods shut out, so that he could buy everything in this country at higher prices. Undoubtedly, too, his customers would infinitely prefer to have him buy everything at higher prices, because then they could pay higher prices when they went to his shop. The truth is, that what this country really needs to make it prosperous is a general advance of prices. If everybody only had to pay a good deal more every time he bought anything, poverty would be abolished, and economy would no longer need to be practised by anybody. Mr. Wanamaker, as Republican candidate for elector-at-large in Pennsylvania, is ready to do his share towards bringing about the millennium. "The present protection," he says, "is evidently not enough," and for his part he wants to raise duties, "because I want to shut out foreign goods."

The Knights of Labor at Pittsburgh have been investigating the tariff-wages question for themselves, with reference particularly to the wages paid at the Carnegie Steel Rail Works at Braddock, Pa., and at the iron and steel works at Chicago. They find and report that a fair comparison is as follows: At Braddock—blast-furnace department, turn twelve hours, Keeper, $2.23; first helper, $1.70; second helper, $1.60. At Chicago—Keeper, $3.25; first helper, $2.60; second helper, $2.45. This difference is much less than that reported by Mr. John Jarrett in his testimony before the Senate Committee on Labor as existing between the wages of the Bethlehem Iron Works and those of the Chicago Mills. But, since the tariff is the same for Chicago that it is for Braddock and for Bethlehem, the question becomes important, What influence does the tariff exercise on wages, anyway? If a man receives $3.25 for a given amount of work at Chicago, and only $2.23 for the same amount of work of the same kind at Braddock, all under the same blessed tariff, what are we to conclude that the tariff does for the workingman? Do not all the tables of wages paraded by the high-tariff newspapers and orators, whether true or false, become utterly delusive and nonsensical in view of these great differences in our own country?

A correspondent asks us to examine Mr. Blaine's speech at Rochester, and tell our readers whether his quotations from Edward Atkinson, regarding the great advance in the wages of American workingmen "under the protective tariff," are true. We reply that we do not know where Mr. Blaine got his quotations, as he does not refer to any particular work of Mr. Atkinson's; but we do know that Mr. Atkinson utterly repudiates and condemns the idea that the tariff has any effect to increase wages. On the contrary, he holds the very opposite opinion, having been an advocate of tariff reduction for a quarter of a century. According to Mr. Blaine's Rochester speech, the wages of common laborers have increased 66 per cent. "under the protective tariff." Well, if that is true, it does not prove much, for some of the "pay envelopes" that have turned up since that kind of thumb-screw was applied to workingmen by their protected employers, have shown weekly wages as low as three dollars per week, or *fifty cents per day*. One such was recorded by the Plattsburg *Republican* a few days ago. Many have been produced which show a weekly wage of only *five dollars* for skilled workmen. To receive such a wage in a pay envelope is doubly insulting. It is an insult to receive the pay envelope at all, but it is a more bitter insult to receive five dollars for a week's work, and then to be told that this is high wages compared with the pauper labor of Europe. A better authority for Mr. Blaine, and one that can be more easily identified, is his own report on the cotton-goods trade of the world, in which he said:

"Undoubtedly the inequalities in the wages of English and American operatives *are more than equalized by the greater efficiency of the latter and their longer hours of labor.* If this should prove to be a fact in practice, as it seems to be proved from official statistics, it would be a very important element in the establishment of our ability to compete with England for our share of the cotton-goods trade of the world."

Mr. Blaine's statements of fact have been so discredited during the present campaign that it seems quite superfluous to say anything more about them. But there is one more item in relation to his Western harangues on Government deposits in national banks that ought to be mentioned. When we pointed out that Secretary Sherman had deposited in national banks much larger sums than Secretary Fairchild had placed there, it was replied that this was done at a time when the refunding of the national debt was going on, and that Secretary Sherman did not put the money in the banks, but merely left it there, and that there was a great difference between the two things. The difference between the two things was merely the difference between drawing a check on the banks and not drawing it. But how was it in 1873, when there was no refunding of the debt in progress? By reference to the report of the Treasurer of the United States for 1887, page 32, a tabulated statement may be found of the balance of Government deposits in national-bank depositories at the close of each fiscal year since the depository law was passed. The balance thus on deposit in 1873 was $62,185,153.64. This is considerably larger than the sum for which Mr. Blaine thinks that Mr. Fairchild is impeachable, and that any Republican Secretary would have been impeached if the Democrats had been in power. The Secretary of the Treasury was then a Republican, as all Secretaries were from 1864 to 1885. During this period there never was a time when the balance of Government deposits in national banks was less than $6,900,000; and for this or any other sum there was not, according to Mr. Blaine, "a shadow of substantial authority in law."

"The hope of the Republican party is in the young men," said Mr. Blaine in his speech at Newark on Saturday night. The declaration is no nearer the truth than Mr. Blaine usually gets, the correct statement of the case being that the hope of the Republican party *used to be* in the young men. The nomination of the party for the Presidency in 1884 changed all that. Many hundreds of young men came of the voting age in Newark between 1880 and 1884, but Newark's Republican vote for President in 1884 was only 526 larger than in 1880, while the Democratic vote was 1,800 larger than four years before. Many thousands of young men were first voters for President in the State of New Jersey in 1884, but the Republican candidate for President had only 2,811 more votes than Garfield in 1880, while Cleveland received 5,213 more than Hancock. The contrast was still more marked in Connecticut. That State had given the Republican candidate for President in 1880 a total of 67,071 votes and a plurality of 2,656, while in 1884, despite the accession to the electorate of thousands of young men, the Republican candidate for President polled only 65,923 votes, and Cleveland had a plurality of 1,276. There were many thousands of new voters in Massachusetts four years ago, but while the total poll was 20,869 greater than in 1880, the Republican candidate for President received only 146,724 votes, against 165,205 for Garfield in the previous election, and a plurality of only 24,372, against 53,245 for Garfield. Mr. Blaine is the last man in the country who

ought to call attention to the influence of the young men voters in view of such a record.

Mr. Andrew Carnegie's naturalization paper has been published at Pittsburgh. It is dated May 28, 1885. So it appears that Mr. Blaine's coaching friend, the author of 'Triumphant Democracy,' was a British subject, by his own choice, until three years ago. The statement is thrown in for what it is worth that Mr. Carnegie's father was a naturalized citizen, although his papers cannot be found, the implication being that Mr. Carnegie may have supposed himself to be an American citizen without naturalization. If this was his supposition, he must have taken steps to have himself naturalized as a British subject when he was a candidate for Parliament a few years ago. We believe that it was "G. W. S." of the *Tribune* who so cruelly derided Mr. Carnegie's aspirations. What Tory Squire could abide the thought of Carnegie making steel rails in Pennsylvania and sitting in the House of Commons for a Scotch borough at the same time? We suspect that the whole truth has not yet been told about the swapping of citizenship by Mr. Blaine's host in the coaching party.

The concern which the woollen manufacturers exhibit for the wool-growers in case raw wool should be admitted free of duty deserves a moment's attention, even in the last week of the campaign. We have given some anxious thought to the matter, and have closely examined the statistics of imports and duties, in order to see what can be done to alleviate the distress of the manufacturers aforesaid. The imports of wool amounted last year to 114,038,030 pounds, of the value of $16,351,369, and the duties collected thereon were $5,899,816. The average rate of duties on all wools, including those used for making carpets, was 36.08 per cent. Now, in case wool is put on the free list, what is to prevent the manufacturers from giving to the wool growers the $5,899,816 which they now pay to the Collectors of Customs? Nothing in the world. Putting wool on the free list does not prevent them from contributing whatever sums they choose to the encouragement of wool-growing in this country. Let them meet the wool-growers in a convention, and agree to pay to the latter ten cents a pound on all the low-grade clothing wool they import, and 12 cents on all the high-grade "in the grease," and double and treble rates for washed and scoured, and the rates for combing and carpet wools as now provided by law. The woollen manufacturers will then be no worse off than they are now, while they can wipe away all tears so far as the wool-growers are concerned.

The Democratic paper in Des Moines reprints from the Republican organ of November 3, 1884, a letter by Samuel Merrill, ex-Governor of Iowa, urging every business man in Iowa to vote for Blaine, on the ground that they could not afford to risk a change in the administration of national affairs, and going on in this style:

"No one can comprehend the disaster that will follow the turning over of this Administration to hands untried and uncertain. Confidence, already shaken by the uncertainty of the present, will be greatly increased, and few men will feel like investing in any enterprise of importance for years to come. No man in Iowa will venture to buy property and build important structures so long as dark uncertainty hangs over us. Real estate will find few sales. Most people will want to sell and few buyers. The result of this 'do-nothing' policy will be disastrous. . . . I confidently believe that, in the event of a change, real estate will depreciate more than 20 per cent within the next year. Most wealthy men will pull for the shore and close up business. They will only do what they feel themselves obliged to do in order to save what they possess. This is the tendency of the human mind, and hundreds of thousands will do it all over the country. None but a lunatic would risk his property in any new enterprise like manufacture so long as the uncertainty incident to a change of Administration should be upon us."

The Administration was turned over to "hands untried and uncertain," but, so far from ex-Gov. Merrill's having "closed up business," his bank is still doing business at the old stand, and lots of it, and its shares are worth $275 per $100 in the open market. In addition to this, it is currently reported that the Governor himself has made a cool million in judicious investments in land outside of his regular business.

Col. Elliott F. Shepard has petitioned the newsdealers to allow him a quarter of a cent more for his newspaper than they have been paying heretofore. In support of the petition he says:

"The *cost* of the paper to us, by weight, with the printers' ink put on it by the press, is more than 1 cent, and you do not believe it is right or necessary that we should *sell the paper at a loss*, for you yourselves would not do business in that way."

The Colonel, when he speaks of weight, must mean intellectual weight, because if he meant weight avoirdupois, it would be an entire mistake to say that it costs one cent—a mistake due, of course, to inexperience in the newspaper business. A newsdealer, who sends us a copy of the petition, wants to know whether the various proprietors of the *Mail and Express*, during the past six or eight years, have been "selling the paper at a loss," as the petition affirms. We think it is very likely, but not because the cost of the white paper and ink amounted to one cent per copy. The outlay for intellect has been too great, and the Colonel ought to state this frankly to the newsdealers. The discriminating talent shown in the selection of a daily text from the Scriptures is alone a heavy burden. To estimate this as low as a quarter of a cent per copy is both shameful and ruinous. If the Colonel would accept our advice, he would boldly put up the price of his paper to three cents. Then he might afford to publish a whole chapter of the Bible every day.

Canon Taylor again takes up the missionary cudgels in the last *Fortnightly*. He must know that he is inviting even more contradiction and remonstrance than his Wolverhampton address of last year met with, yet he squarely flings down the gauntlet in his title, "The Great Missionary Failure." The first part of his article is statistical. He figures out various exhibits, more or less striking, as to the rate of advance of Christian missions, showing that it would take 183 years for all the societies to convert as many as are born in one year among the non-Christian populations of Asia and Africa. But all this is nothing new, and amounts only to saying, what advocates of missions perfectly well know, and in fact base strong appeals upon, namely, that the odds are tremendously against the missionary, humanly speaking. But the champions of missions rather boast than otherwise of their not taking the ordinary human view of the situation, and the most overwhelming figures will be wasted on them. What the Canon has to say about missionary methods, however, is worthy of serious attention from all concerned. For him to appeal, as he does, from the scorn of the "well-paid secretaries at home" to the testimony of missionaries in the field is highly suggestive—for the boldness of it, if nothing else. Briefly, he urges the folly of sending out so much poor material to swell incompetent and rival missionary forces, and objects radically to the whole scheme of going among the heathen as a superior race. In any view of the case, it is significant and gratifying that these objections to missionary methods should be made, if they needs must be made, by a clergyman and a dignitary of the Church—himself, moreover, an avowed friend of missions if only rightly conducted.

The last message sent by the President of Chili to the Congress of that country reveals the continuance of national prosperity in a high degree. The Government's revenues amounted in 1887 to nearly $46,000,000, while the disbursements were but slightly over $37,000,000. For 1889, however, the estimates brought in call for an outlay of $53,000,000, the increase being due to the great number of projected internal improvements. For the extension of the State railroads alone, $7,000,000 are asked. In addition, large sums are to be spent in building prisons and school-houses, buying ships of war, and improving the national harbors. The President had already been authorized to negotiate a loan of $15,000,000 to meet these contemplated expenses; but the large surplus of the past year can now be devoted to that purpose, and no more money is to be borrowed than will be needed to pay for railroad material purchased abroad. The total foreign commerce of Chili, in 1887, amounted to $108,180,820, being an increase over that of 1886 of nearly $13,000,000. The Government is paying great attention to the question of education. In 1886 there were 862 national schools, with an enrolled membership of 78,800 scholars and an average attendance of 47,780; in 1887 the corresponding figures had become 950, 81,362, and 55,831. New school-buildings are being rapidly provided; 42 are now under way, with a capacity for 17,000 scholars, and 60 more are planned to accommodate 23,000.

THE REAL SHAME OF IT.

It is quite true, as the London *Daily News* remarks, that there is not one assertion in Lord Sackville's letter of which "an honest man need feel ashamed." He has said nothing in it which is not true, and which is not creditable to our Government. Thus, it is true that "any political party which openly favored the mother country at the present moment would lose popularity," and it is also true "that the party in power is fully aware of this fact." It is also true that the party in power is "still desirous of maintaining friendly relations with Great Britain, and is still desirous of settling all questions with Canada." If these things were not true, it would show that the party in power was not fit to direct the policy of a great civilized and Christian people; and if Lord Sackville had denied them, he would have slandered both the party in power and the best portion of the American people.

But, as the French say, every truth is not good to tell. There are truths which are unseasonable, which are not fit to be told to any person, by any person, at all times; and the foregoing truths are not fit to be told by a foreign Minister, during a canvass, to a naturalized citizen, with the view of influencing his vote. Consequently, Lord Sackville's letter was a sad blunder, but it is one of those blunders which really affect nobody but the person guilty of them. It is a serious matter for Lord Sackville. It discredits him, in the eyes of his own Government and in the eyes of his professional brethren, on the point of tact and shrewdness, about which diplomats are most sensitive, and it discredits him the more because he is not new to the country. He has been through more than one Presidential canvass, and must be more or less familiar with the tricks resorted to at such times to influence votes. To write such a letter to an unknown person, therefore, argues unfitness for his place. He has, in other words, committed a small but inexcusable and fatal professional blunder—such as all men have committed some time in their lives, and secretly blush over when they recall them—which is likely to ruin his diplomatic career.

What makes us blush just now, however, is not Lord Sackville's downfall, but the fact that his downfall should — judging from the Republican newspapers — seem to be a fact of such tremendous moment for the American people. The childishness of some of our newspapers has long furnished material for the sneers of foreign critics, but journalists are notoriously sensitive and emotional. What is humiliating in the present situation is that a great party, numbering almost half the American voters, considers, or pretends to consider, Lord Sackville's blunder one of the great facts of American history, and is bringing it to the knowledge of the world as such. Large vans are running around, laden with copies of his letter; it is printed in leaded type, and kept standing, in some papers, alongside of drawings of the British crown. It is receiving all the honor which could be given to a despatch announcing a great victory by land or sea, or the outbreak of a great foreign war, or a great scientific discovery, or the farewell address of a great statesman; and yet there is absolutely nothing in it, except that an elderly diplomatist of the second rank, appointed long ago on account of his family connections, and noted in several countries for his dulness, has offended his own Government, and that to which he is accredited, by a piece of small stupidity.

We wish we could stop here with saying that one of our great parties was acting as if it were made up of schoolboys or half-drunken laborers on pay-day. We wish we could take Dr. Storrs, or Dr. Armitage, or any of the other Republican divines or moralists into a private room, and say, "Your party, reverend sirs, is behaving in a very silly, childish way about this Sackville letter. You see, of course, yourselves, that it has no national or international importance whatever, and affects nobody but Lord Sackville himself; and you are doubtless ashamed to see so much fuss made about it, because it gives the rest of the civilized world the impression that our political contests are managed by children and their nurses, and that American adults go into retirement between the nomination and the election day." But we cannot stop here. We should have to go on, and add:

"It is not, however, the childishness of this Sackville fuss, reverend sirs, which troubles us most. It is the shameful fact that the letter was obtained from Lord Sackville by a petty fraud of the bunco kind—that is, by false pretences such as are used by the species of impostor known as begging-letter writers. It is a fraud, which, had it induced Lord Sackville to send the writer money, would have exposed the latter, if caught, to a term in the penitentiary, and which, were our law what it ought to be, and what you would doubtless wish to see it, would also send to the penitentiary a man resorting to it in order to influence a great national election. You preach vigorously against this sort of sin in your pulpits every day. You give the most solemn sanctions of theology to the lawyer's dictum that 'fraud vitiates everything.' You would not knowingly, or at all events willingly, allow a man to remain in your church who, you knew, profitted by cheating, and rejoiced over it openly and unblushingly because it gave him either dignity or emolument. You would scornfully reject the plea that the end justified the means, and would never admit that, although it was wrong for one man to lie and forge, it was not wrong for another man to make money out of the lie or the forgery, or get a wife by it. Why, then, are you silent now, in the presence of this miserable effort to convert the crime of a petty scoundrel into a huge national disgrace, to fill the chair of the American Chief Magistrate by the aid of the kind of trick by which 'bunco steerers' empty the pockets of simple-minded farmers? Do not put the question smiling by, or tell us any stories about 'the magnificent history' of the party. Your concern is, not what the party once was, but the things it is now doing. Moralists have to deal with living men and not with dead ones."

A VERY SERIOUS QUESTION.

We should like to ask intelligent members of the Republican party who are diligent readers of their own party newspapers and campaign documents, a simple question, which we put in good faith and all seriousness. It is this: Supposing that on the first of last July, through an outbreak of war, or some failure in steam or other communication, the reception of books and newspapers from England had ceased, and you were left in ignorance of what Englishmen were saying and thinking, or had been thinking or saying for some time past, about American affairs, how would you decide which way to vote at the coming election?

Again: Supposing you had not made up your mind how you would vote as late as Sunday week, and Lord Sackville's letter, which the *Tribune* is printing in leaded type as a guide to voters, had not seen the light, how would you get along?

As matters now stand, we think it is the duty of every intelligent American to ask himself these questions, and to formulate some sort of answer to them in his own mind. Thus far the canvass on the Republican side has consisted almost wholly of English news—news of what Englishmen are saying or have said about American politics, and news of what wages Englishmen are paying to their workmen. We see very clearly how this operates on the more ignorant Irish. They are expected to express through their vote simply their hatred of everything English, or, in other words, to do everything which they can discover would be disagreeable to Englishmen. Consequently, English news is all they need in the way of political guidance. When they learn what the London *Times* says, and Lord Salisbury says, and the London *Spectator* says, it is all they need to enable them to take action with regard to American affairs in every department. For instance, if the London *Times* said the Government ought to own the telegraph lines, they would know that American telegraph lines ought to remain in private hands; or if the *Spectator* said eggs ought to be taxed, they would know that in America eggs ought to come in duty free. If Lord Sackville said the weather reports in this country were unusually good, they would know that the American Signal Service ought to be abolished.

It must be admitted, therefore, that the Republican managers have, in the present canvass, made what may be considered sufficient provision for the Irish; but what about the Americans, who have no special quarrel with England, and are too busy with their own affairs to occupy themselves with spiting her? The position of this class of Republicans, and in fact of all who confine their reading to Republican newspapers and documents, is to-day most precarious. Our Protectionist friends talk a good deal of the plight we

should be in, "in case of war," if we were dependent on foreign manufacturers for the supply of our leading commodities; but that situation, deplorable as it would be, as they paint it, is nothing to that in which Americans find themselves to-day, in time of profound peace. It would be bad enough, doubtless, to be dependent wholly on England for our cloth, or our salt, or our arms, or our tools during hostilities, but nearly one-half the American people are to-day dependent on Englishmen for their political ideas, and, if communication with England had been cut off four months ago, would be unable to vote intelligently at the principal American election. This sounds incredible, but it is the literal and exact truth, and a most portentous one as regards the future of our institutions. It constitutes a danger which no commentator on our Government has ever foreseen or pointed out. The wildest alarmist of the last fifty years seems not to have dreamed of it, as among the possibilities of the future, that a great American party would openly declare its inability to construct a system of taxation without the guidance of foreign newspapers, or that any considerable body of native voters would be delivered at a great election from doubt and embarrassment by a rather vapid private letter from a foreign Minister. No American who loves his country, or cares for her future, can, in fact, ask himself to-day without a shudder, "Where should we be if the London *Times* had no articles on American affairs, or if Lord Sackville wrote no letters to strangers?"

We pointed out some weeks ago that the Republican canvass was producing little or nothing but these foreign articles, real or forged; but we supposed at that time that the managers probably had some American ideas about taxation and similar topics in reserve, and would begin to spread them abroad as the canvass approached its close. In this we have been utterly disappointed. As the weeks go by, the reliance on English guidance appears to be greater and greater. Should this very alarming dependence on foreigners for political ideas not be checked, there is, of course, no good reason why we should not see English politicians employed openly to stump the country four years from now, and elect an American President by the simple process of telling the voters that they admire his opponent and desire his success, and regulate our taxation by mentioning the imposts which Englishmen especially dislike.

Of course, our Government might continue to exist under such a system, but it would exist as our shame and not as our glory, and would certainly not exist long in its present form. In case of war with England, it might be necessary to omit an election, and make the President hold over until communication was resumed, which in our opinion would give the Constitution a fatal blow. If the practice of holding over until the London *Times* was heard from were once begun, the silence of the *Times* would undoubtedly be often procured, by purchase or otherwise, towards the expiration of the constitutional term, and the Presidential office be gradually converted into the football and laughing-stock of foreign editorial writers.

CAMPAIGN "CULTURE."

The base uses to which party managers are capable of putting "culture," when they get a secure hold of it, is well illustrated by Mr. Cabot Lodge's article in the volume issued for campaign purposes under the title, 'The Republican Party—Its History and Policies.' The article on the Civil Service, which professes to be a history of civil-service reform, is contributed by Mr. Lodge, and he certainly had already displayed the right kind of fitness for the work, by going into Rhode Island to stump the State for a ticket framed by and intended to benefit the defaulting Republican Postmaster Boss Brayton, who stole $30,000 of Government money and was never prosecuted for it. Mr. Lodge displayed very amusing fervor on his behalf, and thus marked himself out clearly for other jobs of the same kind.

This civil-service article is one of them. We cannot go over all its numerous perversions and evasions, nor are we concerned to defend President Cleveland against all its charges; we wish to notice simply its attack on him because of the number of his removals in places not covered by the law. A gentleman and scholar, as distinguished from a party hack, ought, in common fairness, in laying these removals before the public as evidences of the President's depravity, to have said frankly that most of them were made on the expiration of the officers' terms, and that a considerable number, nearly one-quarter, of the Republicans still remained in office, in the fourth year of a Democratic Administration—a thing unknown since Jackson's day. He ought also to have added that arbitrary removals in these places were never more vigorously carried on, or with more shameless indifference to the opinions of civil-service reformers, than during the four short months of President Garfield's Administration, and notably in the Department presided over by Mr. Blaine. Between March 4 and July 2, 1881, Blaine removed 37 Consuls, out of a total of 180, and these adherents of his own party! An honest gentleman could not write a party pamphlet on the history of civil-service reform without mentioning such facts as these, including the disgraceful use made, at the instigation of the same Blaine, of the Collectorship of New York, within this same period. Such things do not excuse President Cleveland's shortcomings, but they place them before the public in their true light; and this is the only light in which an American of fortune and education or a college graduate ought to consent to place them, to oblige any man or any party.

The same thing may be said of Mr. Lodge's concealment of the fact that President Cleveland's removals were not made among officers appointed for fitness, or appointed without reference to their political opinions from among members of both the great parties. He talks throughout as if the President had found, when elected, the Government service filled with highly trained, carefully selected officers, whose removal in every case, without cause assigned, was presumptive evidence of evil intent; the fact being that the unclassified service had for twenty-five years been filled exclusively with Republicans, appointed solely for services rendered to the party, or to Senators of the party, and retained in office, in a vast number of cases, through "influence," and without reference to competency; and that such things as President Arthur's appointing his own impecunious uncle to a paymastership in the army at the age of sixty, so that in two years he might retire with a pension, were by no means uncommon.

It is also highly disingenuous of Mr. Lodge to conceal the fact that, as late as 1882, assessments on office-holders were vigorously, openly, and defiantly collected by the Republican Congressional Committee, through Mr. Jay Hubbell. Mr. Lodge's assertion, therefore, that "under Republican Administrations political assessments on office-holders were given up, and the civil servants were, in conformity with the spirit of the law, withdrawn from the business of political management," is simply untrue. The New York Custom-house was never more active in the work of political management than in the canvass of 1884. Of course, it would have been the height of electioneering foolishness to put these reserves and qualifications into a campaign document; but for this reason honorable men usually refuse to write campaign documents which require evasion, equivocation, and misrepresentation. They leave them to the poor devils who need the money which such compositions usually bring.

Mr. Cleveland has certainly not fulfilled the expectations of his supporters in 1884 in the matter of civil-service reform. This is admitted by them all, so that the labors of the Republican orators and writers in proving it seem to be in a considerable degree wasted. At the same time we have no right to object to their calling attention to it in a canvass in which Mr. Cleveland is a candidate for reëlection. They have a right to point out that his promises have not been kept, and that many of the old abuses continue to flourish under his Administration. This is legitimate campaign work, but the great use of "gentlemen and scholars" in politics ought to be the doing of campaign work in an honest and loyal way. The party hack may be allowed to say, especially if his bread be dependent on it, that President Cleveland has not only failed to keep his promises, but has aggravated the abuses of the civil service—that he has not only failed to establish tenure during good behavior, but has made more arbitrary and unreasonable removals than any of his predecessors; but the Scholar in Politics ought not to say it. To him the delights of campaign lying, forgery, falsification, exaggeration, or perversion are sternly forbidden. He owes the party no service of this kind. Simple truth should, even in the most exciting canvass, be his highest skill; and if the Republican party be the kind of organization Mr. Lodge says it is, simple truth ought to make it a perpetual object of national love and admiration. Quays may come

and Quays may go, but it should stand for ever.

Another melancholy phenomenon of the same sort as Mr. Cabot Lodge in the present canvass is Mr. Theodore Roosevelt. He, too, is a young man of fortune and a Harvard graduate. Mr. Lodge knew Mr. Blaine to be an unfit person for high public office before 1884, but took the stump for him in that year, as he did subsequently for Brayton, the Rhode Island defaulter. Mr. Roosevelt knew also that Mr. Blaine was unfit, and was disgusted by his nomination, but took the stump for him just the same. He was also a tariff-reformer, if not an out-and-out free-trader, before the present canvass, but is now on the stump, talking childish gabble against tariff reform, like his brother phenomenon, Mr. Thorndike Rice, in the *North American Review*, though we believe that Mr. Rice has not had the opportunities in the matter of education of the other two. What food for sneers at colleges and culture there is for Denis Kearney in all this!

THE PIRACY OF ENGRAVINGS.

The latest appeal to the conscience of the people of the United States in behalf of honest dealing in regard to intellectual property is Thomas Humphry Ward's privately printed 'International Copyright in Works of Art: A Letter to the American People.' The author realizes that his topic is by this time a familiar one to American readers, but he asks a reading upon the ground that he does not intend to discuss the well-worn subject of literary copyright, but to consider the question only as it concerns artistic publications. Nevertheless, a considerable number of his thirty-seven pages deal with the question of protection to literary works, the chief argument being the inevitable rapid growth of a native American literature, which will, in the future, be in demand wherever the English language is spoken. "And if," he says, "your literary class becomes rapidly better and larger, it will be little less than insanity if it does not take measures to protect its interests in the other great literary mart for English writing which exists in the British Islands and throughout the British Empire. International literary copyright, in a word, is a necessity to your swiftly growing literary class."

As regards artistic copyright, Prof. Ward's remonstrance is aimed at the unlicensed reproduction of foreign engravings by the various cheap "process" methods—heliotypes, Albertypes, artotypes, etc. This kind of piracy seems to be going on at an astonishing rate. One catalogue is said to advertise as many as 1,378 engravings, another between 400 and 500, and a third about 400; and as the prices of these various reproductions (which closely approach the original engravings in appearance) range from 50 cents to $1—that is, from 1 per cent. to 5 per cent. of the cost of the originals—it is easy to believe that their sale has been widespread. To the moral argument against this state of things there is no answer; but, as Prof. Ward says, "the truth is, that the matter is not one for abstract discussion; if you hear not Moses and the prophets—that is, if you do not admit the universal application of the ordinary laws of right and wrong—then it is useless to discuss the question with you on any ground of principle. It must be argued on grounds of self-interest."

The considerations which he presents, with much force, are: (1) the need to look forward to the time when our own artists shall require protection against similar wrongdoing upon the part of European art publishers; and (2) the fact that, owing to the spread of these cheap, pirated reproductions, European engraving is actually threatened with extinction. Concerning the future of American art, Prof. Ward indicates flattering possibilities, and he speaks in cordial terms of the rising fame of our artists. "It is not only your painters and your sculptors," he tells us, "who are beginning to excel, but your school of etching has now advanced so far that, with a very little more, its leading men will take a position by the side of the most popular etchers of Europe." He mentions by name American etchers who, among others, have already become known to English buyers, and he sounds a note of warning:

> "What are we to foresee from all this? Surely that as time goes on you will develop for yourselves a school of artists, which, though it will borrow without hesitation whatever aids may come to it from European training, will yet be able to stand alone, and will in course of time delight the world. But if this is so, we on our side have a large public that appreciates fine art, that is eager for new emotions, that turns here and there in search of fresh artistic interests. You may be sure that whatever you in the next generation produce on your side of the ocean, and whatever new forms of beauty your artists and engravers combine to bring into existence, will be readily appropriated over here. Our art publishers will act as some of our literary publishers are acting now—they will take advantage of the absence of any protection for your property guaranteed by international law, and they will use the resources of the modern reproductive processes to sell in the markets of Europe, without consulting you, whatever you have made that is worth reproducing. It is painful, it is humiliating, to have to make such a prophecy; but, after all, human nature is human nature, and men are in the main governed by their interests. . . . If in the days when Europe has the monopoly of production you refuse to allow her artists and engravers the protection of your law, Europe in the days to come will certainly retaliate in kind."

Concerning the more serious danger—the threatened extinction of all high-class engraving—Prof. Ward points out that the rapid development of "processes" has, during the last ten or fifteen years, so far destroyed the American demand for the first-hand work of good engravers that their remuneration has fallen to a "heart-breaking" extent. Whereas, fifteen years ago, a publisher who issued 300 proofs of a new plate knew that he might count upon one-half being taken by New York, Boston, and Philadelphia, now these cities supply the demand with cheap reproductions, for "all but fastidious connoisseurship breaks down before the temptation to purchase for three-fourths of a dollar a *contrefaçon* of a plate that would cost twenty or thirty dollars," and the result has been that there is already so great a decline in the demand for the work of the best engravers and etchers that the "older ones are folding their hands in despair, and many of the younger are beginning to turn their talents into other lines." Prof. Ward's forcible summing up, which is at the same time a severe indictment, we will give in his own words:

> "I do not know whether those Americans who interest themselves in the future of art are satisfied with the prospect thus opened out. It seems to me that the illustration most applicable is the old and hackneyed one of the goose with the golden eggs. You are enjoying your ample provision of works of art; the talent of England and of France is working for your enjoyment, and you are profiting by it in the cheapest possible way; you can, by combining the methods of science with the productions of the artist, provide yourselves, at the cost of 80 cents, with an approximation to the work for which we have to pay twenty or thirty times as much; and you flatter yourselves that you are doing a clever thing, are spoiling the Egyptians, are defeating the monopolists, and are in a hundred other ways making the best of both worlds. I venture to submit that you are entirely in the wrong, and that, to take even the lowest ground, you are pursuing a policy that is so short-sighted as to be entirely unworthy of the smartest people in the world. You are putting obstacles in the way of the development of your own artistic class, and, with the words 'protection of native industry' on your lips, you are dealing a deadly blow against an industry which otherwise would be sure to be rapidly developed in your midst, and in the possession of which your sons and your grandsons would feel a pleasure and a pride. Moreover, and chiefly, you are doing your best to extinguish that industry in the regions of the world where it exists already; you are killing the artists in order that you may enjoy their art."

The question naturally arises, upon a reading of Prof. Ward's timely pamphlet, How would this deplorable state of things be affected by the passage of the International Copyright Bill now before Congress? A careful examination of the present copyright laws, as they would be amended by the above bill, leads to the conclusion that the proprietors of foreign engravings could secure themselves against piracy by American publishers by carefully complying with the following stipulations: (1.) Deliver, *before publication*, a printed copy of the title of each engraving at the office of the the Librarian of Congress; or deposit same in the mail *within the United States* addressed to the Librarian of Congress at Washington. (2.) Pay to the same officer a fee of one dollar for recording each title. (If a certificate or copy of the record is desired, fifty cents additional would have to be paid, but the possession of such certificate is not essential to the copyright). (3.) *Deliver, not later than the day of publication*, at the office of the Librarian of Congress, or deposit in the mail within the United States, addressed to the Librarian of Congress, as above, *two* copies of each engraving. (4.) Print upon every copy of each engraving entered for copyright, or upon some visible portion of the substance on which it is mounted, the words "Copyright, 18—(year), by—(name of proprietor)." From the time the title is recorded as above, during the term of the copyright (42 years), every person who has not first obtained the written consent of the proprietor, signed in the presence of two or more witnesses, is forbidden by law to "engrave, etch, work, copy, print, publish, or import, either in whole or in part, or by varying the main design with intent to evade the law, or, knowing the same to be so printed, pub-

lished, or imported, to sell or expose to sale any copy" of such engraving, upon penalty of the forfeiture to the proprietor of the copyright of all the plates on which the same shall have been copied, and every sheet, either copied or printed, and a fine of one dollar for every such copy found in his possession.

A bill is now pending in the House of Representatives (favorably reported) which increases the penalty to $10 for every fraudulent copy of the engraving. These penalties would, no doubt, also afford complete protection against the abominable practice, becoming so prevalent in this country, of using the very finest designs for advertising purposes or for vulgar decoration—a barbarism against which Professor Ward complains bitterly. But while the Chace bill, if enacted, will so amend the present law as to enable the foreign proprietor of engravings to recover damages in case his works are pirated in this country, it is not calculated to encourage him in seeking an American market for his productions, for it practically prohibits his sending them to a dealer in the United States to be sold. Only persons purchasing "for use and not for sale" (according to the text of the bill) are allowed to import copyright engravings, and even then, only two copies at any one time, and after first having obtained, in each case, the written consent of the proprietor, signed in the presence of two witnesses. Furthermore, all such importations are subject to a tariff duty of 25 per cent. ad valorem.

RAILROAD EXTENSION IN THE EAST.

The contrast between Russia and Turkey in their railroad policy is strongly marked. While Turkey controls fertile districts in which there seems to be a fair prospect of profitable traffic, no effort is made to develop them. Russia, on the contrary, is rapidly reaching out into Central Asia, and is coming dangerously near the Indian frontier of England. Both Russia and Turkey are equally bankrupt; but the former appreciates the importance of railroads enough to find some means of building them, while the latter opposes their construction with other obstacles besides financial ones.

The Trans-Caspian Railroad, which we described a few months ago, is now in successful operation. A little further to the south a line is being constructed into the heart of Persia. Starting at Resht, on the Caspian Sea, it runs to Teheran. Although on Persian territory, it is wholly under Russian influence. Many of the workmen are Russians, most of the others have been engaged in one way or another on the construction of the Trans-Caspian Railroad. The material is brought into the country by way of Russia, and the Government of that country seems to be making every effort to render the completion of the road as easy as possible. No definite arrangements have as yet been made for continuing it further than Teheran, but it is generally assumed that little time will elapse before it is pushed on to Meshed and Herat, in the East, as well as southward to the Persian Gulf.

Nothing can contrast more painfully with this rapid development than the supineness of the Turkish Government. It is scarcely two months since Constantinople itself has been in direct rail communication with the west of Europe, and this communication was in a certain sense brought about by the Bulgarian Government in spite of Turkish opposition. As long ago as 1883 an agreement was made by Austria, Servia, Bulgaria, and Turkey for the opening of through communication in the summer of 1886. Austria did her part promptly, opening the section of line from Buda-Pesth to Belgrade in September, 1884. The Servian line from Belgrade to Nish was opened at about the same time. From this point the system, as agreed upon by the four Powers, branched off in two directions—one line, on which the Servian and Turkish frontiers came into direct contact, running towards Salonica; the other and longer line, towards Constantinople, passing through Bulgaria on the way.

The line to Salonica was open for traffic in the early part of the present year; but it was by no means an easy question to decide who should operate it. The Oriental Railroad Company, with Baron Hirsch at its head, seemed to have the best rights in the case. But, as not infrequently happens, the Turkish Government had quarrelled with the company on a question of payment, and was not disposed to accord it the chance to operate a profitable line of this kind. The whole was finally put provisionally into the hands of a company in which Servian influences were apparently predominant. About midsummer, the direct line to Constantinople via Bulgaria was also finally completed. It was not, however, at once put into operation. Baron Hirsch, according to the agreements, seemed to have the right to operate the Turkish section, but he was denied this right on the Constantinople line for the same reason as on the other. The Turkish Government would have been glad to have it operated by the Servian company; but to this the Bulgarians demurred, and in fact refused to transport the Servian rolling-stock necessary for the operation of the company. Had this company had any real rights in the matter, it could have compelled Bulgaria to recognize them; had they had any rolling-stock in that part of Turkey, they could have disregarded Bulgaria's protests; but in the absence of both rights and rolling-stock, there was little to be done.

While every one was wondering what turn affairs would next take, the Bulgarian Government, on the 15th of July, 1888, calmly sent down a train laden with railroad officials and the necessary guards for the stations, to the end of the line thus unused, and, after ascertaining that the coast was clear, on their return dropped at each station the necessary officials and time-tables, after which they sent the Ottoman Government a rather cool note, stating in general terms that a valuable property was in danger, and that they thought it necessary to take possession of it as a means of protecting it. The Porte, as may be imagined, was far from satisfied with the turn which affairs had taken. It is by no means an unheard-of thing, even in America, to have a railroad stolen; but this particular manner of railroad stealing, and the cool way in which it was announced, was something of a surprise. The Porte attempted to persuade Hirsch, who had undoubted rights in the matter, to come and eject the Bulgarian Government; but he did not prove as willing an instrument as was hoped. As between the Governments of Turkey and Bulgaria, he felt quite as friendly to the latter as to the former. He, however, consented to operate the line on condition that he might also have given over into his hands the profitable line to Salonica, which was now run by the Servian company. But here again there was objection on the part of Servia, and it is difficult to see what will be the final outcome. At present a compromise has been reached by which the Constantinople line is provisionally operated by Hirsch; but it is by no means clear that we have as yet reached the end of the difficulty.

If such is the trouble involved in getting to Constantinople, it may be imagined that the difficulties in getting beyond it are even greater. It is some time since the system of railroads through Asia Minor and in the direction of Persia has been authoritatively surveyed; but it is still an open question how soon actual work will begin, or whether, when work is once begun, the Turkish Government may not place such difficulties in the way as to hinder its completion. At present it seems to be playing off one construction company against another in the bids for this enterprise, and shows a disposition not to deal straightforwardly with any of them. Under these circumstances, the policy of Europe in maintaining the Turkish power as a barrier to Russian expansion may react against itself. It prevents Russia, for the time being at any rate, from getting a foothold on the Mediterranean, but it insures her a clear field in railroad expansion towards the Persian Gulf. If half the accounts are true as to the natural resources of Asiatic Turkey, railroad communication with Persia should have developed in that country rather than across the deserts further to the north. But as long as Turkey is left in possession, any such result seems likely to be postponed indefinitely.

TINKERING THE FRENCH CONSTITUTION.

PARIS, October 15, 1888.

Revision of the Constitution has become a universal cry. That this revision should be the cry of the Opposition, of all kinds, is no wonder: it is more difficult to understand why the Government also has formed a scheme of revision. The Constitution is, in a republic, the highest law, the law of laws, and it ought not to be constantly modified. It is not for me to tell with what difficulties and formalities the framers of the American Constitution surrounded the revision of a single article of that instrument: you remember well under what circumstances it became possible to revise the articles relative to slavery. With the exception of those articles, what has been changed

in the American Constitution within a century? It stands now as a firm pillar, round which States and Territories can be organized; it is an object of respect and veneration to all succeeding generations; it gives to your democracy the element of fixity, of duration, which is given to monarchies by a dynasty.

The French Constitution, in its last form, dates from 1875, and it has already been revised. The revision of it is as easy as the change of an ordinary law.

"The Chambers shall have the right, upon separate deliberations, determined in each by an absolute majority of votes, either spontaneously, or at the request of the President of the Republic, to declare that there is need of revising the constitutional laws.

"After each of the two Chambers has taken this resolution, they shall unite as a National Assembly, in order to proceed to the revision.

"The deliberations concerning the revision of the constitutional laws, either total or partial, shall be determined by an absolute majority of the members composing the National Assembly."

Mark in this last article the word *total*. In the intention of the framers of the Constitution, a total revision was a possibility, and it was clearly understood in the deliberations of the Assembly of Versailles that a new National Assembly could substitute, if it chose, a monarchy for the Republic.

Jules Ferry felt that this was a danger for the Republic. He was afraid that a time would come when the representatives of the people might legally and constitutionally put an end to the Republic; and when he was Prime Minister he proposed that the right of revision should be curtailed on this special point; that a special article should be inserted in the Constitution, forbidding any deliberation in the National Assembly on the subject of the form of government. He carried his point, and the Constitution was revised in this sense; an article was inserted which makes it impossible to put to vote the question of the form of government in a National Assembly. The precaution was unnecessary so long as the majority remained Republican in both Chambers, and it would become futile if both Chambers ceased to be Republican. The axe was laid to the tree by the man who wished to protect the tree; for it was seen how easy it was practically to revise the Constitution—that it could be done in a day, with no more difficulty than any small alteration in an ordinary law.

This first revision became a signal; ever since, all the parties in opposition have taken up the cry of revision—the Monarchists in order to abolish the article introduced in the Constitution by the influence of Jules Ferry; the Bonapartists for the same reason; the Radicals because they accuse the Constitution of impotence, and wish to suppress the Senate and even the Presidency. There are obvious reasons why those who desire to substitute a monarchy for the Republic should try to test constantly the fragility of the Republic and to undermine its Constitution; there are reasons also why the Radicals, the Socialists, the Communists, the men whom nothing can satisfy, who are ardent for any change, any commotion, should cry, "Revision, revision!" Still, the cry did not find much echo till it was adopted by General Boulanger and his party.

It is difficult to explain how this party was formed and what are its objects. So far, the programme of General Boulanger is purely negative—"Dissolution, revision!" Once he tried to explain what he meant by revision, and what modifications he would make, if he could, in the Constitution. He was not much listened to, and I suppose that, by this time, nobody remembers the long programme which he read to the Chamber, and I should not be much surprised if he had forgotten it himself. The electors who vote by thousands for Boulanger, without ever having seen him or heard him, do not look upon him as a framer of constitutions, but as a destroyer of constitutions. Who are they, what are they? They are the discontented of all classes, of all ranks, of all opinions (if they have any fixed opinions); the men who follow instincts rather than ideas, who, for one reason or another, are tired of the present, and want something new, something different—they do not know exactly what. Imagination has more to do in the affairs of men than is commonly supposed, and, strangely enough, General Boulanger has caught the imagination of the people. I heard some time ago an old diplomat, a man who has had a great experience of the world and who has travelled in every part of it, say to some people who were criticizing Boulanger, and were trying to prove that some of his actions would ruin him: "You are mistaken. He is an idol. I have travelled in the East and seen many idols: I always found that the uglier they are, the more miracles they perform."

It would be a long and painful task to show how the Republicans have allowed the tide of discontent to rise to its present level; how the "République aimable" of M. Jules Simon, the "République athénienne" of Gambetta, made way by degrees for the present Republic. It would be even more difficult to analyze the process by which all the discontent crystallized, so to speak, round General Boulanger. He appeared first before the eyes of the people as a soldier on horseback, sword in hand. The people see him still as they saw him first, though he no longer wears his uniform, and has been thrust through in a duel by a lawyer. It was thought that after this duel he was a finished man; a short time afterwards three departments returned him by overwhelming votes. Next year there will be general elections, and committees are already formed in every department. I am told that everywhere the Monarchists are obliged to count with General Boulanger and his party: the popular tide is with him, and they dare not oppose it. We must expect to see in the provinces a coalition of Monarchists, Bonapartists, and Boulangists. They will probably vote together on a purely negative platform, without any definite conventions or arrangements, for the sake of victory.

It is needless to show the dangers of such a policy. Lord Palmerston once said that a man on horseback was in coalition with the horse; only, when you form coalitions, you must always be careful to be the horse. Who can tell who will be the horse in this extraordinary coalition of the monarchical forces and of the enigmatical and unnamed forces which go under the name of Boulangism? The real alliance to be feared is the old alliance between Cæsarism and democracy, the alliance which placed Napoleon I. and Napoleon III. on the throne, and which has always ended in a deadly struggle between France and Europe. It seems as if, in the face of such dangers, the Republicans ought to learn some prudence and wisdom; they have still in their hands the keys of the house, but now they themselves propose to rebuild it. M. Floquet, who is our Prime Minister, is the new architect; he also cries, "Revision!" thinking that he can shout it louder than General Boulanger. The plan of the ministerial revision is, it must be confessed, most extraordinary. The rights of the Senate are curtailed with regard to the veto of the budget; yet the Chamber of Deputies has not made such a good use of the finances of the country that a little advice from the Senate should be thought unnecessary. The July number of the *Bulletin de Statistique du Ministère des Finances* gives the amount of the expenses incurred since the war of 1870, outside of the ordinary budget. It is seven milliards, and seven hundred millions of francs. As has lately been said, "The State spends every year five or six hundred millions more than it receives from the regular taxes and sources of revenue."

Still, the prerogative of the Chamber in matters of taxation is a point which can be discussed: but what shall we say of the proposition made by the Government to deprive the President of the right of dissolution—a right which he can use only with the consent of the Senate? This is another diminution of the senatorial power, as well as a diminution of the Presidential power. The most extraordinary part of the scheme of revision, however, seems to me to be the gradual reëlection of the Deputies—one-third going out every two years, so that there would never be a general election. The Ministers appointed by the Chamber would remain in office so long as a partial reëlection of one-third should not have taken place, and could not be upset in the interval of two partial elections by a parliamentary vote. Two years of office would be thus assured to every Cabinet. I leave you to judge if this change can be recommended in a country where the ministerial responsibility is complete, and where the Ministers have to appear every day before Parliament. Everything can be tried in politics; but I can hardly imagine the coexistence of a Chamber and of a hostile Cabinet. This measure is proposed as a remedy for the instability of our cabinets; but the only true remedy is the election by the people of a large and united majority. The present House is cut up into groups and fractions, and cabinets are upset in turn by coalitions of groups. This may be a great evil, but I don't see how it can be remedied except by the electors.

Correspondence.

THE PARTY NOT A PERSON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: One more word ought to be said to men like Dr. Storrs, who believe that the Republican party is entirely wrong in this campaign, but continue their support because it was right twenty-five and thirty years ago. Their sophistication comes from giving personality to the party. In their conception, the party is a personal existence, that can claim fealty. If this fealty is not given, the person failing to give it is a "traitor to the party." If the party is wrong, its errors are to be condoned, like the errors of an individual, in view of its previous good record, and in the hope that its general spirit of rectitude will speedily bring it back from its lapses from sound political virtue. There is not a greater error enslaving the minds of educated men than this conception of the nature of parties. The correct conception of a party is, not that of a personality which has rights over men, but that of an instrument for achieving political results, to be cast aside whenever it fails to answer one's purpose. It is only an aggregation of men who act together as a party because they have common purposes to achieve. As soon as there are divergent purposes, there should be new combinations of men.

This truth is brought out by a brief history of the Republican party—or rather Republican parties, as there have been a number of them.

Thirty years ago the Republican party was an aggregation of men who stood for the exclusion of slavery from the Territories, for free speech, for a Homestead Law. These purposes have all been achieved, and the men who made that Republican party are mainly dead and buried.

A little later, the men who stood for the Republican party had entirely distinct purposes from the first party. They stood for the carrying on of the war for the preservation of the Union, for the destruction of slavery in the slave States, as a war measure. These purposes have all been achieved, and the men who were that Republican party are largely dead and buried.

A little later, the aggregation of men who, united by common purposes, made up the Republican party, stood for the adoption of certain reconstruction measures and for certain amendments to the Federal Constitution which were to conserve the results of the war. These purposes have also been achieved, and the men who made this Republican party are mainly dead and buried. The issues for which that particular party worked are as extinct as are those of the adoption of the Federal Constitution of 1788.

The next Republican party had for its common purpose the resumption of specie payments. But that issue is as dead as the preceding ones. It is as dead as the adoption of the Copernican astronomy. We all feel that loyalty to the Copernican astronomy should have no controlling power in fixing our present party associations.

During all this history, the aggregation of men who have made up these Republican parties has been a varying one. As men have favored the issues that were called Republican principles, they have united themselves with the like-minded men who constituted the party; as they have disfavored them, they have withdrawn from the party.

Now, in this present year of grace, what does the Republican party stand for? It stands for the perpetuation of tariff abuses. It stands, contingently, for free whiskey. It stands for profuse expenditures of the public money. It stands for the perpetuation of sectional hate. It stands as the firm friend of monopolies, as is conclusively shown by the history of the Republican Senate during the past twelve years. It stands for reckless indifference to cordial relations between the English-speaking peoples. The cause of vital religion and of civil liberty rests largely upon fraternal relations between the English-speaking peoples. The welfare, not of one race like the negroes, but of all races, is involved in their peaceful comity. The men who needlessly put a strain upon the relations of the two foremost English-speaking peoples are traitors to civilization and to the highest interests of mankind.

The party stands for blind, stupid opposition to everything that President Cleveland does. When history comes to be written impartially, one of its most ridiculous recitals will be of the stolid stupidity with which the Republican leaders have arrayed themselves against every step taken by President Cleveland, whether right or wrong. Every Republican President for the twelve years preceding the present quadrennial has pointed out the necessity of tariff revision. Every intelligent man knows that tariff revision has been desirable. At last, when it becomes imperative because of the accumulation of a dangerous surplus in the treasury, merely because the subject is brought forward by President Cleveland, the whole party rushes savagely against it, with all the stupid ferocity of a bull in the arena, inflamed by a red flag.

Those who are in favor of the principles of the present Republican party should vote for its platform and its candidates. Those who are opposed to these principles, and still vote for them, have their minds under a worse than negro bondage; for I can see no way of removing their enslaving chains. It is a libel upon Lincoln and the Republican fathers to say that the present Republican party is their party, *for they had the independence of mind to break away from old parties when their course was antagonistic to the welfare of man.*

I cannot refrain from a somewhat rough *reductio ad absurdum* of the claim that one owes loyalty to a party like loyalty to a woman. Men in the attitude of Dr. Storrs would say, "I know that thirty-four years have impaired Polly's beauty—that she now wears a wig, and that her eyes are dull and lifeless; that her cheeks are sunken and hairy, and that her teeth are gone. But she once had raven tresses; once her eyes were full of liquid fire; once her cheeks were round and rosy like a peach; and once she had teeth of pearly whiteness. She will always be the same beautiful Polly to me that she was at first. I shall always cling to Polly." Now, the real question is not one of good looks, but of character. *What if Polly has lost her virtue? What about clinging to her then?* J.

DEFINE THE ISSUE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I observe a growing conservatism, not to say timidity, in the statement by Democratic leaders of the position of their party on the tariff question. I do not believe there is anything in the political situation which makes this apparent weakening of the moral nerve either wise or politic.

There is a large element now supporting the Democratic party because it believes that that party has definitely entered upon a course whose destination is practical free trade—tariff for revenue only. The voters composing this element do not believe in absolute free trade, at any time—that is universally admitted to be impracticable. They do not desire the destruction or unnecessary injury of American manufactures, or the endangering of investments therein. They believe that protection is the proper policy for certain stages in the growth of a country, and that when it is abandoned it should be slowly and experimentally. But they also believe that it should never be the permanent policy of any country. They believe that limitations on trade should be a means, not an end, and that when the end has been accomplished they should be promptly discarded; that such restrictions are not in the line of social progress, are being outgrown as parts of the social machinery—like slavery, spoils-of-office, subsidies, standing armies, conquest and war—and will some day be left behind in the march of modern civilization. And they are confident that any great political party, in a great, free, prosperous, and progressive country like this, which makes the permanent retention of such restrictions the chief plank in its platform, will see the day when it will be ashamed of such a record.

These men whom I am speaking for—and whose opinions in this regard I think I am fairly expressing—believe that some of the infant manufactures of this country, which have been protected thus far, are now grown up and can go alone, and that others are getting so well on to their legs that they can manage to get along quite comfortably with less protection. They therefore believe that the time has come to reduce the contributions which the whole people have been making towards the support of these two classes of manufactures. They are not asking now that the contributions to the first class shall entirely cease (although they cannot quite see why they should not). Out of "abundant caution" they only demand a comparatively slight reduction — a mere loosening of the grasp, confident that it will be promptly tightened if the interests affected shall prove to be injured by the experiment. But what these men insist on, primarily, as the acknowledged end of the course upon which the Democratic party is entering, is this—that, as fast as each protected industry shall reach the point where it can, from its own resources, compete with the world, or where it shall be demonstrated that it cannot be prosecuted in this country without a perpetual bounty, the protection of such industry shall be, gradually and carefully, withdrawn; until, when the last industry shall have passed this point, there shall result what I have called practical free trade.

I believe there is another element now supporting the Democratic party which will not insist upon the definite recognition of this ultimate policy. They are men who are, or were recently, members of the Republican party; and if it should be admitted that the Democratic party hold the same doctrine as to protection that the Republican party now holds, that both parties are for readjustment and reduction of the present tariff along the line of the same general principle, and that the only difference now between them on the tariff question is mere matter of detail as to the specific items upon which the reduction should be made, then I believe that when these men I am speaking of come to understand this as the status of the two parties, they will no longer be for the Democratic party.

The reasons are not far to seek. These men helped to make the history of the Republican party during the war period, and they are proud of the record. It was something of a struggle for them to abandon their share in such portion of the glory of the old party as had been inherited by the new one. The history of the Democratic party during the same period is as obnoxious to them as that of the Republicans is agreeable, and their second sentimental twinge, when they felt themselves compelled to support that party in the present political aspect, grew out of the fear that their individual political careers would sometimes be confounded with the Democratic war record. It is not reasonable to suppose that these men will leave the Republican for the Democratic party if they shall come to believe that there is no difference in principle between the two. Notwithstanding the blunders of the Republican leaders, and the late and probably insincere attempt of some of them to put the party in the line of tariff reduction for the purpose of meeting the exigencies which the campaign has developed, it is probable that these men would prefer in such a case to remain in the Republican party, and strive to reform it from the inside, rather than leave it for a party whose superiority over theirs would consist alone in the fact that this year it is consistent and undoubtedly sincere in its effort to reduce the present tariff.

The men for whom I am assuming to speak are, I think, supporting the Democrats upon the assumption that the following is about the status of the two parties on the tariff question, allowing that the recent action of the Republican Senators is sincere and will be endorsed by their party: The Republicans will not touch the tariff at all unless it shall become necessary to do so in order to reduce the surplus

revenue; and in that case, and for that purpose alone, they will reduce the tariff where the reduction will not affect the protected class—that is, they will make the reduction on such articles as cannot be produced in this country, or, failing enough of these, then on those of which a small proportion (compared with the demand) can be produced in this country. The Democrats say that, while the reduction of the surplus revenue is the first thing to be done, it is merely incidental to the chief thing to be done, which is to commence the readjustment and reduction of the tariff on the line of making the principal reduction in the duties on those articles which can be produced in this country, and the manufacture of which in this country is being protected after the need for protection has ceased, and the largest proportion of which duties is going into the pockets of private parties instead of into the public treasury; and to continue the contest along this line until, through the development of the country's resources, we reach practical free trade. They say, if we are paying more duties than we ought to on articles which cannot be produced in this country, "Very well, that shall be remedied; but all such duties go into the treasury for the benefit of the whole people alike, and so our first duty is to stop those duties which are unjustly received by private parties at the expense of all."

Here seems to be a well-defined issue between the two parties, on principle, and the men I speak of do not as yet see any reason for obscuring it. You will not catch a New England State by telling its voters that your party was the first to advocate the reduction policy, and that the Republican party only adopted it when they were frightened into it by the developments of the campaign; but you will catch and hold voters all over the country by bravely standing by the great principle which underlies the position of your party on the tariff question, and which will mark the difference between the two parties, not only through this campaign, but all through the coming years, during which this is to be the dominant political issue. It is with this principle that you are furnishing a rallying-point for the men from both parties who have been struggling for years to keep our legislative processes out of the grasp of the powerful monopolistic element. JOHN W. ELA.

CHICAGO, October, 1888.

THE PRESIDENT AND THE VETO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The frequency with which Mr. Cleveland has used the veto power has been the subject of much severe comment by various Republican speakers for some time past, and particularly by Mr. Blaine in several of his recent addresses. I propose, with your permission, to inquire whether or not the condition of affairs has arisen in which its frequent and vigorous use is necessary, and, further, whether the spirit of the Constitution does not imperatively require it.

The power of the negative was conferred by the Constitution with the double object of checking rash and preventing corrupt legislation. Its framers realized how easily, in the rush of business, corrupt legislation might pass unnoticed, unless the responsibility for its examination was definitely located, and how completely this precaution would discourage it. On the other hand, they also realized how liable are large elective bodies to rash and unwise impulses, and how necessary it was to provide an agency by which, without an absolute veto, sober second thought could be enforced. They did not intend a despotic Executive, nor can any Executive armed with only a qualified veto, with the power of Congress and the Judiciary to contend against, ever hope to become despotic; but it was equally remote from their intention to create a weak one, and the fear of this constituted the objection to an Executive Council. It was not intended to make the President a mere administrative figure-head: the veto power and the privilege, not only of stating to Congress the condition of the country, but of suggesting to it a definite line of policy, would, it was calculated, enable him to affect, not only the administration, but the legislation of the country, and to maintain his weight and dignity in the Federal system.

For some years past, it is now commonly felt, there has been a steady tendency towards that centralization of power which the makers of the Constitution feared; but, instead of concentrating upon the President, it is Congress that has absorbed this additional power, subtracted, on the one hand, from the States, and, on the other, from the President himself. The Supreme Court is gradually winning back for the States the authority of which they have been unknowingly deprived; but the only agency that can reclaim for the President his original prerogative is the President himself. This, I think, has been the effect of Mr. Cleveland's vigorous assertion of his powers; and, so far from being a perversion or abuse of the Constitution, I firmly believe that it was the indifference and weakness of his predecessors which allowed a great abuse to gain firm foothold, the executive power seriously to be impaired, and all the corrupt influences at work in Congress to have unobstructed play.

Alexander Hamilton, in Essay No. LXXIII. of the *Federalist*, in which the veto of the President is considered, has, among other things, this to say in its defence:

"A power of this nature will often have a silent and unperceived, though forcible, operation. When men, engaged in unjustifiable pursuits, are aware that obstructions may come from a quarter which they cannot control, they will often be restrained, by the bare apprehension of opposition, from doing what they would with eagerness rush into if no such external impediments were to be feared."

In a state of affairs, then, in which this hindrance ceases to be dreaded—Congress itself being able but imperfectly to examine the numerous small bills apparently so harmless and plausible that are presented to it—practical immunity is granted to every corrupt influence that is brought to bear upon it. Mr. Blaine, as an old member of Congress—and a member, too, who, if we can judge from extracts published from his private correspondence, must have been quite familiar with this branch of its business—Mr. Blaine must know how many bills are hurried through Congress in the hope and expectation that they will never be exposed to the light of day. Does it not point to a decided impairment of the President's power, to a dangerous departure from the spirit of the Constitution, when Congress has thus learned to count upon the Executive's approval? I lay particular emphasis upon these so-called "private" bills, because the President's vetoes have usually fallen upon measures of this kind; but it is no less necessary that the restraining effect of a possible veto be felt in legislation of a more far-reaching nature. In this, too, Mr. Cleveland has realized for us the kind of President the Constitution designed—a man who should see to the execution of the laws, and the force of whose individuality should be felt in making them. To such a President, Congress must feel a direct responsibility; and whether they work in unison or in discord, the result must be a definite policy, upon which the country is given frequent opportunity to pass.

I have said that the Presidential office has lost prestige within the last twenty years. The power of the veto and the power of recommendation are of less avail to influence Congress than the judicious distribution of the public offices. Whether or not this be the cause, the President has gradually lost influence over the policy of the Government; he has become merely a machine to execute the will of Congress. The effect of this has been to deprive Congress of the head which the Constitution provided; and I believe that much of the aimlessness and incoherence of our legislation for some years past is due to the fact that the President has ceased to be a force in shaping its counsels. The experience of the Congress just adjourned seems to indicate that, with a man of positive force in the Presidential chair, Congress is bound to evolve some systematic policy. It has been repeatedly suggested of late that this end can be best secured by making the President simply an executive, and enforcing some form of responsibility within Congress itself. The present is not the time to discuss this proposal; but this much we may say—that, whenever the President does become such, whether by a formal amendment to the Constitution or by force of precedent, then the necessity for the entire reorganization of Congress becomes absolute.

It is worth while remarking, under these circumstances, that the great statesman of the Republican party has so little perception of the need for a strong and vigorous President to direct and lead the legislature, that he censures an attempt to revive the strength of the Executive by reëstablishing the natural relations between the President and Congress; nay, more, he is not conscious of any imperfections in the perverted system which he seeks to perpetuate. No one who knows Mr. Blaine will be surprised at this; but, for the benefit of those who are still dazzled by his "brilliancy," it may be permitted once more to remark that, to the consideration of a question which demands the talents of a statesman, he has brought only the arts of a politician and a demagogue. F.

LOUISVILLE, KY., October 26, 1888.

MINISTRIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While we are waiting for the result of the great lesson of the election, it is well not to lose sight of the almost equally important lesson, even for us, which is working itself out in France.

No doubt a great many people regard this as showing how bad it is that the Ministry should have seats in the Chambers, and a conclusive proof that no such thing should be tried with us. It may be answered that the evil is not because, but in spite of, this condition. The present state of politics in France is a part of the long illustration, since 1789, of the impossibility of government by legislature, and the necessity of strong executive power. In the panic which is creeping over the country at the anarchy and impotence of the Chamber, men's minds are turning towards revolution and Boulanger or some stronger man. The one single chance that they have of pulling through peacefully (and this chance is unfortunately growing daily less) is in some Minister arising strong enough by constitutional methods to command the support of the country and compel the Chamber to do his bidding. But this chance is only possible through giving to the Ministry a fighting ground in the Chamber. No one thing could be done more certain to

bring on revolution and a military dictator than to withdraw the Ministry from public contact with the Chamber. The factions would fly at each other's throats in a way which would make the country howl aloud for a saviour, even if that saviour were a Louis Napoleon.

The state of things is best illustrated by the finances. The reason why the English national finance is the best in the world is, that it is practically in the hands of one man. Parliament never enforces an amendment to the budget, or, if it does, does so at the risk of causing the Ministry to resign, and is held in check by a wholesome fear of dissolution, while there is no standing committee on the subject, for which the country cannot be too deeply grateful.

In France the Budget Commission bullies the Finance Minister without stint. It will neither accept his plans, nor make any plans of its own. The result is that the accounts of any year cannot be got settled, no definite control can be obtained, either of revenue or expenditure, and chaos is rapidly settling down over the whole system. But, at least, the Finance Minister, by being in the Chamber, lets the country see where the difficulty is, as is made clear by the comments of the press. If he were excluded, the Budget Commission would at once disappear from the public eye, would carry on its squabbles and jobbery and intrigues in the secrecy of the committee room, and the ruin would be none the less certain, and more speedy, because unseen. (Perhaps an analogous case may suggest itself, with the modification that a surplus is much more easily dealt with than a deficit.) Morever, if the Minister's tenure of office were any less uncertain outside of than in the Chamber, it would be because he would become so insignificant as not to be worth the expenditure of force.

Three things the recent experience of France does show to be necessary, viz.: that the Ministers should have fixed terms of office; that the Chambers should be reëlected at fixed and not too long intervals; and that the President, appointing the Finance Minister, should be elected by the whole people.

(1.) If the Finance Minister is to contend successfully with the Budget Committee, he must be independent of it. Of course, the Chamber will go with the Committee against the Minister every time, not because he is of this or that party, but because he is the executive and they the legislature. If he is dependent upon the Chamber for his tenure of office, he is of course defenceless against and the mere tool of the Budget Commission. If, on the other hand, he receives his office through the President from the nation, and cannot be turned out, he can show fight, and make the country understand that the issue is whether he or the Budget Commission is to control the finances—a problem which I imagine would not long remain doubtful.

(2.) In France, dissolution depends upon the President, with the consent of the Senate; and as he is elected by the Chambers, and, like the Senate, is mortally afraid of the other branch, it is a feeble weapon. Moreover, being uncertain as to time, it is, like death, less feared, and the voters are less prepared for it. If elections came at regular and certain intervals, numbers would have their eyes always turned thither, while the people, knowing they would have to exercise a choice at such a time, would watch the conduct of members. If this is not quite true in this country it is because, owing to the exclusion of the Cabinet from Congress, and the secrecy with which business is carried on, the voters do not and cannot know what their members are doing, or whether they are doing anything.

(3.) From the way in which President Carnot is received in his tours through France, it does not appear that he is any less popular than Gen. Boulanger, or that if he chose he could not satisfy the demand for one-man power in a perfectly constitutional way. If he would tell the people that the danger lay in the supremacy of the Chamber and of the Budget Commission, and that it was absolutely necessary that his Ministers should be supported, the Chamber would soon begin to get some strong hints. Even the Boulanger scare has had a wholesome effect upon members. But M. Carnot will not do this. He was elected by the Chambers, and they knew their man. He is not the elect of the people, and he will not, even if he could, talk to them as if they were in direct relations.

How different it is in this country! I suppose it will be admitted that the issue of tariff reform in this campaign was almost wholly owing to Mr. Cleveland's message; without that, it would have dragged on with the old generalities and personalities. It is a wonderful instance of the power of a personal appeal from an elected official to his constituents, while Congress and its party managers are eliminated and thrown aside in an amusing manner, and probably not much to the satisfaction of that august body.

I should like to point out how the same power of the President could be used in the detail of tariff reform; but it is too big a subject for the end of a letter, and will, moreover, have more point after the election. G. B.

Boston, October 27, 1888.

THE GENESIS OF THE LONDON *TIMES* FORGERY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a copy of H. C. Carey's 'Slave Trade, Domestic and Foreign,' printed in 1867, but copyrighted in 1853, appears the following, credited to the London *Times:*

"When the Celt has crossed the Atlantic, he begins for the first time in his life to consume the manufactures of this country, and, indirectly, to contribute to its customs. We may possibly live to see the day when the chief product of Ireland will be cattle, and English and Scotch the majority of her population. The nine or ten millions of Irish who by that time will have settled in the United States, cannot be less friendly to England, and will certainly be much better customers to her, than they now are."

No date is given, and it is therefore impossible to verify the quotation. It is certainly as brutally frank as the famous sentence to the same effect ascribed by Republicans to the same source. This you affirm to be a forgery, and implore gods and men to punish the perpetrator and circulators thereof. H. C. Carey has manufactured the quotation, taken it at second-hand, or it is true. Those who, like the editor of the *Nation*, have watched the drift of English sentiment on Irish affairs, as reflected in the London *Times* and other approved organs of English opinion, will readily admit that, if Mr. Carey's quotation be untrue, it has a remarkable verisimilitude.

Yours, etc., E. M.

Englewood, Ill., October 20, 1888.

[We thank our correspondent for his not too gracious indication of the probable source of the forged quotation from the London *Times*. We will add that it is to be found on page 191 of the edition of 1872. One may well be surprised that a work on the 'Slave Trade,' copyrighted in 1853, when the South was astir to reopen the traffic, owing to the rising prices of slaves, should have been thought worth reprinting in 1867, and even as late as 1872. The fact is, however, that the title conceals a protection diatribe against Great Britain as a manufacturing monopolist, in the course of which Mr. Carey reinforced the old pro-slavery "argument" that the poor of Ireland were as truly slaves as the blacks at the South. It is in this section of his work that an article from the London *Times* is disjointedly cited, without any hint of the date of it except that it was after the British census of March 31, 1851, and presumably as soon as the population statistics were made public.

These statistics showed an extraordinary falling off in the population of Ireland, as the result of the famine and the consequent wholesale emigration to the United States. We infer from the fragments reproduced by Mr Carey that this exodus was made the text of an article in the *Times*, which, observing the rate of a quarter of a million a year, anticipated a thorough evacuation—as did the Connaught *Western Star*, also quoted by Mr. Carey on page 189. The *Times* saw in this a providential remedy for "the inveterate Irish disease" ("surer . . . than any human wit could have imagined"). Convinced that Ireland under the Celts could never be prosperous and happy, the *Times* viewed with satisfaction the prospect of the Irish forsaking their country to mingle with the Anglo-Americans, and giving place at home to the "more mixed, more docile, and more serviceable race" inhabiting Great Britain.

This may be thought an unsympathetic, calculating, and selfish view of the great westward movement, but we do not ourselves find it "brutally frank." The *Times* wished no harm to the emigrants, but, on the contrary, predicted for them across seas a degree of prosperity and happiness such as seemed unattainable in Ireland. If we compare the sentiments of this Tory journal with those held at the very same time by Mr. Carey's great chief, Henry Clay, and by Northern and Southern divines in plenty, with regard to colonizing the free or emancipated blacks of this country under compulsion—and for their commingling, not with a higher race, but with the barbarous natives of Africa—we must admit that the American inhumanity was unspeakably the greater.

Since our correspondent pretends that the extract which he restores in its true language, if not in its connection, and the base counterfeit to which the Republicans have given unblushing circulation, are "to the same effect," it is necessary to print the latter once more, even if *ad nauseam:*

"The only time that England can use an Irishman is when he emigrates to America and votes for free trade."

If "E. M." thinks the true extract as well qualified as the false to serve campaign purposes in winning over the Irish vote, let him use his influence with the Republican managers to substitute it in their lying documentary appeals to race hatred.—Ed. Nation.]

HIGH-PRICED BREAD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I notice that some of the labor organizations have adopted resolutions protesting against the recent advance in the price of bread, and denouncing "Old Hutch" as a public enemy. So far as these organizations are supporters of Harrison, is not this action somewhat inconsistent? They object to cheap clothing, because, as Mr. Harrison says, a cheap coat implies a cheap man under the coat. Or, to take the ordinary Protectionist view, if high-priced wool and woollen goods benefit the laboring man by stimulating industry, is not this much more true of high-priced bread? We produce ourselves but a moiety of the wool and woollens we consume; but we produce all, and much more than all, the wheat and flour. If, therefore, it is an advantage to workingmen to make woollen goods artificially dear, it should be a much greater advantage to make bread artificially dear. Assuming that "Old Hutch" is really responsible, instead of denouncing him as a public enemy, they should laud him as a public benefactor. J. M'L. S.

Dayton, Ohio.

THE NORTHERN CONSUMER'S VIEW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is frequently urged by Republicans (I see by your issue of the 25th inst. that the Boston *Commercial Bulletin* has recently taken up the cry again), that the Mills bill sacrifices Northern to Southern interests, the contrast being usually made between wool and sugar. As regards these articles, certainly, there is an answer to be made which must appeal to every man and woman who is not above counting the cost of the necessaries of life.

Sugar is probably used to the same amount per head in all parts of the country (unless, indeed, its presence in mint juleps raises the Southern average), so that, while all who look at the tariff from the consumer's standpoint would have been glad had the Mills bill done more for them in this respect, Northerners cannot complain that they are worse off than Southerners.

With wool the case is different. That part of the country which would be most benefited by any lowering of the present exorbitant price of all kinds of woollen goods is obviously the North, because, being the colder region, it uses far more wool, both for clothes, blankets, and carpets, than does the sunny South.

I believe that, as a matter of fact, the South raises more wool than the North (Mr. Mills's own State, as you point out, raising the most of all), so that the charge of sectionalism is groundless; but, even apart from this, it is clear that, as far as free wool—the most radical and probably the most criticised feature of the Mills bill—affects the interests of the mass of the community, the North is favored by that measure far more than the South. C. C. B.

Philadelphia, October 26, 1888,

A CORRECTION FROM BISHOP BECKWITH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of October 18, page 305, I find what purports to be a quotation from me in these words: "The old-fashioned Gospel of Christ and Him crucified has satisfied the world for centuries, but a new era is upon us." I certainly never intended to make such a statement, nor do I think that I ever did. What I tried to say—and thought I did say—was, that "the *old-fashioned mode of preaching* the Gospel of Christ and Him crucified has satisfied the world for centuries, etc." I think that the sentence with which I am credited in the *Nation* conveys the idea that, in my judgment, the new era which is upon us demands some change in "the old-fashioned Gospel of Christ and Him crucified." Nothing can be farther from my belief. I do not think that those who heard me misunderstood my meaning, which was simply this: The faith of many of our young men in the fundamental truths of the Christian religion is being shaken; therefore, instead of the old-fashioned mode of preaching the Gospel, which took for granted the soundness of this faith, our preaching should be in defence of the faith and in answer to those who deny it.

My faith in the "old-fashioned Gospel of Christ and Him crucified" is the very foundation of all my hopes; and the study of the "new theories" which characterize this age has only strengthened my belief in the statement of the great master of induction—the Apostle Paul—that "the invisible things of Him from the creation of the world are clearly seen, being perceived through the things that are made, even His everlasting power and divinity."

Trusting that you will pardon my troubling you, and that you will do me the favor to make for me the desired correction, believe me

Most respectfully yours, etc.,

John W. Beckwith, Bishop of Georgia.

Atlanta, Ga., October 26, 1888.

PROF. PAYNE ON GERMAN BOOKS ON EDUCATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I leave it for your readers to judge whether the two sentences quoted below in parallel columns are equivalent. The first contains what Prof. Payne *did* say, the second what, according to his letter in your last issue, he *intended* to say:

"To be even approachable, a German work on the philosophy of education needs to be translated twice, first into English and then into English common sense."

"The speculations of a German educational philosopher frequently need, not only to be turned literally into English, but to be paraphrased . . . in order to come within the ready comprehension of the ordinary reader."

The sentence at the right, as I understand it, expresses a commonplace which applies to any book in any language, if "the ordinary reader" means one reading his own language only. I neither took Prof. Payne's original utterance in that sense, nor do I look upon the teachers in whose midst it was made as ordinary readers. Rather than charging one who fails to give to his original statement the sense of his subsequent interpretation with "a gratuitous assumption . . . for an unworthy purpose," it behooved Prof. Payne to say what he intended to say, and to state the *worthy* purpose for which it was said.

Mr. Drew's remarks are for the most part irrelevant; the question is not one of the merit of German literary style, especially not of the style of authors who lived and died before the vast majority of the most valuable works on education were written. I felt justified in bringing this subject to the notice of your readers, considering that it must be of some interest to them to know how far university students of pedagogy are encouraged to pursue that science in a broad and scholarly spirit. On this point Mr. Drew's letter throws no light whatever. Yet he will admit that Matthew Arnold and Mr. Hosmer could not have given us their valuable contributions to the study of German education and literature, had they been frightened in their early manhood by the horrors of the "awful German language." It is also clear that occasional criticisms of the defects of German style from the pens of such writers can neither appear ungracious nor repel any student. Y.

Notes.

A. D. F. Randolph & Co. will publish immediately 'The Historical Memorials of Canterbury,' in a limited large-paper edition uniform with Dean Stanley's 'Memorials of Westminster,' 'The Autobiography and Memorials of Samuel Irenæus Prime,' edited by Wendell Prime; 'The Testimony of Justin Martyr to Early Christianity,' by the Rev. Geo. T. Purves; 'The Only Way Out,' a story of doubt and belief, by Leander S. Keyser; and 'The Peerless Prophet,' a Life of John the Baptist, by the Rev. Archibald McCullagh.

Additional announcements by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are 'The Witch in the Glass, and Other Poems,' by Mrs. S. M. B. Piatt; 'A Blockaded Family,' a story of the war from the Southern side, by Mrs. Parthenia Hague; and 'People and Countries Visited in a Winding Journey Around the World,' by O. W. Wight.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have nearly ready an unabridged translation—the first ever made—of Tolstoi's 'What to Do,' in an inexpensive popular form; 'Her Only Brother,' from the German of "Heimburg" (Bertha Behrens); and 'Scotch Caps,' by J A K, a story for young folks.

The Victor Hugo furore still prevails. Estes & Lauriat of Boston and W. R. Jenkins of New York have in hand a magnificent illustrated two-volume edition of 'Notre Dame de Paris'—the former firm in a new translation by A. L. Alger, the latter in the original French, with adornments in common. There will be nearly 200 illustrations, sixteen of them aquarelles. The University Press, Cambridge, will manufacture the work, of which there will be 500 copies in each set.

Encouraged by the great success of their most beautiful edition of 'L'Abbé Constantin,' with photogravure illustrations by Mme. Madeleine Lemaire, MM. Boussod, Valadon & Cie. are going to issue this year a similar edition of M. Guy de Maupassant's 'Pierre et Jean,' with illustrations by M. Duez and M. Lynch. The choice of book is not so happy. M. Halévy's novel was delightfully brisk and perfectly proper, while M. Maupassant's is sombre, analytic, and rather unpleasant in tone.

'The Curse of Marriage,' a novel by Walter Hubbell, is in the press of the American News Co.

Much interest should attach to 'The Life and Letters of Mary Howitt,' edited by her daughter, of which the English publishers will be the Messrs. Isbister; and to 'Dante Gabriel Rossetti as Designer and Writer: Notes by W. M. Rossetti,' which Cassell & Co. will issue.

We learn with great pleasure that Macmillan & Co. are about to issue, for the Society of Dilettanti, a new edition of Penrose's invaluable 'Principles of Athenian Architecture,' the result of the author's recent year in Athens. The greater part of the present book will remain as it is, but there will be much new matter relating to the Erechtheion; the temple adjoining it, of which the remains were brought to light not long since; the Propylaia; the older

Parthenon ; and the Temple of the Olympian Zeus; and a number of plates will be added.

Apropos of the Erechtheion, in the destruction of the so-called "Odysseus bastion," erected by the Greek general of that name at the northwest corner of the Acropolis, an inscription was discovered last spring which appears to be a portion of the famous building account of the Erechtheion. It is of especial importance, because it proves that this temple had a pediment (αἰετός) at both its eastern and its western end, and therefore a pointed roof—a fact that has never been established before. The inscription is published, but not described, by Lolling in the last number of the Athenian *Mittheilungen des Instituts.*

Four holiday gift-books on our table bear the imprint of J. B. Lippincott Co. The best of these is not new, except in size, being Keats's 'Lamia' with the notable illustrations of Will H. Low, which suffer less than might have been expected by the present reduction, and, decoratively viewed, hardly any. The book is now handy for enjoyment of the poem as well as of the designs, is less cumbersome, and still makes a handsome show on the centre-table, the cover being very tasteful and ornamental. Altogether crude and uninspired are the etchings which are supposed to add something to the classical texts of Goldsmith's 'Traveller' and Goethe's 'Hermann and Dorothea.' Only the typography of the former can be praised: that of the latter is much too condensed for beauty. Both these volumes have a smart binding in leatherette, or "new-style leather." The last book of the above group is 'Béranger's Poems,' a collection of upwards of fifty translations gathered together by Mr. William S. Walsh. He has, he says, been careful to omit what was indelicate; but as the collection is truly representative, this point can hardly be insisted on—witness Thackeray's version of "Le Grenier," to mention no others. The most of the translations are by William Young, William Maginn, and Robert Brough; more than a fourth are anonymous. Half a hundred unexceptional renderings of so difficult a poet were not to be counted on. "Les étoiles qui filent" is an example of failure not without excuse. The volume is well printed, has a few explanatory notes, and a number of copies of old-fashioned steel plates that adorned some early French edition. The binding is attractive.

The illustrated edition of Henry C. Work's well-known poem 'Marching through Georgia' (Ticknor & Co.) does not achieve distinction. The best woodcut is a portrait of Gen. Sherman, which serves as a frontispiece.

In Margaret Sidney's 'Old Concord, her Highways and Byways' (D. Lothrop Co.), the purchaser will find both a practicable guide-book to this historical locality and an agreeable fireside itinerary. The pleasant discourse is much aided by very judicious selections of bits of scenery, houses, interiors, etc., copied after nature by "process" engraving. These are charming enough. Among them occurs the Public Library, and one can but feel that this institution is a better guarantee of the permanence of what was good and great in the past of the quiet town than the richest of historical associations and traditions, and the various memorial monuments and tablets exhibited in this handsome volume.

We may fitly join with the foregoing a brief mention of Mrs. Ednah D. Cheney's 'Louisa May Alcott, the Children's Friend' (Boston: L. Prang & Co.). This is an unaffected account, for children, of the life of Miss Alcott, especially as reflected in her juvenile stories, and has been written with the utmost good taste and sobriety. A few pen-drawings of homes and residences are scattered through the text. An appendix preserves a few family poems by Miss Alcott and her father.

Likewise for children is the 'Longfellow Remembrance Book' (D. Lothrop Co.), the work of several hands, but the poet's brother and biographer has the largest and the best share in it. He has the knack of addressing the young, and tells them here nothing that will fail to interest them. There are numerous helpful illustrations.

Geo. Routledge & Sons send us two fancy almanacs for 1889. That designated "The Kirmess Almanac" we can only say is appropriately illustrated — not very well — with dancing groups of various nationalities. Kate Greenaway's smaller Almanac is in her usual vein of pastoral daintiness, with no change in the dramatis personæ or in her color scheme, and with little art in drawing where the puppet model does not serve. Herrick, Milton, and Shakspere furnish the sole text.

'A Winter Picnic,' by J. and E. Dickinson and S. C. Dowd (Henry Holt & Co.) gives a chatty description of the pleasant spending of several months in Nassau by a party of ladies, and of their modest housekeeping there. The most interesting portions relate the peculiarities of the colored population. The length of the book is out of proportion to its attractiveness, and the too frequent careless familiarity of the style borders on rudeness to the reading public. However, it may be useful as a guide-book.

An amusing illustration of the public demand for sugar-coated instruction is 'Molly Bishop's Family,' by Catherine Owen (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Under the guise of a story, we find a sort of compound treatise on domestic matters: for instance, on the training of babies, the choice of furniture, the financial and culinary management of a small boarding-house, etc., not to speak of recipes for meat-pies and other things. Fortunately, good sense pervades it, and no doubt it will prove useful to many.

It is with great pleasure that we record the publication of 'The Dramatic Year, 1887–1888, Brief Criticisms of Important Theatrical Events in the United States,' edited by Edward Fuller (Boston: Ticknor & Co.), because it shows that a literary interest in the acted drama is increasing ; and as this interest is brought to bear, it will in time have its effect on the contemporary stage—an effect which cannot but be wholesome. Mr. Fuller's preface intimates that this is probably the first of an annual series, and we trust that its success will encourage him. The volume contains twenty-seven papers on important plays, performances, and productions, seen in New York and Boston during the past theatrical season. These papers were written by the editor, in part, and in part by Messrs. H. M. Ticknor, L. H. Weeks, G. E. Montgomery, J. R. Towse, C. T. Copeland, and B. E. Woolf (who supplies an analysis of "Ambitious Amateurs," *i. e.*, Mrs. Langtry, Mrs. Potter, Miss Banks, Miss Mather, *et al.*). Mr. William Archer contributes an incisive review of the London theatrical season of 1887–1888, which he says will be marked in his memory "by two delightful pictures, indelibly printed—the pictures of two American actresses in two Shaksperian characters: Miss Anderson as *Perdita*, and Miss Rehan as *Katharine.*" In the succeeding annual issues it would be well to append a double index of plays and of players.

Shakespeariana for October (Philadelphia: Leonard Scott Publication Co.) is an exceptionally valuable number. The symposium, "How did you become a Shakspere student?" is rather disappointing, though it is something to learn that Miss Helen Faucit gave the needful impulse to Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps to begin that pursuit of Shaksperiana which has attained such prodigious dimensions. Mr. Talcott Williams furnishes a bibliography of the "Taming of the Shrew," and Helen A. Clarke a list of Shakspere "operas, operatized dramas, and overtures," with dates of first representations.

The November number of the Photo-Gravure Company's *Sun and Shade* is much the best of the three thus far issued. The two classes of plates are kept by themselves, instead of being mingled as heretofore, and violent contrasts have thus been avoided. Moreover, a decided "actuality" is given to this portfolio by two capital photogravure portraits of Messrs. Morton and Thurman, and by one of Mme. Jane Hading, whose histrionic art is now claiming our admiration. In landscape we have a rough yet tender woodland scene from the brush of William Hamilton Gibson, and a prospect of the battlefield of Gettysburg, from nature, the point of view being Little Round Top. The excuse for this latter plate is the bronze statue to Gen. G. K. Warren erected on the summit. This gallant soldier looks in the print like a Quaker pedestrian surveying the scene, field-glass in hand; or, if we make out that his sword is not a staff, then he seems but the hero of Quaker guns. Architecture is pleasingly represented by an engraving of the Tower of Catherine de Médicis at Blois.

The first paper in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for October is Mr. H. H. Johnston's entertaining account of his explorations in the Cameroons, originally read before the British Association. In view of the German phonetic spelling, Kamerun, he gives as a reason for retaining the common form the fact that it is not, as they appear to think, a native word, but is simply a corruption of the Portuguese "camarões" (shrimps), betokening the abundance of these animals in the adjacent waters. Among other excursions, he ascended to the highest peak of the Cameroon Mountains, which he found to be 13,508 feet above the sea. He dwells upon the great value to the white residents of the coast of the mountain slopes as a sanatarium. That a European climate was within two days' journey from the pestilent swamps of the Delta seems to have been a fact up to this time very strangely ignored. It is encouraging to learn that sweet wines "are rapidly usurping the place of rum and gin in native estimation." An interesting account of a recent journey in Little Russia, by Mr. E. Delmar Morgan, and Mr. H. R. Mills's "Sea Temperature on the Continental Shelf," both of which were read at Bath, complete the number, with the exception, of course, of the usual geographical notes, which are compiled with great care and completeness.

Excavations are being conducted at Mykenæ with great results. It now appears that there are pre-Homeric tombs on all sides of the city, cut or dug into the hills like the "Treasury of Atreus," with passages leading to them, though, if we may judge from brief descriptions received, much less pretentious in size and style. Remains of bodies found show that they were not burned, but laid at full length in the burial chamber, and large numbers of prehistoric ornaments, of an Oriental character, have been found.

—General Sheridan's reminiscences of the march of the German army from Gravelotte to Sedan, which *Scribner's* offers its readers this month, make a paper of very great interest as an expression of the man himself, as

well as for the sake of the personages whom he so closely observed, and of the critical events which he witnessed. The principal figure is Bismarck, and it must be acknowledged that no pen has drawn the Chancellor with so life-like strokes. It is not that Bismarck said or did anything remarkable; but Sheridan saw the man, and he has related small details in such a way as to give that elusive personality which biographers seek often in vain. It is not too much to say, without intending any derogation by the reference, that Boswell himself did not render the old doctor with greater directness. It is a paper which must be read entire, however, in its own words. The military criticism is slight. The force of the whole lies in the clear ocular sight, if one may use a seeming tautology, both of the eminent men and of the field of operation; and Sheridan had the gift of telling what he saw. The second paper of leading interest is the survey of the working life of railroad employees. The whole corps is covered, from the hero of the locomotive to the station agent. The variety of work needed to sustain the system is set forth fully, and the responsibilities and hardships of the hands strongly brought out. The peculiarity of the employment is that a single error has such fatal consequences, and hence there must be a continual strain, which few men can support without sometimes relaxing the tension. It is observed that, notwithstanding the many improvements which have diminished the chances of injury to the employees, it is necessary still to hold the corporations to their duty in this respect by law. This is a disagreeable truth. The writer gives to the employees generally an excellent character, and what he says goes to show that strikes are not fair exponents of what the men really are. Mr. Stevenson's opening chapters of "The Master of Ballantrae" promise exciting adventure, and contrast with the quiet and somewhat despairing ending of "First Harvests." Mr. Stimson exercises a doubtful power in an author in wreaking vengeance on the characters he hates and detests with so thorough a good-will. Mr. Birrell's article upon Arnold, Mr. Brownell's on "French Manners," and General Greely's upon our "Winter Climate" also deserve mention in this sterling number.

—*Harper's* is full of beautiful illustrations of the engraver's art in landscape, and of striking or curious cuts of ancient and foreign objects. The paper upon the Lower St. Lawrence, while it is excellent in its choice of subjects and in its literary touch, fades out beside the series of illustrations, which give the characteristics of the landscape and the people with a freshness and vigor and picturesqueness that bring them home to the eye at once. The writer upon the Boats of the Tagus, too, is indebted to the sharply-lined cuts of the strangely-rigged craft which live in its waters, for the precision with which his words are realized. In the article upon Elk-hunting, likewise, though the tale of adventure and slaughter is well told, with a sportsman's relish, and something of the true sportsman's regret that any other than himself should do the exterminating, many readers will find the pictures of the splendid, great-antlered animals the more enjoyable. Theodore Child employs the combined arts of photography and engraving in a more utilitarian fashion, to set before the reader the image of the interesting curiosities which are housed in the Museum of the Hôtel Carnavalet at Paris, and which illustrate the history of the city from the earliest times. He selects the objects of the Revolutionary period to form the bulk of the article; and between the cuts and the gossip of the text, the paper is one of the most successful from his very prolific pen. The most entertaining contribution, however, is by Charles Gayarré upon the New Orleans Bench and Bar in 1823. It is novel in its method, and reproduces the figures of Mazureau and Hennen, Grymes, Edward Livingston, and Moreau Lislet, taken as typical lawyers of the French-English régime, in a series of scenes from the court-room, conducted in dialogue between judge, jury, and the opposing counsel. The vivacity and strength of these reminiscences are remarkable; and as a contribution to a most perishable and a most attractive part of our provincial history, the article has real interest beyond its powers of entertainment. We should mention, too, Mr. Richard Wheatley's account of the New York Real Estate Exchange, with several excellent portraits, and much encyclopædic information in respect to the methods and the operations of the Exchange and the history of real-estate values in this city. The number is the best which this magazine has issued for some time.

—Mr. Bradford Torrey opens the November *Atlantic* with a chronicle of the month, a floral and ornithological chronicle, in which he does not so much say a good word for "the melancholy days" as prove a good case for them. Indeed, without relying too much on the ever-hoped-for Indian summer, the long-accustomed observer finds the autumn as tardy in departing as the spring is in coming to our northern hillsides, and the snow is as likely to flurry down upon our asters as upon our young hyacinths. Mr. Torrey found seventy-three species of plants in blossom, among them the Deptford pink, and he counted twenty-five species of birds still lingering in the wood and meadow. Of his search for one of these, the Ipswich sparrow, which was unknown until 1868, he gives a pleasant account, making it the best episode of his little paper, delightful for the unconscious feeling with which he renders the scenery of the beach—not the sky and sea, but the mere sand-hills, the bare grass, and the tracks of the birds through it. It is noticeable that these observations are taken near the sea-coast, which is favorable to a variety of species and to the late blooming of the plants. Mrs. Lillie B. Chace Wyman takes us back to factory life, and to one of its most disagreeable and unjust phases, that of black-listing. She describes her visit to the houses of the hands, and particularly two or three of these black-listed men whom she found there, and who are various enough to serve as types. It would be impossible to practise black-listing without leaving the door wide open for injustice, arbitrariness, and caprice; and in these cases the writer finds nothing to support the decision of the overseers that these men should not receive work from anybody in the business to which they were trained. The paper, like all from her pen, has the value belonging to the work of an intelligent, interested, and trustworthy observer. Prof. Trowbridge presents, in another short paper, the latest educational idea, and it is one which, if accepted, would truly be revolutionary. It is in fact a sporadic development of the elective system. He would have, as we understand it, only one study, or closely allied group of two or three, pursued at once, for a period of perhaps three months, and then another study or group should be taken up for the same time, and so on, to the end of the curriculum. This scheme is not likely to receive much attention, the length of time during which one is conversant with a subject being quite as important an element in education as the intensity of the interest in it for a short time.

—The layman who labors under a feeling of essential inferiority to scientific men because their work is beyond his comprehension, may take comfort on seeing how little the work of scientists differs from that of ordinary men when they address themselves to general questions. The latest illustration of this is furnished by Prof. Cope's article on "The Relation of the Sexes to Government" in the *Popular Science Monthly* for October. The article opens with some observations on the antiquity of the difference between the sexes, and on the great advance which was made in the possibilities of progress when sexual reproduction first made its appearance among living things; but the unwary reader who is led to expect that this exceedingly ancient history is going to throw any light on the question, will find himself completely disappointed. In point of fact, the author himself soon leaves this "scientific" point of view, and rambles in a very inconsecutive manner over the familiar ground of woman's disabilities, as disclosed by what he calls "ordinary observation." The arguments of the article depend essentially on the unquestioning acceptance of the results of such observation, which are embodied, in the main, in the following passage:

> "We find in men a greater capacity for rational processes, a capacity which is not always exercised to its full. We find in men a greater capacity for endurance of the activity of the rational faculty. We find in men a greater capacity for work in the higher departments of intelligence which require mechanical skill of a high order."

—Prof. Cope not only accepts, without so much as the insinuation of a doubt, these results of a kind of observation which if a scientific man were to accept in his specialty, he would be supposed to have lost his senses; he does not for a moment consider how great may be the degree of this incapacity, but takes it for granted that it must be sufficient to be fatal to the claims of women. He says elsewhere that most men have had to steel their minds against the aimlessness and pettiness of women, and have observed in them "a pronounced frailty of the rational faculty in thought or action." It is to be hoped that a very respectable minority among men have been more fortunate; but in any case, does Prof. Cope think it scientific to assume, as he does throughout his article, that if women should take part in government, all the beautiful qualities for which he gives them credit will take flight, while the aimlessness and pettiness and irrationality will remain unaffected? Whichever side one may take on the question of women's political aspirations, one may regret that scientists should not set an example of clear and consecutive thinking when discussing a subject upon which plenty of loose writing has been done. And the sooner scientific writers learn that the catchwords of evolution and of physical science are not sufficient to give authority to their utterances on subjects which require chiefly sound judgment and knowledge of human affairs, the better it will be for their influence in the world.

—Our note on the proposed coöperative portrait catalogue, discussed at the Catskill meeting of the American Library Association (*Nation*, Oct. 4), has brought us a number of letters of inquiry from collectors. But we find that there is a general misunderstanding of the matter. The Association did not propose undertaking a general catalogue of portraits: that is a very desirable thing, but is far beyond its powers either of preparation or of printing. What it has in mind is to make coöperatively, and print by subscription, a list of the portraits in such

collections as Lodge's, Kay's, the Clouets at Castle Howard, 'Men of Mark,' the half-dozen national portrait galleries, Petitot's 'Émaux,' the 'Allgemeines historisches Porträtwerk,' the 'Galerie Théâtrale,' Crombie's 'Modern Athenians,' etc.; and the old magazines that used to give a portrait a month, and books like the fine new edition of Grammont's Memoirs. If anyone wants the portrait of any person in whom he has become interested in his reading, he may, of course, find it in the first book he consults; but the chances are that he will have to finger the indexes of half the portrait collections in his library (when they have indexes, which is not always) before he finds what he is in search of. What a help if he could turn to an alphabetically arranged general index, and be referred to the very work, volume, and page where his man was portrayed! Portraits published singly are easily found in a library, for they are of course catalogued under the name of the person. A general catalogue of portraits, therefore, though it has other uses, does not uncover any buried treasures in a library, and would not deserve library coöperation.

—A correspondent writes us:

"Your editorial on the Whitechapel murders calls to mind one of De Quincey's fragments, a sequel to the 'Essay upon Murder as a Fine Art,' wherein he describes with frightful vividness a series of murders in this same East London in the year 1812. De Quincey, of course, treated the subject from an æsthetic standpoint, as befitted his theme; but the series of household murders, committed (as it afterwards proved) by one man, as cunning as he was ferocious, bears a remarkable resemblance to the crimes over which London is agitated this very month. East London and human nature in it, as your editorial suggests, remain quite constant, it would seem."

—Some idea of the importance attached to the study of Greek archæology in Germany, and of the extraordinary activity of the Imperial Archæological Institute in this field of research, may be formed from the report of Herr Conze, Secretary of the Institute, presented at a recent meeting of the Berlin Academy of Arts and Sciences. The headquarters of the Institute are in Berlin, where the executive officer is a *Generalsekretär*, Herr Conze, director of the classical department of the Berlin Museum. In Rome and Athens the Institute has branch establishments, that in Rome occupying an estate which belongs to it, while that in Athens is about to hire of Dr. Schliemann a house built expressly for the Institute this year, the former quarters having been in an ordinary dwelling-house. Each of these branches is under the charge of two secretaries, in Rome Herren Petersen and Hülsen, in Athens Herren Dörpfeld and Wolters. Members of the Institute who are pursuing investigations in Italy or Greece are provided with quarters in either of these buildings. The periodical publications of the Institute are its *Jahrbuch*, published quarterly in Berlin, the *Mittheilungen* of the Athenian and Roman branches respectively, the *Ephemeris Epigraphica*, a supplement to the Corpus of Latin inscriptions, and the *Antike Denkmäler*, a folio of twelve plates annually, in which all the resources of modern reproductive art are called upon to illustrate newly discovered or important works.

—Valuable as these periodicals are, they appear almost insignificant beside the great publications which the Institute has under way, some of which have already occupied more than a generation of workers. Those of which Herr Conze made mention in his report are the Corpus, if we may so call it, of Roman Sarcophagi, by Prof. Carl Robert, of which one volume is now in press, Kekulé's work on Greek Terra-cottas, of which a volume on the reliefs of the Campana style is now in preparation, a collection of Etruscan cinerary urns, by Herr Körte, who is also continuing Gerhard's great work on the Etruscan mirrors, having already issued seven parts of his supplement. In addition to his labors in the Museum, and in the preparation of the great work on Pergamon, Herr Conze has charge of the Corpus of Greek grave-reliefs, also under the auspices of the Institute. In topography the most important work of the Institute is the *Karten von Attika*, by Curtius and Kaupert, of which five parts have appeared. All these publications are conducted under the immediate direction of the Institute, to which reports of progress are made by the several editors at stated intervals. The expense of these superbly illustrated volumes is naturally very great, the amount of travel necessitated being no inconsiderable item, and is, we believe, met entirely by the imperial Ministry of Public Instruction, by whom appropriations are made annually for the Institute.

ELY'S AMERICAN MUNICIPAL TAXATION.

Taxation in American States and Cities. By Richard T. Ely, Ph.D., assisted by John H. Finley, A.B. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

In spite of much hasty investigation and more hasty deduction, this volume is almost invaluable to students of American politics. It is the first attempt that has been made at a systematic presentation of the history and present status of the American experiments in local taxation. Of the qualities necessary for the work, Prof. Ely possessed three of prime importance—industry, a gift for popularizing economic subjects, and a zeal for reform. Unfortunately, it is the last of these qualities that is disproportionately prominent. As a scientific work, this volume on 'Taxation' cannot be ranked with the author's 'French and German Socialism.' It is the work of an agitator, not that of a critic. In season and out of season, Prof. Ely pleads for state and municipal socialism. The fact that the American system of levying local taxes amounts to the exercise by the public of a part ownership in the property taxed, does not in any wise satisfy him. He follows blindly his German masters. The socialism which he advocates is not the increased recognition of the duties of property, wherein America leads the world while Germany has yet the first lessons to learn, but the German ideal of state management of business enterprises. He advocates, for instance, the abandonment of the American plan of assessing abutting land for street improvements and taxing it for general public expenses, and would instead provide for "the finest educational facilities the world has ever seen" by a law or constitutional provision,

"that no new street shall be laid out by any municipality through land which it does not own; this land to be acquired as agricultural land, and to be leased as demand might arise at auction, in periods of twenty-five years, to be released at the expiration of that period; the lessee, if a new person, to acquire improvements at an appraised valuation."

There is, it will be seen, no confiscation in this plan. It is the socialism of the chair, not that of the streets. The city merely assumes the position of a private investor who goes in debt for his capital. Whether there would be profits or losses would depend upon (1) whether, in the first instance, the city councilmen showed the economy of a private investor in planning and contracting for street improvements; (2) whether they drove as good bargains in leasing the land; (3) whether as landlords they were as severe in refusing subsequent improvements; and (4) whether the citizens would be anxious to build upon land which was merely leased. In case the councilmen made extravagant contracts in laying out the streets, submitted to hard bargains in leasing the land, yielded to pressure for subsequent improvements, and found citizens averse to building upon lots which they only leased, the plan would involve a succession of losses from beginning to end.

This faith, however, in the plenary inspiration of aldermen in no way mars the historical portion of Prof. Ely's volume. Regarding details, the author shows excellent judgment as to what is interesting and significant. The volume opens with a short sketch of the universal history of taxation, from the time when the Romans waged foreign wars in order to be relieved from taxation, down to the time when Americans—an influential minority, at least—are willing to wage them in order not to be relieved. The recognition that taxation is a blessing instead of a curse did not begin to manifest itself until direct taxation was replaced by indirect. In England this occurred in the reign of Charles II., when Parliament "divested the landed gentry of all feudal obligations to the Crown, without touching their privileges, and replaced these obligations by taxes on beer, wine, tobacco, and spirits." This effectually shifted the burden of taxation upon the propertyless masses, and taxes ceased to annoy the influential classes. But they did not come to be regarded with affectionate devotion until, with the development of commerce, those who controlled legislation learned to incorporate in the tax laws protective features, by which their wealth, instead of being diminished by the nation's burdens, was increased.

Even in our own country, taxation was not always so popular as at present. In colonial times it was with the greatest difficulty that citizens could be persuaded to submit to it. In 1649 the General Treasurer of Rhode Island reported that he had received nothing and had nothing in his hands. Public expenses were frequently defrayed by quit-rents, fines, fees, and lotteries, which last were often employed to secure funds for the erection of schools, and even churches. Very early, however, the colonies had recourse to the property tax. At first the assessments were inconsiderable. In Virginia, in 1796, we find it fixed at one-fourth of one per cent. upon the assessed value of the land. Gradually, as the local governments became more thoroughly democratic, other taxes were repealed, and many of the State constitutions provided that no other should be levied. The name "American system" has been applied by the followers of Henry Clay to the protective tariff, though it was framed entirely upon European models. Prof. Ely, with much greater justice, applies the term to the system of State and local taxation which, by the middle of the century, was completely established in all our commonwealths. He describes it in a single sentence: "It is the taxation of all property, movable and immovable, . . . at one uniform rate."

Prof. Ely, as has been indicated, is not a partisan of the system. He quotes Baron von Reitzenstein's condemnation of it as primitive and crude, and himself goes so far as to declare it to be "so radically bad that the more you improve it the worse it becomes." He recognizes the intensity of the sentiment in its favor among the masses, yet characterizes the efforts to enforce it, which are increasing both in frequency and in strenuousness, as the pur-

suit of a will-o'-the-wisp. This indictment he supports with a history of the failures which have been made in various States.

This portion of the work has strength. The view taken is already accepted by many of the most intelligent students of taxation, especially in our large cities, and the scholarly way in which Prof. Ely enforces it will doubtless contribute much towards its wider acceptance. Nevertheless, he has failed to demonstrate his point. His investigation is apparently thorough, yet it is not critical. The American theory, as Prof. Ely correctly states it, is the taxation of all property, real and personal, at one uniform rate. A logical consequence of this is, that the property shall be taxed once and not twice. Another logical consequence is, that (since the tax is upon property and not upon incomes) the property shall be taxed in the State where it is, and not in a State where it is not. Where this programme has been carried out, as it has been in Connecticut respecting the stocks and bonds of railroads, and in California respecting all forms of private credits, the system has been a success. The failures which have been made, of which Prof. Ely presents such a formidable array, have been where legislation, in its attempts to reach personal property, has aimed, not at justice, but at retaliation—not at single taxation, but at double taxation.

Prof. Ely bases his declarations as to the universal and increasing failure of the attempts to reach personal property upon the assertion that, while a century ago there was comparatively little personalty in existence, it has during the past few decades rapidly assumed enormous proportions, with no corresponding increase upon the tax duplicate. This is true enough, perhaps, when the term "personalty" is used to include the various certificates of ownership in realty; but if by it is meant movable property, the existence of which adds to the national wealth, the statement is unfounded. Even railroad securities do not represent such property. If railroads were taxed as mortgaged farms are taxed, there would be no danger of driving them out of any of the States. It is thus that Connecticut is now taxing them, and Pennsylvania is preparing to follow her example. If, then, we turn our attention to personalty which exists independent of realty, and which must be taxed as personalty if taxed at all, it becomes exceedingly doubtful whether it has increased in amount or value faster than real estate. In our older and richer States it is certainly not greater comparatively than in the Territories. Regarding the farms, we have authoritative statistics. In Dakota the value of the lands and buildings is $22,400,000; the value of the live-stock, farming implements, etc., is $8,860,000, or 40 per cent. as much. In Connecticut the value of land and buildings is $121,000,000; that of the stock, implements, etc., $14,100,000, or but 11½ per cent. If, instead of farmers, we compare merchants, we know that it is in the agricultural community that the value of the stock of goods they carry is usually most out of proportion to their rents. In short, it seems highly probable that, as time advances and wealth increases, the value of movable property becomes gradually less in proportion to the value of lands and buildings.

California is the State which has attempted most logically to carry out the theory of the property tax. In California, personal property is taxed in the county where it is situated and protected, and whose inhabitants pay for its use. The fact that the owner chooses to spend his income in another community is not thought to give that community a right to levy a second tax. The Constitution provides that "a mortgage, deed of trust, contract, or other obligation by which a debt is secured, shall, for the purposes of assessment and taxation, be deemed and treated as an interest in the property affected thereby." By means of this provision the creditor is made to bear nominally as well as really the tax levied upon the property which he has loaned. This clause in the Constitution was framed for the relief of the debtors. It does relieve them, yet it relieves equally the creditors. These are permitted to contract for any rate of interest, and they are secured against double taxation. Of the success of this plan it need only be said that in 1886, while the assessed value of the realty of the State was but $600,000,000, $98,000,000 of mortgages were returned for taxation, showing practically the same percentage of mortgaged property as was found last year in the investigations of the Michigan Labor Commissioners. A plan similar to that in California is now being followed in Massachusetts.

In California the railroads are exempted from the provisions of the clause in the Constitution, and they escape their share of the taxation. But in Connecticut, as has been said, they do not escape. Here the roads are assessed that proportion of the total value of their stocks and bonds which their Connecticut mileage bears to their total mileage. In the year 1886 they paid in taxation $626,000, though the entire cost of roads and equipment, according to the estimate in Poor's 'Railroad Manual,' was but $48,391,000. Certainly these roads paid their fair share of the State's taxes. If any one will examine critically the Connecticut statistics which are given in Prof. Ely's book, he will be forced to conclude that this commonwealth taxes fully as much property, movable and immovable, as has its actual situs within its borders. The State tax on various corporations other than railroad amounts to $500,000, which is equivalent to the average tax on individual property assessed at $35,000,000. Besides this, $98,000,000 of personalty was returned to the local assessors. As the total amount of realty returned was but $250,000,000, there can be little doubt but that personal property bore its full share of the public burdens. The Connecticut system failed only where it ought to fail—where it attempted to tax intangible securities representing property outside of the State. Such an attempt, if successful, would involve double taxation, quite as much as if citizens of Connecticut were taxed on their foreign real estate. Being, therefore, unjust as well as impracticable, the Tax Commission, in its report of 1887, was wise in recommending its abandonment.

If we except the railroads, which in most States escape taxation, what is true of Connecticut is true throughout the Union. If the owners of all tangible property were taxed where the property is situated, and thus all property were taxed once, the relief to owners of real estate, and the relief to the debtors and honest creditors who now suffer from double taxation, would be of far less importance than the bringing to an end of the enormous amount of perjury now provoked, and the consequent corruption of the national sense of honor. As David A. Wells stated, a good many years ago, the chief trouble now is that the State tries to play the part of an Italian brigand. It seizes the property when the owner is elsewhere, and it seizes the owner when the property is elsewhere. In the latter event, however, it does not carry out effectively the brigand's programme, since it releases its victim if he will but perjure himself. Prof. Ely is justified in what he says of the moral effect of many of the crude attempts at vengeance upon the owners of personalty; but when he makes the chief teaching of his volume to be the ridiculous and increasing inadequacy of the property-tax to reach practically all the wealth of the nation, it is because he has accepted loose estimates regarding the extent of movable property instead of making a searching investigation, and in his zeal for revolution has ignored the successful reforms of the last decade.

Of the substitutes which Prof. Ely offers for the existing system, nothing more need be said than that he recommends that railroads be everywhere taxed upon their gross earnings, as now in Wisconsin. To this it might be objected that many political economists believe that taxes upon gross earnings, like internal-revenue taxes, are, in the main, shifted upon the consumers. It might also be objected that the Wisconsin system in 1886 yielded only 60 per cent. as much revenue as the Connecticut system, though its mileage was seven times as great. But these two objections are of little import compared with the fact that the United States Supreme Court, in May of last year (Philadelphia and Southern Mail Steamship Company v. Commonwealth of Pennsylvania) decided that all State taxes on gross receipts from inter-State or foreign commerce are unconstitutional. This far-reaching decision appears to have been wholly overlooked by Prof. Ely.

Prof. Ely has given us, in a popular form, the results of a valuable investigation; but his suggestions as to how to revolutionize the present system are, to speak temperately, worthless.

THE PART OF FRANCE IN AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE.

Histoire de la participation de la France à l'établissement des États-Unis d'Amérique : Correspondance diplomatique et documents. Par Henri Doniol. Vols. i. and ii. Paris: Imprimerie Nationale; Alphonse Picard, éditeur.

It is not inappropriate that the hundredth anniversary of the founding of the first French republic should be celebrated by the publication, by order of the French Government, of a work on the participation of France in the establishment of American independence; for the reciprocal influence of France and America in the last quarter of the eighteenth century was very great indeed. Of late years, a school of historians has undertaken to teach us that at the time of the Revolutionary war our country became much indebted to Germany and very little indebted to France. This theory excites a natural indignation in the breast of M. Henri Doniol. He will certainly find no difficulty in disposing of the shadowy claims of the friends of Germany, for there was no German government which did anything whatsoever to help the struggling colonies. On the other hand, six German States let out troops, to the number of thirty thousand in all, to put down rebellion in America. Moreover, no German officer of any distinction volunteered to come to this country to help the colonists, with the sole exception of Baron von Steuben, who was induced to do so by the French ministers; for Kalb, although of German birth, was a French officer, who had never held a German commission.

The claim of France is twofold—that of the French Government for help which materially influenced the result; and that of the French people for sympathy which often took shape in outward acts. With the latter, M. Donoil has little to do, except in the case of Lafayette, yet it is perhaps the stronger claim

of the two. The reforming party in France in 1775 contained all the most generous and thoughtful men of the nation, for the need of reform was evident and the danger not yet apparent. That party was full of enthusiasm for the "insurgents." It was not merely that England was regarded as the natural enemy, but that America itself was believed to be the home of all the virtues. The elaborate simplicity of Franklin was supposed to be typical, and to it was accorded a genuine admiration.

The Government of Louis XVI. looked at politics less sentimentally. That weak and unfortunate monarch acquired by some happy chance, and kept by what must have been an accident, one reasonably competent minister. Charles Gravier, Comte de Vergennes, was not a man of the first rank intellectually. M. Doniol tells us that he had twice, as minister plenipotentiary, checked the plans of Maria Theresa; but that monarch, in her private correspondence, expresses her entire satisfaction with the appointment of Vergennes, whom she characterizes as "not enterprising." The Count had, however, from the beginning of his ministry, one definite policy, namely, to raise the position of France in Europe by means of the Family Compact. That alliance, formed with Spain in 1761 to oppose the encroachments of England, was to be made the pivot of French policy. The close alliance with Austria which had been inaugurated by the Comte de Choiseul in the previous reign, was if necessary to be sacrificed to it. Prussia, and not Austria, Vergennes believed to be the natural ally of France in Germany. But England was the great, the necessary enemy: he considered her so depraved, both in politics and morals, that peaceful considerations would have no weight with her. Accession to power has a tendency to calm the minds of statesmen and to moderate their extreme views, but the irritation of Vergennes was kept up. Lord Stormont, the English ambassador at Versailles, was haughty; St. Paul, the chargé d'affaires, was discourteous; the British Ministers were negligent in answering the complaints made to them concerning violations of rights under the treaty in matters of fishery and commerce. It is easy to believe now that English roughness was responsible for a good deal of the trouble, but the French were uneasy and captious. Their national pride had been deeply wounded by the defeats and losses of the Seven Years' War; and the first partition of Poland, accomplished without their concurrence, seemed to mark more clearly their fall from that first place in Europe to which they considered themselves entitled.

While Vergennes looked forward, not without apprehension, to a war with England at no distant date, he had no desire to hasten it unduly. Above all, he wished Spain to be fully engaged to help France in the struggle, and at this point he was met by delay and difficulty. The views of the two courts were not identical. His Catholic Majesty, Charles III., had complicated interests, and cared less to humble England than to protect himself. If the Court of St. James could only have been brought to give him a free hand with Portugal and the Portuguese possessions in America; if it would have let him bully Morocco and restrain the Algerine pirates; if the thorn of Gibraltar could have been extracted from his side—he might have been glad to let King George set the good example of bringing American insurgents to reason. In vain did Vergennes explain that Algiers and Morocco were but flies, more discomforting than dangerous to Spain, while England was a monster, against which she should always be prepared. The Spanish King might assent to the general proposition; but he was still worried by the flies, and was not without hopes of pacifying the monster. Meanwhile, he urged his nephew, Louis XVI., to improve his fleet. Such advice was by no means uncalled for. Vergennes himself recognized the fact that France was too weak to go to war, and that reforms were needed; for the treasury was disorganized, the expenditures exceeding the receipts every year, and the navy had to be made over from the beginning. So Vergennes talked fair to the English Ministers, while he carefully watched events in America. In the summer of 1775 an agent was sent to Philadelphia. This man, Bonvouloir, was given no real powers, and could be disavowed. In accordance with a system which was extensively followed in later years, he was furnished with a commission in the French army, for the sake of impressing the Americans, and the commission was antedated. Tricks of this sort were a part of the day's work with diplomatists of the last century. M. Doniol gives the fullest account that will probably ever be obtained of the proceedings of Bonvouloir, who, before the publication of this book, had been known only as a shadowy and nameless person, who appeared for a short time at Philadelphia in the autumn of 1775. Bonvouloir sent to France in December of that year an elaborate report, representing himself as entirely in the confidence of the Committee of Secret Correspondence which Congress had appointed to manage the foreign relations of the United States. He probably lied; and, indeed, the whole conduct of the personage is not such as to inspire confidence. Yet a closer examination of his letter than is possible in the printed copy might prove interesting. We know that he was instructed to use sympathetic ink. He calls attention in his report to the words in that document that are underlined, but these, when examined, have no evident significance. Some communication in cipher is not impossible.

A far more interesting and important agent than Bonvouloir appears on the scene at about the same time with him. This is no other than Pierre Augustin Caron, known to the world as Beaumarchais, watchmaker and courtier, author and financier, swindler and man of genius Was Beaumarchais really attached in his heart to the independence of America and the glory of France? We are inclined to believe it; for the greatest scamp may have feelings, and the affections of this one were warm. But why did the French Government show him such marked favor? He was not yet one of the literary glories of France, and if his name were conspicuously before the public, it was hardly so in a way to conciliate the feelings of administrators. He had defied a court of justice and brought it into not unmerited contempt. He had been employed in some of the more crooked and hidden paths of diplomacy, and had managed to get himself arrested at Vienna on very reasonable suspicion of swindling the French court by pretending to effect the destruction of a libel on Marie Antoinette, which libel was believed either to be non-existent or to have been written by Beaumarchais himself. Why did ministers of state read and lay before the King reports in which the self-importance of the writer often sinks into impudence? Why did they entrust millions of livres to a speculator whose financial reputation was shady at best? Perhaps it was because he was such an amusing scamp, and Ministers who are courtiers like to be amused. In any case, the United States had in Beaumarchais an invaluable friend—indiscreet, but most energetic—who probably expected to make his fortune out of them, and whom they treated very shabbily in the end.

About the middle of 1776 Silas Deane, the first American envoy, arrived in Paris, to be followed at the end of the year by Dr. Franklin and by the Virginian, Arthur Lee. Throughout 1777 the diplomatic game went on. Franklin and his colleagues asked for a treaty of commerce, for arms, and for permission to sell prizes in French ports; and proposed a defensive and even an offensive alliance. Vergennes encouraged them, but granted little open help, and tried meanwhile to bring the Spanish court into a hearty acquiescence in his views. He urged that a reconciliation between the colonies and the mother country was what the Bourbon courts had most to fear. "For would not the English," said he, "powerfully armed as they are, wish to take an indemnity for the cessions which they would make to their colonies, at the expense of the two crowns? . . . We may equal them in numbers, but we cannot hide from ourselves the fact that the English surpass us as eminently in experience at sea and in skill in manœuvres, as we surpass them in the nobility and disinterestedness of our views." Lord Stormont on his side encouraged the idea of a reconciliation, with the purpose of keeping Vergennes uneasy. It was, apparently, as a part of this last plan that a secret interview was arranged between a young American named Carmichael, who acted as an unofficial secretary to the commissioners, and a person unknown. The interview took place at night in the Place Vendôme, at the foot of the statue of Louis XIV., which then stood where the column now is. The conditions proposed were just those so dreaded by Vergennes, viz., the recognition by England of American independence, and an expedition against the French and Spanish possessions in America. It was said that at a later interview Lord Stormont's secretary had confirmed these proposals. If this be true, there is little doubt that his master was quite ready to disavow him.

Another curious affair is considered at length in these pages. This is the scheme of the Comte Charles François de Broglie, who hoped to supersede Washington and become the generalissimo of the Americans. This strange plot was discovered by Friedrich Kapp in the papers of General de Kalb, who was to have been the principal agent in its execution. It would be interesting to learn what steps were taken by the latter in America towards its fulfilment, and how he became convinced that it could not succeed.

The first two volumes of M. Doniol's book end with the account of the treaties of commerce and of alliance between France and the United States, which were concluded hurriedly, without the adhesion of Spain, on the receipt of the news of Burgoyne's surrender. We look forward with expectation to the two volumes that are yet to come, which will deal with the part taken by France in the war, and with the negotiations for peace.

M. Doniol's own narrative is clear and well written. His extensive quotations from papers in the French archives form a large part of the book, and are both interesting and well edited. The work will take a place beside the monumental collections of President Sparks and the careful history of Mr. Bancroft, amplifying and elucidating them. It will throw fresh light on the history of the United States and on that of France. It contains no startling historical revelations, but it is henceforth indispensable to all thorough students of the period to which it relates.

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

History of the American Theatre before the Revolution. By George O. Seilhamer. Philadelphia: Globe Printing House.

The Annals of the Edinburgh Stage, with an Account of the Rise and Progress of Dramatic Writing in Scotland. By James C. Dibdin. Edinburgh: Richard Cameron.

The Life of Mrs. Catherine Clive, with an Account of Her Adventures on and off the Stage, a Round of Her Characters, together with Her Correspondence. By Percy Fitzgerald. London: A. Reader.

Une Première par Jour: Causeries sur le Théâtre. Par Albert Soubies. Paris: Dupret; New York: F. W. Christern.

Encyclopédie de l'Art Dramatique. Par Edmond Béquet. Paris: Dalou; New York: F. W. Christern.

Les Mémoires d'un Dompteur. Par Bidel. Paris: Librairie de l'Art; New York: F. W. Christern.

PERHAPS the best book about the stage in our language is Colley Cibber's 'Apology,' and perhaps the second best is the late G. H. Lewes's 'Actors and Acting,' both being written from abundant knowledge, sound in theory, and having a literary flavor. Such books come to the student of the stage but seldom, and, in default of such, the next best books are careful local histories, of which the first two volumes on our list are fair specimens. Mr. Seilhamer has set himself the task of telling anew, after Dunlap and Ireland, the story of the vicissitudes and the growth of the theatre in America, chiefly in New York and Philadelphia, before the Revolution. Mr. Dibdin, a member of a family honorably connected with the stage through several generations, attempts to set forth for the first time the full story of the theatre in the capital of Scotland. These books are welcome and well made, and reveal honest labor and abundant love for the subject, without which the accomplishment of the task would have been impossible.

Mr. Seilhamer's chief defect as an historian of the stage—and it is a most annoying defect—is a desire to disprove every assertion made by every preceding writer on his subject. That he does disprove some of them is no excuse whatever for his attitude of constant antagonism to all his predecessors. Toward Dunlap he is especially violent. Now, no doubt, Dunlap blundered occasionally; but he has deserved well of all lovers of the drama in America, and it would become Mr. Seilhamer to note his shortcomings with lenity. No comparison of skill as a writer is possible between Dunlap and Mr. Seilhamer, for Dunlap had a style and had studied our language; and a comparison of temper is also altogether in Dunlap's favor. Mr. Seilhamer even carries over to the recently organized Dunlap Society his hatred of Dunlap, and (p. 72) declares that the Society in one of its publications included a certain epilogue as by a certain Singleton, "thus perpetuating the mistaken assumption of the historian after whom the Society was named." We incline to the belief that Mr. Seilhamer is not a member of the Dunlap Society, or, if he is, that he has not taken the trouble to examine Mr. Hutton's excellent collection of poetical addresses, from which the epilogue to which he refers is absolutely absent. Despite this defect, and although it is not always easy to follow the thread of his story, in the main Mr. Seilhamer's work is praiseworthy He has seemingly spared no pains in the collection of material and in the preparation of lists of parts played by the different actors of the earlier companies. The comparisons of casts of the same play in succeeding years are also useful. The typography of the history is excellent. We may note that the author nowhere alludes to Dr. Edward Eggleston's researches into pre-Revolutionary theatrical history, published two or three years ago in the *Century;* apparently he is ignorant of them.

To go from Dunlap's 'History of the American Theatre' to Mr. Dibdin's 'Annals of the Edinburgh Stage' is to get a curious contrast; and yet it is easy to find not a few points of similarity. It is well known that plays were acted in New England (when the Puritan feeling was yet too strong to permit the opening of a regular theatre) as the gratuitous accompaniment of a concert for which the tickets were sold. Now in Mr. Dibdin's book (p. 54) we see that precisely the same device was adopted in 1743 in Edinburgh by Mr. Este. When we come down to the period which Dunlap knew, we find that the playgoers of Edinburgh and the playgoers of New York were going to see almost exactly the same plays. In America, it may be that there was a little more of the Teutonic sentimentality of the Kotzebue kind than there was in Scotland; and this was due, no doubt, in great measure to Dunlap's own labors as an adapting dramatist. In Scotland, on the other hand, there was a far greater proportion of dramatizations of the Waverley novels, which were more in number and which had a far greater success than in America, as might readily be expected. Mr. Dibdin's account of Scott's relation to the stage and to stage folk is pleasantly interesting. He tells at length also the story of the tragedy of "Douglas," by the production of which a Scotch clergyman was supposed to have snuffed out Shakspere; indeed, the heartfelt outcry of a Scotchman is recorded by Mr. Dibdin (p. 87): "Whaur's yer Wully Shakspere noo?"—which is oddly like the "Enfoncé, Racine!" of the Romanticists after the success of the "Henri III." of Dumas at the Théâtre-Français. In the days when "Douglas" was produced, and well into the present century, we see that a condition obtained in Edinburgh now to be seen nowhere except possibly in a few provincial towns of France and Germany. The regular playgoers were a small, compact body, loving the theatre, learned in its arts, knowing each other, and wanting their own way. The O. P. riots would not only be impossible now—they are almost inconceivable. From among the mass of interesting details in Mr. Dibdin's carefully compounded volume, we select only one, of a certain timeliness just now that Mr. Lester Wallack has so recently passed away. There was a circus in Edinburgh in 1791, and a Mr. and Mrs. Wallack were in the company; and it was in Edinburgh in 1792 that they first ventured on the dramatic boards.

Neither Mr. Seilhamer nor Mr. Dibdin is to be congratulated on his literary style, but either is a paragon in comparison with Mr. Percy Fitzgerald, who wrote badly when he began, and who writes worse year by year. His biographical sketch of Kitty Clive is just what might be expected. It contains most of the available material, pitchforked together. The facts are before the reader, for Mr. Fitzgerald has made himself acquainted with the history, memoirs, and ana of the eighteenth century; and the picture of Clive which the reader forms after perusing Mr. Fitzgerald's pages is probably accurate enough. But it is a torture to read anything so painfully ill-written, in which bad English strives with bad French. On p. 32, for example, we are told that Macklin was "more or less *lièd* (*sic*) with the manager." But Mr. Fitzgerald does not ordinarily need two languages to write badly in: he stumbles over every "and which" and "and who"; and in this turn of phrase he abounds. To make the matter worse, the book bristles with misprints, Congreve's *Miss Prue* appearing as Miss "Price," for instance. There is a frontispiece reproduction of Faber's portrait. The book has a neat vellum binding, with a decent leather label.

M. Albert Soubies, to whom we owe the always beautiful and useful annual volumes of the *Almanach des Spectacles*, has succeeded in making a sort of theatrical calendar. The date of the production of a new play in Paris is called a *première*, and M. Soubies, searching through the long history of the French drama, has found one *première* for every day in the year, from January 1 to December 31. About each *première* he gossips a little, more or less as its importance demands, and so he has furnished forth a book of four hundred pages, carefully indexed, and containing not a few notes of value. Thus, in recording the performance in 1883 of the garden scene of Boïto's "Mefistofele," M. Soubies draws attention to the sluggishness of the French opera-houses, in that Parisian lovers of music have not yet heard Wagner's operas, or Ponchielli's "La Gioconda," or Goldmark's "Queen of Sheba," or Nessler's "Rat-Catcher," or the whole of Boïto's opera, or any of the great Russian operas. "We are not curious in France," is the French critic's comment on the fact he records. M. Soubies's book is full of anecdotes; it is, in the language of the literary advertisements, just the Book for a Leisure Half-Hour.

The last two titles on the list may be dismissed briefly. An Encyclopædia of Dramatic Art is a book greatly to be desired—but M. Béquet has not met the want. His is a dull and dry compilation, of little or no utility. In the 'Grande Duchesse de Gérolstein' *Fritz*, at the end of the play, requests an appointment as schoolmaster. "Can you read?" he is asked. "No; it is to learn," is his frank answer. A perusal of M. Béquet's book suggests a doubt whether it did not proceed from his ignorance. But he has not always taught himself to advantage: it would be easy to instance many articles in his cyclopædia which are misleading and some which are absolutely wrong. The preface is a masterpiece of self-satisfied and pretentious ignorance.

For years "Bidel et ses fauves" have been favorites of the Parisian public, appearing, now in some melodrama in which a victim is thrown to the lions, and now exhibiting themselves in one or another of the suburban fairs which succeed each other in the environs of Paris throughout the summer. M. Bidel's autobiography is not without interest, although it is not quite as exciting as the illuminated cover and the flamboyant illustrations by M. Paul Cousturier might lead the intending purchaser to believe. At the end we have an account of the useful Mutual Benefit Organization which M. Bidel formed among his fellow-showmen, and of which he seems justly proud. He prints its statutes in full in a final chapter. There is a touch of natural bravado here and there throughout the book; but in the main M. Bidel is modest enough. Therefore we incline to the belief—and we express the hope—that the artist is solely responsible for the portrait, supported by two lions rampant, and bearing the motto, "Leo inter Leones."

Birds in Nature. By R. Bowdler Sharpe, F.L.S., F.Z.S., etc. With thirty-nine colored plates and other illustrations by P. Robert

Boston: Estes & Lauriat, 1888. Large 4to, pp. vi, 78.

Song Birds and Seasons. By André Theuriet. Illustrated by Hector Giacomelli. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. Imp. 8vo, pp. xvi, 200, profusely illustrated.

THESE two luxurious volumes, sumptuous in every detail, fit to adorn any centre-table, and alike of the gift-book class, are yet quite unlike each other, appealing to different tastes. Their titles exchanged would suit just as well, and either might be called "Birds in a Book," or "Birds in Season"—for the holidays.

Robert's remarkable colored plates have been out for some time. We think we first saw them about ten years ago, in a "portfolio" edition; but whether then accompanied with French text or not, our memory does not serve us to say. Whether one likes them depends upon what kind of pictures one likes. They are the work of an artist who has seen birds through hot and highly-colored glasses, and are chromo-lithographed with a wealth of tint we have never seen equalled in this kind of work. They are gorgeous and bizarre; perhaps not more strained in color-effect than in drawing, too, for the postures of some of the birds come dangerously near those conventionalized figures we see on dados and other wall decorations, while in the plain head- and tail-pieces in the text this formalism of the artist is indulged without restraint. Perhaps "Frenchy" is the most comprehensive adjective we could apply. But the pictures are far above the ordinary style of colored illustrations; they hold us with a singular fascination, and, after challenging, they defy our adverse criticism. The pansied bower in which the redstart is quivering with passion, overcomes us as easily as it does the bird's coy mate.

The text of this edition is new, and a stranger collusion of the ink-horn and the palette would be far to seek. We are minded of a couple of well-known phrases. One of these is "John Bull"; the other is "china-shop." The English author goes gunning for the French artist in the most orthodox ornithological fashion, and bags his bird at every one of the thirty-nine articles of his creed. (We beg pardon for mixing metaphors: we meant to say, of the thirty-nine shots he fires at the pictures.) Whether he has aimed high or low, written up or down, depends upon the relative standing we assign to science and art. Mr. Sharpe is the keeper of the Ornithological Department of the British Museum; the author, to a greater extent than any one else, of the fourteen volumes of the British Museum Catalogue of Birds, which are, nevertheless, not among the foremost of the many great works which have flowed from his indefatigable pen since his famous 'Monograph of the Kingfishers' appeared in 1871. Probably no man now living surpasses Sharpe in extent and accuracy of technical knowledge of birds, and certainly not half-a-dozen in the world are his peers. What, then, is he doing to Robert's designs? He is furnishing, from the depths of his consciousness and other available sources of information, public and private, thirty-nine sheets of reading matter to be interleaved with the plates; and he does it faithfully.

The other one of the two volumes in hand is not less complete in the furnishings requisite to the make-up of a book *de luxe*. Giacomelli supplied the exquisite illustrations for Michelet's 'L'Oiseau,' and how many other æsthetic and imaginative works are indebted to his dainty pencil we do not know. In this one we have a hundred or more engravings from his designs—four or five to each of the subjects of M. Theuriet's text—in the form of full-page prints, borders prettily enclosing poetry of invincible appropriateness, initials, head-pieces and tail-pieces, all in perfect taste and keeping with the purpose of the manufacturer of the volume.

We sometimes wonder whether a regular scientist is ever competent to pass judgment upon the illustrations of his craft, when these exceed the fixed limits of "diagrams" by the boundlessness of art. He is mostly a simple-minded creature, with a wonderful quality of directness and literalness, capable of being unpleasantly affected by the sight of a painting of a historical battle-scene if he cannot count the nails in the shoes of the horses, or of a fish leaping to the fly without exposing all its hypopharyngeal and branchiostegal appurtenances. If he be an ornithologist, he wants his birds—not exactly wooden, for that would be too light and airy—but of Bessemer steel, in silhouette, broadside on, with the microscopic texture, if not the molecular structure, in bold relief. So he reserves a private opinion when he sees Giacomelli's aërial prettinesses, being satisfied that no bird ever looks like that. The scientist is quite right: birds never "look like that" after passing through his hands as specimens; but they do ruffle up their feathers and take a thousand instantaneous poses that few of us know, and fewer still can catch and fix on paper. Giacomelli's pencil has always seemed to us peculiarly happy in expressing the thoughts and feelings of birds by their attitudes, and he is never better than when he puts a tender touch upon the helpless little fledglings in their nest. The whole series of designs is tasteful and pleasing; for such small pieces in plain black and white, they are wonderfully effective.

This volume is liberally supplied with text, several pages to each subject, both in prose and verse, sufficiently various to suit any reasonable range of taste. Whether the translation has lost a charm which the original possessed, or has gained a new grace of its own, we are unable to say. There are, doubtless, those who read the text of elegantly illustrated gift-books, else enterprising publishers would cease to furnish these volumes with such materials. In this case the text is printed at the University Press—which warrants us in supposing it contains scarcely a typographical error—and it flows smoothly from beginning to end of the book.

Heinrich Heine's Autobiographie. Nach seinen Werken, Briefen und Gesprächen. Herausgegeben von Gustav Karpeles. Berlin: Robert Oppenheim; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1888. 8vo, pp. 586.

THIS volume is a compilation of the autobiographic passages so abundantly scattered throughout the published writings of Heine; but, although nothing but a compilation, it is not without value, and all classes of readers will find in it something to make it welcome. It cannot help doing a useful work in making the peculiar gifts of the poet known to many who lack the time or the inclination to read his whole works, and who here can get a very good taste of his quality.

Some controversy concerning Heine's position in German literature has recently sprung up in his native land, and the most absurd attempts have been made to deny him the fame to which he is so richly entitled. One anonymous scribbler has gone so far as to assert that this great master of style could not write his own language correctly; and, in support of his assertion, cites instances of elisions of a final vowel, made for the sake of the metre. The controversy derives its only interest from the circumstance that it is involved in the anti-Semitic agitation, and shows once more the folly of mixing literature with politics. Literature is perennial, politics are shifting and temporary. We have a mild illustration among ourselves, in the wild assaults made on one of our greatest living writers by newspaper editors to whom his political views are uncongenial. Heine attached great importance to his political writings, and looked on himself as a soldier of liberty. The political causes for which he fought are, for the most part, as dead as Julius Cæsar; but what he wrote about them will never die, and will be read for its style by generations to whom its subject-matter is indifferent. In this respect he is far beyond men like Swift and Defoe, to whom he has otherwise some resemblance, but whose political pamphlets are almost unreadable to any one who has not an intimate acquaintance with the period which produced them.

Many students of Heine to whom his works are as familiar as household words, have given less attention to his letters, and for such the copious extracts from his correspondence will form the chief attraction of the present volume. Naturally, Heine's letters are even fuller than his other writings of references to himself, and afford much material for an autobiography. He was as fond of talking about himself as Montaigne; and although he did not live in as naïve a time as the French essayist, his egotism is not a whit more offensive. When he speaks of the excellence of his books—when, at the age of twenty-seven, he writes to Varnhagen, "You may expect many more right good books from me"; when, alluding to Goethe's word, "Nur die Lumpe sind bescheiden," he says that he will not deny his poetic fame with the false modesty invented by men of no account; when he justly boasts that none of his countrymen won the laurel at as early an age as he did; when he relates that the first European book published in the Japanese language was a translation of his poems; when, in many other passages, he openly proclaims his full consciousness of his rank as a poet—he never strikes the reader as being arrogant, any more than does Milton when he declares that he will write something that the world will not willingly let die.

It need hardly be said that the book is full of specimens of Heine's wit. It would be impossible to dip anywhere into his pages without bringing up abundance of it. This applies to his private correspondence as well as to his works generally. In a letter to August Lewald in November, 1836, he relates that he was in danger of drowning in the Seine. A river steamer tipped to one side, the ladies on deck screamed like mad, but he pacified them by saying: "Fear nothing, ladies, we are all under the protection of the law." He adds that mere politeness would have required him not to get drowned before receiving an answer from the German Diet to a petition which he had addressed to that body. Writing at about the same date to another friend for a loan of 400 thalers, he says: "As regards my solvency, I must tell you at the same time that at this moment my affairs stand so badly that only a fool or a friend would lend me money." The gout he describes as a *juste-milieu* sickness, seemingly invented by Louis Philippe, of which one can neither live nor die—a cholera without danger or romance. His wife he calls his *atra cura*. When he is suffering from toothache, he says that if he had the choice between a bad conscience and a bad tooth, he would choose the former. In describing one who impressed him unpleasantly, he said that he could tell by

the tone of his voice that he was one of those people who are painted gray inside and have wooden bowels. In a letter to Alexander Dumas, he mentions that a servant whom he once had, and who had seen him dictate for days at a time, when asked about his profession, said: "My master is a Dictator."

Heine's attachment to his family is made more conspicuous in this book by the collocation of detached passages scattered through his writings. He always writes with great affection of his parents, and describes even their foibles with a loving hand. He details with much humor the various ambitious plans which his mother cherished for his future greatness, now in one walk of life, now in another. He relates that she was economical for herself, but could be lavish for the pleasure of others; and as she did not love money, but only esteemed it, she gave it away with a light hand. She sold all her jewels to enable him to attend the university for four years. His father, a very handsome man, had at one time been a commissary in the army of Prince Ernest of Cumberland, afterwards King of Hanover, and had, in that service, contracted expensive tastes, for the gaming table, for actresses, for horses and dogs, and the like. Out of love for his wife he established himself as a merchant in Düsseldorf, but his temperament and inclinations did not qualify him for success in business. Heine says that one day, when some of his irreverent remarks were reported to his father, accompanied with an accusation of atheism, the latter gave him the longest lecture he had ever had, as follows:

"My dear son, your mother allows you to study philosophy under Rector Schallmeyer. That is her affair. For my part, I do not like philosophy, for it is pure superstition, and I am a merchant and need my wits for my business. You may be as much of a philosopher as you wish, but I beg you not to say openly what you think, for it would hurt my business if my customers learned that I had a son who does not believe in God; the Jews, particularly, would buy no more velveteens of me, and they are honest men, pay promptly, and are quite right to stick to their religion. I am your father, and consequently older than you and more experienced; therefore you may take my word for it, if I permit myself to tell you that atheism is a great sin."

How much of this speech is Heine's own, the reader must guess for himself.

Heine's money troubles, his bad health, his persecution by the German governments, his quarrels with his friends and relatives, his many disappointments, his controversies with his publisher, well known as they all have been for years, are here brought together in such a way as to vindicate him from some of the harsh accusations made against him in the past, and now revived in Germany. Severe judges will regard some of his traits with disapproval; but the more charitably inclined, mindful of the proverbial infirmities of genius, will acquit him of all meanness or lack of principle, and will consider that, on the whole, he is deserving of sympathy rather than of condemnation.

The Sunday-School: Its Origin, Mission, Methods, and Auxiliaries. (The Lyman Beecher Lectures before Yale Divinity School, for 1888.) By H. Clay Trumbull. Philadelphia: John D. Wattles. 1888.

THE spell of the Theological Seminary must have been upon Mr. Trumbull to make him open his course of lectures with this definition: "A Sunday-school is an agency of the Church by which the Word of God is taught interlocutorily, or catechetically, to children and other learners clustered in groups or classes under separate teachers; all these groups and classes being associated under a common head." But his little fishes soon stop talking like whales, and the author's acknowledged learning, industry, and literary skill are well displayed in the 400 pages that follow. Identifying the modern Sunday-school with the synagogue instruction in the Torah and with the catechetical schools of the early Church, he treats of its Jewish origin and Christian adoption, gives an outline of its history for seventeen centuries, details its modern revival and expansion, and discusses the many questions pertaining to its administration and its relation to the family and the Church. All this is done with characteristic thoroughness and ability. One might protest against some of his rather extravagant claims for the Sunday-school, as, for example, that the want of it was the principal cause of the "dark ages," and that "America has been practically saved to Christianity and the religion of the Bible by the Sunday-school;" but this is at once recognized and pardoned as the enthusiasm of a specialist. We note, too, that the grave distrust of the whole Sunday-school movement felt and expressed by eminent leaders of the Church, the late Dr. R. D. Hitchcock for instance, is rather put aside than squarely met. A capital index rounds out the book.

The Life and Life-work of Behramji M. Malabari. By Dayaram Gidumal, LL.B., C.S. Bombay: Education Society's Press. 1888.

THIS book offers more samples of that curious, almost hybrid, culture and civilization which English occupation of India has produced. The subject of this biographical sketch—for it is but a sketch—is still living, not having yet reached the age of forty. He early won fame as a poet, first in Gujarati and later in English. Of the quality of his verse in the former language we cannot judge, but of his "Indian Muse in English Garb" it appears to be safe to say that the cleverness shown in the use of an alien tongue is greater than the excellence of the poetry. As a journalist, Malabari's work has been associated with the *Indian Spectator*, which he has made, perhaps, the leading periodical edited by natives and printed in English. The last few years he has given to a tireless agitation for social reform, his efforts being mainly directed to the abolition of the system of infant marriages and enforced widowhood. It is undoubtedly as a contribution to this programme of reform that the biography has been prepared by the hand of a friend. The copious selections from Malabari's writings and speeches, which are appended, yield a good idea of his ability and activity, and, it would seem, self-sacrifice. The religious note of the book may be gathered from its dedication to Ram Mohan Roy and Keshub Chunder Sen. Brought into close contact with Christian missionaries, and acknowledging great indebtedness to them, particularly to the famous Dr. Wilson, Malabari adheres to the religion of his fathers, finding, apparently, that it is as easy to spiritualize Zoroastrianism as Christianity.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Balfour, A. J. The Religion of Humanity. Edinburgh: David Douglas.
Bamberger, L. National. Berlin: Rosenbaum & Hart
Barton, S. The Battle of the Swash, and the Capture of Canada. C. T. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Beard, Rev. C. The Universal Christ, and Other Sermons, Preached in Liverpool. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Beneke, W. The Human Foot: A Few Practical Words on the Covering and Protecting of It. The Author.
Bentzon, Th. Le Mariage de Jacques. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern.
Berger, Prof. F. French Conversations, Idiomatic Expressions and Proverbs. F. Berger.
Besant, W. The World Went Very Well Then. Harper & Bros.
Besant-Rice. 'Twas in Trafalgar's Bay, and Other Stories. Library ed. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Black, W. In Far Lochaber. Harper & Bros.
Bray, S. Alice. The Baby's Journal. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.50.
Brooks, Rev. P. O Little Town of Bethlehem. E. P. Dutton & Co. 75 cents.
Browning, O. Aspects of Education. Industrial Education Association.
Bruce, Prof. A. B. The Training of the Twelve; or, Passages out of the Gospels Exhibiting the Disciples of Jesus under Discipline for the Apostleship. A. C. Armstrong & Co. $2.50.
Burnham, Clara Louise. Young Maids and Old. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
Butterworth, H. Zig-Zag Journeys to the Antipodes. Illustrated. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.75.
Calkins, Rev. W. Keystones of Faith; or, What and Why We Believe. The Baker and Taylor Co. 75 cents.
Clarke, J. E. Chatterbox. 1888. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.25.
Clement, R. E. Studies of the Federal Constitution. Arranged for Schools. A. Lovell & Co.
Coffin, C. C. Marching to Victory: The Second Period of the War of the Rebellion. Harper & Bros.
Conway, M. D. Omitted Chapters of History Disclosed in the Life and Papers of Edmund Randolph, Governor of Virginia, etc. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.
Coöperation in Christian Work. The Baker & Taylor Co.
Cowper, W. The Diverting History of John Gilpin. Illustrated by H. Rosa. George Routledge & Sons. $1.50.
Cruger, Mary. How She Did It; or, Comfort on $150 a Year. D. Appleton & Co.
Dodd, Anna Bowman. Glorinda: A Story. Boston: Roberts Bros. 75 cents.
Edward, Earl of Clarendon. The History of the Rebellion and Civil Wars of England, begun in the Year 1641. Reëdited by W. D. Macray from a fresh collation of the Original MS. in the Bodleian Library. In 6 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Edwards, G. W. Sundry Rhymes from the Days of our Grandmothers. Illustrated. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $4.
Etheridge, R. Fossils of the British Islands. Vol. I. Palæozoic, comprising the Cambrian, Silurian, Devonian, Carboniferous, and Permian Species. Oxford: Clarendon Press. New York: Macmillan.
Ewart, H. C. Leaders Upward and Onward: Brief Biographies of Noble Workers. Thomas Whittaker. $1.50.
Familiar Rhymes from Mother Goose. With New Pictures by Chester Loomis. E. P. Dutton & Co.
Firth, J. C. Our Kin Across the Sea. Longmans, Green & Co.
Fuller, E. The Dramatic Year. 1887–1888. With a Sketch of the Season in London by William Archer. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.
Gerard, Dorothea. Orthodox: A Tale. D. Appleton & Co.
Gibbons, J. Tenure and Toil; or, Rights and Wrongs of Property and Labor. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Goethe, J. W. von. Hermann and Dorothea. Translated by E. A. Bowring. Illustrated. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Goldsmith, O. The Traveller. Illustrated. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Hale, Lucretia P. Faggots for the Fireside. A Collection of Games for Evenings at Home and Social Parties. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.25.
Hamilton, J. A. Life of Daniel O'Connell. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 75 cents.
Hawthorne, J. Mother's Crime: From the Diary of Inspector Byrnes. Cassell & Co. $1.
Hints About Men's Dress. By a New York Clubman. D. Appleton & Co.
Holmes, N. Realistic Idealism in Philosophy Itself. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Ketchum, Annie Chambers. Botany for Academies and Colleges. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Kirk, H. C. When Age Grows Young: A Romance. C. D. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Koopman, H. L. Woman's Will: A Love-Play in Five Acts. With Other Poems. Buffalo: Moulton, Wenborne & Co.
Lillie, Lucy C. The Household of Glen Holly. Illustrated. Harper & Bros.
Lubbock, Sir J. On the Senses, Instincts, and Intelligence of Animals, with special reference to Insects. Illustrated. D. Appleton & Co.
Mackenzie, Sir Morell. Frederick the Noble. Brentano.
Malleson, Col. G. B. Life of Prince Metternich. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 75 cents.
Mason, E. T. British Letters, Illustrative of Character and Social Life. 3 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $4.50.
Maxwell, W. H. Introductory Lessons in English Grammar. A. S. Barnes & Co. 50 cents.
Munsey, F. A. The Boy Brokers; or, Among the Kings of Wall Street. Frank A. Munsey & Co. $2.
Norwood, T. M. Plutocracy; or, American White Slavery: A Politico-Social Novel. American News Co.
Ober, F. A. The Knockabout Club in the Antilles. Illustrated. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.50.
Peard, Frances Mary. To Horse and Away. Illustrated. Thomas Whittaker. $1.05.
Peck, Prof. W. G. Elementary Treatise on Determinants. Enlarged ed. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Perry, Nora. The Youngest Miss Lorton, and Other Stories. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
Pollard, A. Sir Philip Sidney's Astrophel and Stella. Edited from the folio edition of 1598. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.75.
Porter, J. G. Our Celestial Home: An Astronomer's View of Heaven. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.
Problems of American Civilization. The Baker & Taylor Co.
Proctor, R. A. Great Circle Sailing. Longmans, Green & Co.
Quick Cooking: A Book of Culinary Heresies. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Rabbe, F. Shelley; The Man and the Poet. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $2.
Roberts, E. Shoshone, and Other Western Wonders. Illustrated. Harper & Bros.
Roe, E. P. "Miss Lou." Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Shepherd, H. A. Antiquities of the State of Ohio. Illustrated. Cincinnati: John C. Yorston & Co.
Smith, Helen A. Stories of Persons and Places in America. Illustrated. George Routledge & Sons. $1.50.
Sorel, A. Montesquieu. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Spurgeon, Rev. C. H. The Cheque-Book of the Bank of Faith. A. C. Armstrong & Co. $1.
Stables, G. The Dashing Days of Old. The World-Wide Adventures of Willie Grant. Illustrated. Thomas Whittaker. $1.50.
Talbot, C. R. Romulus and Remus: A Dog Story. Illustrated. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.
The Mapleson Memoirs. 1848–1888. 2 vols. Belford, Clarke & Co.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 8, 1888.

The Week.

WHEN President Cleveland sent his message to Congress last December, his supporters throughout the Northern States, while applauding his courage and feeling that he had rendered the country a great service by presenting a new and living issue for parties to divide upon, felt also that he had sacrificed himself to a principle, and that the first battle in the issue he presented would inevitably be lost. Well, the first battle has been lost, by a narrow vote. What follows? The world moves, either forward or backward; it does not stand still. The victors in Tuesday's contest can no more stand still than the vanquished. The responsibility for the national finances will, after the 4th of March next, rest with the Republican party. The surplus will stare Mr. Harrison in the face, just as it now stares Mr. Cleveland. It must be got rid of, either by reduced taxation or by extravagant appropriations. The smallness of the Republican majority forbids that the latter policy should be adopted. It will not be safe to inaugurate a system of national profligacy in order to empty the Treasury. As little will it be safe to repeal the whiskey tax in order to maintain imposts on the necessaries of life. The masses have got an inkling for the first time that the tariff is a tax on consumption, and therefore an undue and unjust burden upon labor. They are not likely to forget anything that they have learned in this campaign of education. The Republican leaders, those who in former years have denounced the present exorbitant tariff and tried to bring it within the measure of decency, will now be put to it to stem the rising tide which calls for reform in our system of national taxation—a tide whose impulses are not unfelt in their own ranks. We will not anticipate the outbreak of tariff reform in Republican councils, but we do not see how it can be avoided. But whether it comes in that quarter sooner or later, this great battle, on an entirely new issue, which so narrowly escaped being a victory, will go on. An audience has been secured at last for the principle that every man has the right to the fruits of his own labor, without deduction for the recompense of the labor or capital of others. Nobody who took part in this first skirmish will lay down his arms till victory is won.

New Jersey shows an increased plurality for Cleveland over 1884. Connecticut has again been carried for Cleveland, as in 1884, though by a reduced plurality. The result in these two States shows that the "tariff scare" did not work in the great manufacturing strongholds. The local election in Newark a few weeks ago indicated that the laboring men had studied this question, and could not be fooled by the advocates of the high tariff; the result of the election in New Jersey and Connecticut demonstrates the correctness of this inference. For many years New York has gone Democratic in every Presidential election when New Jersey and Connecticut were carried by that party. Upon an issue affecting all three States so evenly as that of tariff reform, one would have expected a similar concurrence this year. The returns from those election districts which include the great manufacturing industries in this State show that the tariff scare did not work any better in those districts than in Newark, or Paterson, or New Haven, or Hartford. It is impossible to resist the conviction that, if the sole issue presented in this State on Tuesday had been the tariff, Mr. Cleveland would have carried New York, as he did New Jersey and Connecticut. It is unnecessary to go beyond the city of Brooklyn to find the proof that Mr. Cleveland was beaten in the State of New York, not because a majority of the voters condemn his policy on tariff reform, but because a majority of the voters would not sustain for the Presidency a party which nominated a man like David B. Hill for Governor.

Now that the political campaign is ended, we can take an unbiased look at the Treasury surplus. On October 30 it amounted to $74,491,969, having been reduced by bond purchases during the month about $22,000,000, of which a large sum went for premiums. The problem which confronted the nation fourteen months ago, when the last 3 per cents were called in, is still before us, pressing for solution. Whether the one party or the other controls the next Congress, or whether the two Houses remain as now under the control of different parties, the surplus is there, growing and menacing the country in various ways. It menaces all business interests unless it is shovelled out in some way. It menaces all social interests however it may be poured out. If spent for extravagance, it demoralizes. If spent for premiums on bonds, it puts in the hands of the Secretary of the Treasury a power which no human being ought ever to exercise—the power to make money scarce or plenty over the whole country and even in foreign countries. Up to this time nothing has been done to put away this evil, to relieve this strain, to banish this temptation. Let us hope that now, the political strife being over, steps may be forthwith taken to reduce the surplus in an honest way, and to remove the blackest cloud on the horizon of our daily life.

There is every reason for believing that the alleged use of large sums of money in deciding Tuesday's election will lend a powerful aid to the agitation in favor of ballot reform. If we had a perfectly secret ballot, as we ought to have, all attempts at bribery would cease as quickly and completely in this country as they did in England when the English Ballot Act went into effect there. Great as are the offences against an honest ballot committed here, they have never reached the openness, variety, and extent in which they existed in England before the enactment of the new law. While the provisions of that law requiring the publication after election of sworn statements of all expenditures by candidates or their agents, and requiring also the keeping of such expenditures within fixed limits, had much to do with restricting the use of money in elections, still it is the unanimous opinion of all authorities that the mere requirement of secrecy in the ballot has done more than all else to stop bribing, since no man is willing to risk his money in bribing a voter whom he cannot follow to the polls to see if he votes in accordance with the bribe.

At the National Republican Convention there was a distinct pledge made by the Indiana men that, if Harrison were nominated, they would not ask for a cent of money from other States. Give us the candidate, they said, and we will take care of Indiana ourselves. They were taken at their word. They got the candidate, and what has happened since? In a pecuniary sense, it is a question for Republicans only. But in a larger sense it possesses a more widespread interest, for it is now plain that the Republicans of Indiana have "gone back on" their promise to ask no money from the National Committee. This is shown by the tenor of the letter addressed by William W. Dudley to the chairmen of the Republican County Committees in Indiana, which, with amazing effrontery, outlined a scheme for buying the State of Indiana for the Republican ticket. To comprehend the significance of the letter it is necessary to know something of its writer. Col. Dudley has for many years been one of the most prominent Republicans in Indiana, and has been, by the appointment of Republican Presidents, Marshal of the United States District Court in that State and Commissioner of Pensions at Washington. He has been Treasurer of the Republican National Committee during the late canvass, and the special friend and personal representative upon that Committee of Gen. Harrison, who desired his election as Chairman of it.

But this is not all. Col. Dudley was one of the men who managed the Republican campaign for the Indiana election of October, 1880, when the State was bought outright for the Republican party. This was the campaign of which Mr. W. P. Fishback, a leading lawyer of Indianapolis, a former partner of Gen. Harrison, and a lifelong Republican, said, in an open letter to Mr. Peelle, a Republican Congressman, published five years ago and never questioned: "Men like Dorsey will come to Indiana again, as they came in 1880, and disburse $400,000 in the Dennison House parlors, to be used in buying votes, hiring repeaters, bribing election officers to stuff ballot-boxes and falsify election returns. You know that there are men high in office because they connive at such crimes, and it is no secret that men honored by the

party are so honored mainly because they aided the escape of arrested felons, who were hired to come from other States to violate the election laws of Indiana." This, too, was the campaign the result of which was celebrated by that famous banquet given at Delmonico's by most reputable citizens of the metropolis in honor of that notorious rascal, Stephen W. Dorsey, Secretary of the Republican National Committee, who had superintended the work of buying the State—a banquet at which the man who had been elected Vice-President by virtue of the Indiana corruption, and who afterwards became President, cynically confessed that "Indiana was really a Democratic State," and had been made Republican by the use of "a great deal of" what he euphemistically called "soap." This, too, was the campaign Col. Dudley's own share in which was rewarded by Garfield with the appointment of Commissioner of Pensions, the thoroughly efficient incumbent being dismissed in the middle of his term to make place for him. Indeed, it was Col. Dudley among others whom Mr. Fishback had in mind when he said that "there are men [in 1883] high in office because they connive at such crimes."

Among the dregs and offscourings of the campaign there remains a Republican document entitled "An Open Letter to Workingmen," by Nathaniel McKay, illustrated by a series of cuts that were used by the protectionists in England in 1846 or thereabouts, before that country was emancipated from such folly. "The majority of the illustrations used in this pamphlet can be seen at Mr. McKay's office, 15 Whitehall Street, New York," is the legend at the top of the title-page. For our part, we should consider the man who would take the trouble to reproduce the pictures, with a view to influencing votes for protection here, a greater curiosity than any illustration in the pamphlet. By what mental process Mr. McKay was led to suppose that the condition of a chain-maker in England forty or fifty years ago, when he was taxed on his bread for the benefit of the landowners, could be made useful to those who are taxing the laboring man here on his clothing for the benefit of wool-growers and others, is a mystery that puzzles us not a little. The picture represents a man and his wife both working at the forge, both barefooted, ragged, and unkempt, with two ragged and emaciated children in the same room. What in the world has this to do with the manufacture of chains in the United States in the year 1888? How could these poor creatures, even if they were now alive, compete with the workmen in Cooper, Hewitt & Co.'s mills at Trenton, for instance, where chains are turned out by machinery by the yard, the rod, and the mile? How can anybody who makes chains by hand, fashioning each link out of a bar of iron by hammering, just as horse-nails were made by blacksmiths forty years ago—how can any such workman, if there be any such still living in England or anywhere, reduce the wages of chain-makers here who can turn out forty links while the hand-worker is turning out one? The idea is grotesque, but not so grotesque as Mr. McKay's invitation to the public to come and see the original picture at his office.

"An English Invasion" is the title of a Republican campaign document issued at the office of the Chicago *Inter-Ocean* a few days ago. This is not an invasion with ironclads, as the startled reader might imagine from a hasty glance, but with iron castings. It is affirmed in the document that the Denver City Cable Railroad Company invited bids for 5,000 tons of iron castings for their plant, and that proposals were received from four Chicago firms and from St. Louis, Cincinnati, Kansas City, Belleville, Ill., Birmingham, Ala., and Omaha, and also from one English firm; and that the English bid was the lowest, notwithstanding the fact that they have to deliver the castings in Denver and pay a duty of 1¼ cents per pound ($28 per ton), which the *Inter-Ocean* says is equivalent, on this class of goods, to 40 per cent. ad valorem. Of course the English concern got the contract, and of course, when the contract is fulfilled, there will be added to Uncle Sam's menacing surplus the sum of $140,000 in the way of duties on 5,000 tons of castings. The *Inter-Ocean* does not allude to this feature of the affair, but sends up a great wail about the loss suffered by this country because of English cheap iron. "It means," says the document, "the loss of over 10,000 tons of ore to American consumption, and of over 10,000 tons of fuel." Other losses are mentioned, but no gains are acknowledged, although it is manifest that we shall gain 5,000 tons of castings which will necessarily be paid for by the proceeds of American labor of some kind.

Now glance for one moment at the false statement that this Denver transaction causes *a loss* of 10,000 tons of American ore and 10,000 tons of American fuel. The truth is, that all the ore and all the fuel are *saved* and not a ton lost. We have the castings, and the ore and the fuel besides, and of course the ore and the fuel will come in play in good time. When the writer of this document said that we had lost ore and fuel by buying castings in England, he meant that we had postponed for a time the using of certain natural resources which, although extensive, are of limited quantity, and when once used can never be replaced. This is the exact truth, but if he had put it in this way, instead of asserting that we had *lost* 10,000 tons of each of those valuable materials, his document would have been useless for catching the votes of the unwary. Then he goes on to ask, "What would be the result to American foundrymen if the duty was still further reduced?" This question might better be put to the Republicans of the Senate than to the supporters of the Mills bill, for the latter makes no change in the duty on iron castings, while the Senate bill reduces it from 1¼ cent to 1 2-10 cent per pound. This is not a large reduction, but is $1.12 per ton, and, on the Denver contract would amount to $5,600. For our own part, we discredit the whole story from beginning to end, for the reason that our entire importations of iron castings in 1887 under the 1¼ cent duty were only $28,154, and this included andirons, sadirons, tailors' irons, and hatters' irons. If the foundrymen of Chicago cannot compete with English foundrymen at Denver, when the latter are handicapped with a duty of $28 per ton and five or six thousand miles of transportation besides, they are greater slovens than we have taken them for.

Several Republican newspapers have been keeping the following apothegm from the mouth of Gen. Harrison standing in their columns, viz.:

"No man's wages should be so low that he cannot make provision in his days of vigor for the incapacity of accident or the feebleness of old age."

Our first objection to this is, that the sentiment is stolen from Gov. David B. Hill of New York without credit. Gov. Hill first promulgated it to an astonished public at a county fair in western New York (Dunkirk, we believe). He began by saying that the great cause of discontent was poverty. From this bold preamble he reasoned that every man ought to have wages sufficient to provide a comfortable support for his family, and to afford him reasonable time for recreation and religious worship, and to make provision for old age. We have admired this sentiment for about three years—we believe it was three years ago that Gov. Hill first propounded it. We have suggested sundry amendments and improvements from time to time, which, it seems, have not attracted Gen. Harrison's attention. We have thought that every man's wages should be high enough to enable him to dress respectably, and go to the theatre occasionally, and visit the seashore or the mountains now and then, and to have a glass of light, wholesome wine on his table after his day's work. Everybody must admit that these things would do away with discontent, promote social order, and make America the happiest land that the sun shines upon. Why did Gen. Harrison restrict the wage-worker to the meagre bill of fare prescribed in the foregoing quotation?

Mr. William W. Justice of Philadelphia objects to our remarks upon his campaign document entitled "A Word to Farmers," in which he reminded them of the benefits that the tariff on wheat and flour confers upon them, by preventing the importation of grain from Russia and India "whenever the price here is higher than in Europe." We remarked upon this singular document that during a period of thirty-eight years our *exports* of wheat and flour had been growing continually, with some variations depending upon the state of the harvests, and that they had risen from a total value of $7,742,315 in the year 1850 to $142,666,563 in 1887. And then we asked what likelihood there was that we should ever be importing wheat from Russia and India, so that the farmer could have his innings at the game of grab at which he has been cheated ever since protective tariffs began in this country. Mr. Justice replies that "at this present moment, were it not for the United States customs tariff of 20

cents per bushel on wheat and 20 per cent. ad valorem on flour, millions of bushels of foreign wheat would unquestionably now be under contract for shipment from European ports to the United States, and large quantities of American flour, which have been exported from America to foreign countries for a market, could be brought back to America, after paying a reasonable ocean freight, and sold at a large profit in America."

Mr. Justice is altogether wrong in his calculations. In the first place, American flour reimported in the original packages is not subject to duty. Consequently there is no obstacle to the reimportation of "large quantities of American flour." But it does not come. On the contrary, there was exported from our Atlantic ports in the week ending October 27 (the last week for which we have official returns) 197,714 barrels of flour (of which 114,449 went to Great Britain) and 53,144 bushels of wheat, all of which, except 2,000 bushels, went to the United Kingdom. Now, how does this come about? By referring to the quotations in Liverpool and New York respectively, we find that the best American wheat is quoted in the former market at 43s. 9d. per quarter, which is equivalent to about $1.30 per bushel, while the same article is quoted in the latter at $1.09½ per bushel. Mr. Justice tells us that it does not cost over 6 cents a bushel for freight between Liverpool and New York. Add 6 cents to the New York price and we have $1.15½, which leaves an abundant margin for all other expenses and risk. This would seem to account for the fact, otherwise unintelligible, that we are still exporting some wheat and flour, although prices at Chicago are actually higher than at New York, and much too high to warrant shipments from that market to this. The Chicago prices are purely speculative, and they have no more relation to the permanent export trade than "Old Hutch's" September wheat corner had to the permanent domestic trade.

Mr. Theo. Mayor, a well-known citizen of Berkshire, Tioga County, New York, and an old and earnest Republican, has published in the Owego *Gazette* a letter to his brother farmers, containing transcripts of accounts of the farm which he has worked for thirty-four years. We have not room for Mr. Mayor's detailed figures, but we give a summary of his conclusions, drawn from comparison of the prices of produce in those years which, he says, "according to our high 'protection' friends, were years of starvation prices," with the pampered "home market" years of 1879-87. Premising that, "of the dairy produce, I wish to say in those times, as a general rule, summer butter was not the article manufactured now, as we did not use ice or the present improved dairy methods, and you found very few fine summer firkins: at present, such butter would sell for grease," Mr. Mayor says:

"Now, brother farmers, I ask you, Are these starvation prices, or much lower than those you receive at the present time? But you will perceive at once that corn, wheat, wool, cattle, and pork brought then a better price than we receive now; butter, oats, and beef very much the same. Ten cents per pound of tariff protection on wool ought to have raised it in latter years to 43, 45, or 46 cents, according to the prices I received under no protection; but you have only received 25, 28, and 30 cents, or on the average from 3 to 8 cents less than I did from 1855 to 1858. Wheat has been quoted within two years at 70 cents per bushel, shelled corn at 50 cents, pork 5 cents per pound, to say nothing about our taxes, which have quadrupled since 1860."

This address, made to farmers in the county paper of an agricultural community, appeals for verification to their own experience as students of "markets" and not of "maxims."

We had no idea that Friends Joseph Wharton and Isaac H. Clothier of Philadelphia could be so wily and worldly-wise as they have shown themselves in "A Few Earnest Words to Friends" (Quakers), put out in a fly-leaf just before the election. They were troubled, first of all, by the conduct of the Administration towards the Indians. They were troubled, secondly, by the growing "fixed and systematic oppression" of the colored people at the South. They were troubled, thirdly, by the way "the Administration party works most harmoniously with the whiskey Trusts and drinking saloons." But we knew well that their greatest trouble was the fourth, namely, Cleveland's "policy of tariff destruction," which, however, we were shocked to learn, is merely a dodge to divert attention from the "ultimate purpose" of the Democrats "of placing the South, with all its barbarisms, once more in full control of the national Government." Sly fellows, the Democrats, but not sly enough to hide their real designs from Friends Wharton and Clothier. What pained us most in the document, however, was the remedy for these terrible evils and dangers. It is neither more nor less than that the Friends should "hold for a time their prohibition views in abeyance," as, "by voting for the Republican candidates, [they] simply relegate to the future a question which is not now before us, while assisting by their votes in the advancement of several concerns which are held dear by Friends, and in preventing the overthrow of that beneficent system of protection to home industry," etc., etc. O Joseph, Joseph, O Isaac, Isaac, if the liquor question was not before you, where was it? What had become of the drunkards? And what about the free-whiskey plank in the platform?

"It is the last straw that breaks the camel's back." Such must have been the exclamation of Mr. John D. Long when he received the letter of Prof. Bowen of Harvard in reply to his (Long's) request that Prof. Bowen would write a letter to be read at the Republican meeting in Cambridge on Friday. Prof. Bowen is the sole representative, among *American* college professors and ex-professors of political economy, of the doctrine of protection—one of the very few who have any toleration for it. His work entitled 'American Political Economy' does favor protection of the kind advocated by Henry Clay half-a-century ago, this being, as has been repeatedly shown in this campaign, a very different thing from that advocated by the Republican party to-day. Consequently, Prof. Bowen has been looked up to as a sort of monument, almost a solitary one, for everything labelled "protection." Mr. Long must have been nearly stunned when he received Prof. Bowen's letter, telling him that the present tariff is tyranny and not protection, that it is crushing our native industries, and taxing the necessaries of life to such a degree that it drives our native workmen into riotous attempts to raise the rate of wages upon which they can no longer subsist. Mr. Long's cup must have been full when he received this letter, and so, we judge, was the *Tribune's;* but although this veracious paper had a telegram nearly a column long concerning the Cambridge meeting at which Prof. Bowen's letter was to have been read, it made no mention of it.

The Republican party, which a few years ago was denouncing Gen. Butler as a disreputable politician, whose support was a thing to be dreaded by any party, has sunk so low that it implored his aid, and sent him to Michigan to preach the high-tariff doctrine in the hope of preventing that State from going for tariff reform. The Democratic papers simply reprinted passages from his own speeches of a few years ago, as, for instance, this from a speech in 1882:

"I am one of the largest woollen-manufacturers in the United States. I do not say this boastingly, but to show that I am not selfish in the views I hold. The cloth I wear [placing his hand on his coat-sleeve] is of my own manufacture, and I notice several gentlemen around me who wear the same. On these goods there is a tariff of 60 per cent. Republican orators and newspapers tell you this tariff is to protect the mill-laborers. Twenty per cent. will pay our entire labor expenses. What do you suppose becomes of the other 40 per cent.? These same Republican orators and newspapers tell you it goes into the United States Treasury. Not a dollar reaches there. Every cent goes into my pocket. [Slapping his hand on his pocket vigorously to give emphasis to his words.] And every one of you is paying this bounty to the woollen-manufacturers. *The whole tariff scheme is an imposition and a fraud on the American people.*"

It is a noteworthy fact, to which we have not seen attention called, that the two great Northern gifts for the education of Southern negroes—that of the late John F. Slater of Norwich six years ago, and that of Mr. Daniel Hand of Guilford a few weeks ago—have come from the State which, in the old days, was among the slowest of the New England States in supporting the anti-slavery agitation, and stoutest in opposing the education of colored youth within her own borders. It was within the shadow of Yale College that a town-meeting in New Haven decreed what would now be called a shot-gun quarantine against an institution for the manual education of negro youth proposed to be established there; and it was in the old-fashioned New England village of Canterbury that Miss Prudence Crandall's incendiary plot for teaching colored girls was suppressed by the joint efforts of the mob and of the officers of the law. There is a poetic justice in the fact that Connecticut, which stoned the prophets of negro education half-a-century ago, is now foremost in benefactions for the promotion of that object throughout the country.

RETROSPECT AND PROSPECT.

It is now eleven months since President Cleveland gave the country a live political issue to take the place of the dead and decaying controversies of the past. The issue he presented would have forced its way to the front ere long, even if Blaine had been elected instead of Cleveland four years ago. It was Mr. Cleveland's merit that he had a clear view of the future. It is statesmanship in the highest sense to plant one's party on the right side of an issue which is destined to dominate the future political life of the nation. It is Mr. Cleveland's crown of merit, more enduring and ennobling than any temporary victory, that he awakened his own party from slumber, and put before it the splendid task of emancipating American industry from its present thraldom.

The Mills bill, or any bill drawn upon similar lines, is merely a repeal of a war measure. Time and again has it been admitted by the leaders of the Republican party that the present tariff was passed to provide means for a desperate struggle now happily passed away. Time and again did they promise to repeal this war tariff and to reduce the public burdens to the measure of a peace establishment and a lightened national debt. Time and again have their more enlightened Senators demanded that those promises be fulfilled; but as years rolled on, the grip of the protected classes grew tighter and tighter. The Republican party insensibly fell under the domination of men who had become rich by an iniquitous system of taxation, like the Whig party of old. Feeble attempts were made in 1872 and in 1883 to shake off this yoke of vulgar and ill-gotten wealth, to abolish the tolls on industry, and to restore to the common people the natural right to the fruits of their own labor. For particulars, read the speeches of Senators Sherman and Allison, not to mention the names of Garfield, Grant, Arthur, Folger, McCulloch, Hale, Ingalls, Logan, and other living and dead statesmen who have held the highest positions in the councils of the party and the nation. Time would fail us to recount them all.

There came a change in the ideas controlling the Republican party. We were told that a tariff is not a tax, or at all events that it is not a tax if it is levied on things that are produced in this country or can be produced here. It is a tax if levied on tea or coffee, because these articles are not produced here, but it is not a tax if levied on wool or tin plate, because these are or may be produced here. This idea found expression in the Chicago platform. If the tariff is a tax, the conclusion follows that the tax is paid by somebody and received by somebody else. Then by logical steps it becomes necessary to show that the tax so paid and received gets back to the payer in exact proportion to his payment, in which case nobody is better off than if the tax had not been levied at all. On the contrary, since it costs something to collect taxes, everybody in the supposed case is worse off. Nobody can be bettered unless he gets something that he has not earned, something that belongs to somebody else.

The idea that a tariff is not a tax, embodied in the Chicago platform and getting its highest expression in the free-whiskey plank, did not wear well. It was abandoned on the 4th of October, when the Senate Committee reported its substitute for the Mills bill. The Republican party "changed front in face of the enemy." It reported a schedule of changes in the tariff, some up and some down. This was President Cleveland's second victory. His first had been the awakening of his own party. His next was the right-about-face of the Republican party. When the Senate bill was reported, it made the issue of the campaign a difference concerning schedules as to things that are or may be produced in this country. The Republicans reduced the tax on sugar more than the Democrats did, but they reduced the taxes on other things less; on others, neither party made any reduction; and on still others, notably on wool, the Republicans increased the tax. In short, the acknowledgment was publicly made that a tariff is a tax, although levied upon things that are or may be produced in this country.

Now that the public have been brought to think and reason, and to divide upon this great question, which is no other than the right of each man to the fruits of his own toil, and now that the admission has been extorted from the Republicans that the tariff is a tax, we look with entire tranquillity upon the result of the election, in progress as we write. As surely as the fight against slavery was unextinguishable while slavery remained, so surely will the fight against tariff spoliation be continued and renewed as long as that wicked system lasts. If Mr. Harrison is elected, the fight will break out in his own party. The intestine strife that led to the smashing of the Chicago platform will grow and increase. The varied interests that are now combined to tax the many for the benefit of the few cannot be held together. The spoliation tariff is doomed to fall, and the crash will be all the greater if the Republicans continue to defend and uphold it. A new force has appeared in the field of politics. It has the inspiration of truth, the vigor of youth, the courage of a great conviction, the stimulus of patriotism, and an assured faith in the triumph of the right. It has all the growing elements and the moral impetus that gave the anti-slavery party its final triumph; and triumph it will, whatever may be the result of its first battle.

PAUPER CAPITAL.

Perhaps the absurdest thing about the Republican position in this campaign has been that their great cry of pauper-labor competition was a conclusive argument against the Senate bill, whose distinguishing feature is its sweeping reduction in the tariff on sugar, while it has not the remotest application to the Mills bill, whose distinguishing feature is its removal of the tariff on the raw materials—wool, lumber, and copper. The Senate bill's reduction of more than 40 per cent. in the tariff on sugar exposes our sugar producers to the competition, not so much of the pauper labor of Europe, as of the slave labor of the West Indies. In case, as the new school of Protectionists pretend, people who get high wages ought never to employ those who get low, but ought rather to perform the ill-paid work themselves, then the Senate bill is merciless to our laborers in permitting them to exchange the product of one day's labor in America for the product of four or five in the West Indies. Yet the Republican leaders, with the exception of Mr. Kelley, have swallowed this cardinal principle without a grimace, and applauded the action of the Senate. Nevertheless, in the same breath they have kept up the pauper-labor cry against the Mills bill, because it removed the taxes from three important raw materials, not one of which but is most cheaply produced either in our own country or else in Ontario or Australia, the only other countries in the world where wages are as high as our own. In the case of each of these industries, the costly protection now granted is not against the competition of cheap foreign labor, but against the competition of cheap foreign capital.

That this is true of the wool industry was practically confessed in the tariff debate of 1884, by the chief representative of the Ohio wool interests, Hon. George L. Converse. The wool-growers of Ohio, said Mr. Converse, must be "protected against the *cheap lands* of Australia." This argument was used because not even misrepresentation could supply another. Australasia produces annually 455,000,000 pounds of wool, half again as much as any country in the world. Yet Australasia is notoriously the trades-unionists' paradise. In the free-trade province of New South Wales the working day is but eight hours, while the wages, according to the official statistics cited by F. P. Powers in the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* for October, are as follows:

Bricklayers	11	shillings.
Plasterers	11	do
Carpenters	9	do
Painters	9	do
Laborers	8	do
Slaters	10 to 12	do
Etc., etc.		

When speaking of Australian competition, to talk of pauper labor would have been too ridiculous for even Mr. Converse to hazard; therefore he fell back upon the argument of European landlords, and demanded protection against the cheap lands of Australia in almost the same language as that used by the barons in the German Reichstag when they demand higher taxes on wheat and corn in order to be protected against the cheap lands of America. This taxing of the masses in order to raise the rents of the land-owners, though a less monopolistic measure in America than in Germany, is at the same time less intelligent. In Germany, the taxing of American grain really does raise the rents of landlords; but in Ohio its chief effect has been to induce farmers to turn land worth $70 an acre for corn-raising into sheep-pastures, for which purpose $3-an-acre land in Texas would serve as well. The wool tariff is thus the taxing of the masses for the

protection of capital, but not for its enrichment; for the capital is pensioned as a pauper only to compensate it for becoming worthless.

In the case of lumber, the irrelevancy of any cry against the competition of cheap labor is equally obvious. Along the Canadian border, whether in Michigan or in Washington Territory, the difference in wages between America and Canada is imperceptible. The labor of the two countries is interchangeable. When Congress added $2 a thousand feet to the price of lumber, the lumber kings needed no more laborers than before, and, had they needed them, would have imported more Canadians rather than add a dime to the weekly wages of their men. The farmer in New Jersey pays no higher wages than the farmer in Nebraska, though his land is worth four times as much; and the lumber kings of the Northwest would pay no higher wages if the selling prices of their forests should be quadrupled by act of Congress. The tariff on lumber means monopoly pure and simple.

But the most flagrant case of all is the copper industry. The disgraceful history of the tariff on copper is well known; yet the demand for the imposition of the protective tax in 1869, in behalf of the richest mines in the world, was hardly so preposterous as is the demand for the retention of the tariff to-day. It is true that high wages are paid in these mines, and that the chief foreign competitors employ pauper labor; nevertheless, during the last decade, American labor has shown its ability to compete in the markets of the world by selling in Europe in 1885 more copper than it produced in 1875. During the decade between 1870 and 1880, the efficiency of the labor in the mines constantly increased, and the labor bill of the mine-owners proportionately diminished. According to the last census (Compendium, p. 1239) the per cent. of the value of the product paid for labor in 1870 was fifty-two; *in 1880 it had sunk to thirty-six.* With the exception of an expenditure for materials, which amounted to but 15.7 per cent. of the value of the product, the entire balance has been profit to the rich monopolists who owned the mines. The only effect of the tariff on copper has been to enable the rarely broken copper combination to charge a higher price to Americans than foreigners. The only competition feared is domestic competition. The protection now granted is the protection of extortion.

What Mr. Carnegie has said of the protection of raw materials in England is equally true in America. It is merely the taxation of the masses in order to increase the rents of the land-owning classes. If, then, it is robbery for legislation to reduce natural rents in order to benefit the laboring classes, it is equal robbery for it to increase natural rents in order to benefit the capitalist classes. The tariffs on raw materials, which the Mills bill repeals, are in every instance tariffs to increase natural rents. As was said by John H. Kasson, M. C., of Iowa, July 10, 1866, when as a Republican leader he discussed a measure to tax raw materials, the title of the Senate Bill "should be changed so as to read: '*A bill to prevent the diffused blessings of divine Providence from being enjoyed by the people of the United States.*'"

THE ENGLISH VIEW.

It is clear that England is surprised at the dismissal of Lord Sackville, and that the surprise is genuine. She can see reasons why Lord Sackville should have retired, or been recalled, after a sufficient lapse of time to save dignities all around, but no reason why there should have been any haste about it—least of all why he should have been dismissed within a week after the offence had become known which admittedly called for his retirement. Since nearly all organs of English opinion take this view, we are required to believe that the soreness which exists is real and not feigned.

There are two facts in the case which have not been considered on the other side of the water, both of which ought to have been present to the mind of Lord Salisbury at the outset. One is, that the political effects of the Murchison letter, let the same be more or less, were to be wrought out within two weeks of the time that letter was published. We freely concede that, at another time, and under other circumstances, Lord Salisbury would have been allowed to take his time, and that Lord Sackville, if he delayed his departure, would have been frozen out, just as Minister Sargent was at Berlin, instead of being dismissed. Englishmen understand this as well as we do, and so they say that a great, civilized, friendly nation ought not to mind the fury of the Irish, who are not more than one-fifth, perhaps not more than one-tenth, of the voting population. At all events, they say, the American people ought not to put this capricious and objectionable class of voters in the balance against the canons of diplomatic courtesy and the good-will of a kindred people.

The situation was a difficult one, but it had two sides, and all we ask is that our side shall be considered and allowed to have its proper weight. It was quite within the range of possibilities that the Murchison letter should have been the deciding factor in the election. It was on the cards that Lord Sackville's blunder should elect Harrison and carry the next national House of Representatives. This was the intention of the scoundrels who entrapped him. The Republican party press and speakers were making use of the letter to the exclusion of everything else. They had even dropped their forged quotations from English newspapers in their glee over this find. It is impossible, and will for ever be impossible, to say what the net political effect of the letter would have been if matters had been allowed to run their course, but it is certain that if the result had been the election of Harrison and a Republican House of Representatives, our relations with England would have become more strained than they are now. It is an article of faith of the Republican party that the fisheries dispute should not be settled by negotiation. This means that it should not be settled at all, but should be allowed to drift at the mercy of wind and waves. It means that there should be a running sore on both sides of the line, a constant cause of irritation, with all that that implies. Would it be desirable to have the policy of the nation settled in this sense for four years by a lurch of the Irish vote in the last two weeks of the campaign? Is it in human nature to contemplate that chance, and not take steps to prevent it? Lord Salisbury ought to have seen the thing in this light. He ought to have been wiser than the English newspapers in general have shown themselves to be.

The second fact that has escaped attention on the other side is, that this capricious and menacing Irish vote is England's contribution to our political life. It is no child of ours. We did not bring it into the world. We did not seek such a gadfly to drive us hither and thither. We have institutions which depend upon universal suffrage, and we have to make the best of them. Of all who come from the Old World to help us make or mar our destiny, this British contribution alone sets the interests of its native land above those of its adopted country. Germans, Scandinavians, Bohemians, and Poles vote according to their conception of American interests; some few conceive that Socialism, or even Anarchism, would be beneficial to America, but none approach the polls with the smallest thought of Germany, Scandinavia, Bohemia, or Poland in their minds. The Irish alone vote for Ireland, and contribute their money for Ireland from year to year. Patriotism, as they understand it, is love for Ireland, and this is as a coal of fire in their hearts.

It is a piece of cheap advice to England to say that she can stop all this by satisfying the Irish in Ireland; that she can transform the Irish voter in America into a stanch and stable American citizen by giving the Irish in Ireland home rule. But bickering about home rule is not our present purpose. What we wish England to consider is, that if we have an excitable and irascible element in our politics, which has to be reckoned with in every important crisis of our national affairs, which busies itself three hundred and sixty-five days in the year with plans for vexing our relations with the mother country, and which has now grown to the dimensions of perhaps two million voters, that element is England's contribution. Therefore she must bear with us as best she can this disturbing element, which can no more be controlled under our form of government than can the disturbing influence of one planet on the orbits of the others.

AN EXPERIMENT IN RAILROAD CONTROL.

In the current number of the *Jahrbuch für Gesetzgebung*, Dr. von der Leyen describes the development of a system of railroad control in Prussia no less interesting than that of the advisory commissions in America. The Prussian system presents some features that might be profitably studied and perhaps imitated in this country.

When Alsace and Lorraine were annexed after the war of 1870, the Imperial Govern-

ment naturally took possession of the railroads. The old French tariff system could not be maintained to advantage under the new management, nor was it possible, under the traffic conditions of the country, to adopt any of the existing German schedules. The matter was compromised by the adoption of an extremely simple system of rates, which on the whole gave satisfaction. In order still further to conciliate the merchants of the country, the Government asked their advice on many subjects, and it was suggested by the Chamber of Commerce of Mülhausen that such consultations should be regularly organized. The Government was glad to meet this suggestion; it was at once put into execution in Alsace, and efforts were made to extend it to other parts of the German Empire. In most cases, however, the first results were disappointing. Merchants and manufacturers did not believe in the new arrangement, and they took little interest in naming their representatives at the conferences. But in the autumn of 1879, in connection with extensive purchases of private railroads by the Prussian Government, legal recognition was given to the whole system. A law was passed providing for the election, largely by local representative bodies, of members of a local advisory board, some representing commerce, some manufactures, and some agriculture. From the members of these local boards, with the addition of a few others, a general advisory board was chosen. All important changes in railroad policy were henceforth to be submitted either to the local or general board, accordingly as they affected local or general business interests. This system was rapidly extended. As the Prussian Government obtained more and more complete monopoly of the railroad management, public interest in this means of representation increased. The principle of election by local governments seems to have been discarded. The members of local boards are now chosen by chambers of commerce and other industrial organizations. In the General Board, however, one-quarter of the members are named directly by the Government, only three-quarters being directly representative of trade and agricultural interests.

These bodies are like commissions of the Massachusetts type in the fact that their functions are purely advisory. They afford a means of securing publicity of management. In some respects they do this better than a commission, in other respects not so well. The advantage is, that they represent directly almost all trades, so that, in any important change of policy, there is a fuller opportunity for different sides to be heard than is ordinarily the case in connection with the reports of a commission. The disadvantage is, that such a body is necessarily somewhat unwieldy. It is weeks before it can come to a decision, and months before the grounds for such a decision can be fully presented or its influence felt in matters of practical railroad management.

There is also this difference between the German and American systems: the German roads are owned by the Government, American roads by private corporations. The American Commission, therefore, represents Government and business against the immediate management of the roads, while the German Advisory Board represents business interests against the management and the Government. But the means of control is the same in the two cases. Publicity exercises a controlling force on an irresponsible government in Germany in the same way that it exercises its power upon an irresponsible corporation in America.

The Railroad Commission has to-day passed out of the stage of development represented by the Massachusetts type. The Inter-State Commerce Commission has become a court, and there is a tendency on the part of State commissions to assume the same functions. This leaves a gap, which might well be filled by a local advisory board. There are almost always strained relations between traffic managers and shippers, due to the absence of free communication between one party and another. The Inter-State Commerce Commission has tried to prevent such misunderstandings, and its efforts in that direction during the first year of its work were often crowned with gratifying success. It was found that many supposed causes of dispute disappeared when there was a fair and free opportunity to talk matters over. But the Commission has so much to do in getting opinions on actually disputed cases that it cannot do full justice to this part of the work. An organized body by which the various classes of shippers should give expression to their demands, is in the highest degree desirable. In one respect it is more needed now than it was two years ago. The system of special rates, however great its abuses, nevertheless gave opportunity for shippers to influence the policy of a railroad. A single shipper could secure a reduction; and often a reduction which was made in one instance soon became general. There is danger to-day that the prohibition of special rates will prove the means of preventing the first step in reduction, which opens the way for so many more. If we can take no steps except under a general demand for change, it is more than ever desirable that bodies should be organized by which this general demand can make itself felt. It would be hard to get such a system into good working order. No one could tell who represented fairly the different industries. Many merchants and manufacturers in America would look upon the new system with even more distrust than was felt at first in Germany. But with the increasing organization of industry, the demand for something like representative government of the industrial affairs of a nation becomes stronger every day; and experiments on this line would seem to have the best chance of success.

THE AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY.

PHILADELPHIA, November 3.

THE fall meeting of the American Oriental Society took place in this city on October 31 and November 1. It was one of the most successful the Society has ever held, more than forty papers and communications being presented. The first session was held on Wednesday afternoon in the chapel of the University of Pennsylvania, and that of Thursday in the rooms of the Historical Society, Dr. William Hayes Ward in the chair. Dr. Cyrus Adler of Johns Hopkins read reports on the exhibition of oriental antiquities made by the National Museum at the late Cincinnati Exposition, and on a collection of oriental antiquities recently deposited at Washington. Dr. Ward presented a paper on a very interesting Babylonian cylindrical object recently found at Oroomiah, Persia. The walls, of transparent alabaster, are six millimetres thick, the designs in relief being archaic Babylonian. Two doors are being opened by two porters who stand at their side. Between the doors stands Shamash, the sun-god, with his left leg exposed, the foot resting on a hill. Behind him comes Hiabani, with three other persons, one of whom is the goddess Aā. The cylinder was not turned on a wheel, as tool-marks are plainly visible on the inside. It resembles many of the cylindrical seals, and is very valuable for Babylonian mythology. Dr. Ward also read a paper on the Babylonian caduceus, which he is inclined to see in an emblem often found in the hands of the deity as represented in the seals. This emblem is very similar to a sceptre or trident, for which it has often been mistaken. Dr. Ward prefers to see in it a double serpent arising from one stem. The clue to this identification is given by the single serpent which occurs so frequently.

Prof. Toy of Harvard described the modern Arabic dialect of Cairo, which he has had occasion to study personally during the past year. Prof. Moore of Andover gave an account of a Samaritan MS. now in the library of the Andover Theological Seminary, containing portions of the Book of Exodus, and assigned its composition to the thirteenth or fourteenth century. A very interesting paper was presented by Prof. John A. Payne on the seventh year of Cambyses. Mr. Pinches of the British Museum published a few months ago (*Babylonian and Oriental Record*, vol. ii, p. 202) a Babylonian astronomical tablet containing references to an eclipse which occurred in the seventh year of Cambyses. This eclipse not only fixes the date of the accession of Cambyses at 528 B.C., but is identical with the one mentioned by Ptolemy in his 'Almagest' (Book V., chapter 14, §5). Prof. Payne suggested that this might be the original tablet upon which Hipparchus and Ptolemy had based their information.

On Wednesday evening the society met at the house of Dr. Pepper, Provost of the University, to listen to a discussion on the method and use of Semitic studies in the University and Theological Seminary. The first speaker, Dr. W. H. Ward, emphasized the importance of the study of oriental civilization in the departments of art, history, and theology. He reviewed the past history of these studies in this country and the advances which have been made during the past ten years. He hoped that the material now deposited at the Metropolitan Museum and at the University of Pennsylvania would not have to wait long for competent scholars. Prof. Harper of Yale also took a hopeful view, saying that Semitic study, in the University, had been born again to a life far more vigorous than the old life, because more widely extended and deeply rooted. He showed briefly what could be accomplished in the different Oriental languages, not only in the department of philology, but also in that of history and literature. Future success, he felt, was assured, because of the importance of the study itself—an importance now appreciated

by those who make this study their profession, as well as by intelligent, broad-minded, and broad-hearted men in every line of labor. Prof. Francis Brown, of Union Theological Seminary, followed with an account of the position Semitic studies must occupy in a theological seminary. He dwelt upon the great assistance the colleges might render if they sent their students to the seminaries well versed in the rudiments of the chief Semitic languages. Remarks were also made by Profs. Toy, Gottheil of Columbia, Green of Princeton, Haupt of Johns Hopkins, and Lyon of Harvard. The hope was expressed that every college and university would in a short time have its Chair for Oriental languages and literatures. During the evening Prof. Jastrow, of the University of Pennsylvania, exhibited specimens of a collection of Assyrian antiquities recently acquired by that institution.

The second day's sessions were opened by the reading of a paper sent by Dr. W. A. P. Martin of Pekin, entitled "Plato and Confucius: a Curious Coincidence." Dr. Martin pointed out that the ethical question which forms the basis of Plato's 'Euthyphron' is also found, and decided in a similar manner, in the writings of Confucius and his apostle Mencius. Prof. Hopkins of Bryn Mawr, in a paper on the qualitative variations in the Calcutta and Bombay texts of the 'Mahābhārata,' showed that the text of the former, though the shorter of the two, deserves precedence. The Bombay text, generally considered the better, contains many additions made to glorify Vishnu and to amplify the poem *in majorem gloriam* of the Pandus. An interesting paper on the development and character of Mohammedan education was read by Prof. Frothingham of Princeton. It was shown that the Arabs, in the golden age of their history, had a complete system of pedagogics. Among the distinguishing features of their system were the democratic principles of equality which opened the instruction, not only to Arabs, but to Christians and Jews alike. Freedom was also allowed the individual teacher to use what method he might think best. The Arab ideal of culture—and this is to be insisted upon—was distinctly moral. To a certain degree the entire population was educated, attendance at school being obligatory up to the ninth year. For the purposes of higher instruction, colleges flourished in all parts of the caliphate, where the intellectual, experimental, and linguistic sciences were cultivated. Spain even had its college for women.

Mr. Talcott Williams of Philadelphia read a note on the Arch of Chosroes, which was minutely described, and in which he proposed to see a gigantic divan. Prof. Haupt sought to determine the exact measurements of the Assyrian "Noah's Ark." In the well-known Deluge Tablet, lines 25 and 26 giving these measurements are mutilated. By comparison with another text and with the Babylonian Deluge Tablet, Dr. Haupt arrives at the conclusion that the ark measured 600 by 120 cubits, about 500 by 110 feet.

In a paper on "Symbols of the Sun-God and the Word *Kuduru*," Prof. Jastrow sought an explanation of the disc which, in company with the staff, is seen in the hand of the god on the Abu Habba Stone. He believes that this is the *Kuduru*, which he identifies with a Biblical and Talmudic word meaning "globe" or "sphere." In the sense of "circle," it would stand for that country over which the god presided. In this way Prof. Jastrow would explain the name Nebuchadnezzar (*Nebo-kudurusur*) to mean "Nebo protect my country." Prof. Lyon spoke on some Assyrian and Babylonian royal prayers, and on the Pantheon of Assurbanipal, which contained twelve gods, while, at other times, there were not more than seven. Prof. Isaac H. Hall of New York, described and exhibited a New-Testament MS., Peshito version, date A. D. 1206, with a text of the Traditions of the Apostles. This Syriac text of the Traditions differs materially from the Greek text.

Prof. Gottheil read a paper entitled "A Proposal to Catalogue all the Oriental MSS. in America." These MSS. are scattered in different public and private libraries throughout the country; they are not accessible to students, and are even, in a large measure, quite unknown to them. It would be the work of the Oriental Society to obtain a complete list of all existing MSS., and then to publish a detailed and systematic catalogue of them. The proposition was very favorably received, and a committee, consisting of Profs. Hall, Gottheil, Moore, and Hopkins, and Dr. Adler, was appointed to take the matter in hand, subject to the advice and approval of the Council.

Among the papers read in full or by title were also the following: "On the Origin of Certain Rajput Forms of the Substantive Verb in Hindi," by Prof. S. H. Kellogg; "Notes on a Trip through the Chinese Provinces, Chihli and Shansi, and through Southern Mongolia," "The Lamaist Ceremony called 'Making of Mani Pills,'" and "On the Use of Skulls in Lamaist Ceremonies," by Mr. W. W. Rockhill, of Pekin; "The Indo-European Hypothesis," by Mr. M. W. Easton of Philadelphia; "Notes on the Proposed Edition of the Works of Edward Hincks;" "Verbs tertiæ infirmæ in Assyrian," by Dr. Cyrus Adler; "Paphlagonian Tombs" (illustrated by stereopticon views), by Prof. Marquand, of Princeton; "Targum MSS. in the British Museum," "Origin of the Superlinear Vowel-System," by Prof. Moore; "A MS. of the Thirteenth Century, containing Portions of the Targum," by Prof. Gottheil; "The Asuri-Kalpa, a Witchcraft Practice of the Atharva-Veda," by Mr. W. H. Magoun of Baltimore; "A New Vedic Text on Omens and Portents," by Mr. J. T. Hatfield; "On Transposed Stems in the Babylonian Talmud," by Dr. Marcus Jastrow; "The Names of the Hebrew Tenses," by Prof. W. H. Green.

In the evening a reception was tendered the society by Dr. H. Clay Trumbull, editor of the *Sunday-School Times*. Two beautiful American MSS. were shown the Society by Prof. I. H. Hall; Arabic, Hebrew, and Syriac ones by Prof. R. Gottheil; and Hebrew rolls by Dr. Trumbull and Mr. Mayer Sulzberger. Dr. W. H. Ward exhibited a beautiful collection of Babylonian seals.

The Society adjourned to meet in May, 1889, in Boston. R. J. H. G.

THE MARQUIS OF LONDONDERRY IN BELFAST.

DUBLIN, October 20, 1888.

AT a banquet in Belfast a few days ago, the Lord Lieutenant announced that "her Majesty has been graciously pleased to confer on this town the dignity and the honor of the title of a city; the honor is greatly enhanced by the fact that on no other occasion has this title been conferred on any town that was not the seat of a bishopric." No Irishman should grudge Belfast this honor or any other that can be conferred on her. One of the good effects of home rule will be that, the pretensions of that city and a corner of the north to dictate regarding the government of the rest of the country being removed, all Irishmen may be proud of Belfast and the north, as Englishmen are of Manchester and their north, or as Scotchmen are of Glasgow. The cities and towns of Ireland are, according to modern ideas, for the most part insignificant in size. The population of none of them, except Dublin and Belfast, rises above 100,000, all others having, in common with the rest of Ireland, rather diminished in population since 1841. Cork has fallen from 81,000 to 80,000; Limerick from 48,000 to 38,000; Waterford, from 23,000 to 22,000. Dublin, including its suburbs, has increased from 240,000 to about 300,000; Belfast, from 75,000 to about 225,000. No wonder, then, that Belfast feels elated, and that, as with most of those who have advanced themselves in life, there is a self-consciousness about her not always agreeable to others. The rest of Ireland, Dublin especially, does not concern itself much about Belfast; but Belfast (or "B'lfast" as the inhabitants say) is much occupied with herself and her own importance. Educated persons in Dublin would be laughed at who boasted that anything was especially good because of belonging to this city: Belfast people incline to think that, in Ireland at least, there is little admirable outside Belfast and its neighborhood, and are apt as far as possible to ignore the rest of their country.

The difference between the two cities is marked. Dublin is the governing and professional centre of Ireland; here are "the Castle," the law courts, the universities, and chief offices, while we have few manufactories, and it is a problem how the masses of our poor live. Belfast is the industrial centre of Ireland; there are the magnificent ship-building yards at which the White Star and some of the other finest vessels in the world are constructed. Belfast is also the well-defined centre of Presbyterian thought, having within its district 450,000 of the 470,000 Irish Presbyterians. There are in Ireland 640,000 Episcopalians, of whom only 380,000 are in Belfast and the corner counties. The Church Synod, therefore, meets in Dublin. In so far as Ireland is Catholic, Dublin is incontestably its religious capital; in so far as it is Protestant, it has two capitals. Dublin Protestants feel very much at one with their co-religionists over Ireland; Belfast Protestants confine their sympathies more to their own district. If an Irish association quasi-Protestant be established for any purpose, what is called Ulster is pretty sure to assert its independence. We have Ulster temperance leagues, Ulster women's suffrage associations, Ulster schoolmistresses' associations, and the like. The Ulster people prefer to manage their own affairs, and generally do so vigorously and well. The same characteristics of grit, sturdiness and hardheadedness that we associate with the Scotch immigration in the north of Ireland, existed to a certain extent before the Anglo-Norman invasion, and the same rivalry between north and south—only it was then as much the south against the north as the north against the south.

Belfast has none of that air of stately, faded metropolitan grandeur that there is about Dublin; she has no buildings like our old Parliament House and Trinity College, the Custom House and the Law Courts; but on the whole her inhabitants are much better housed than ours. The mass of the Dublin people occupy wretched tenements—single rooms of large old houses once the dwellings of the well-to-do. Whole districts of old Dublin are absolutely rotten. When buildings fall, it hardly pays to rebuild them. When past a certain limit of danger and unfitness for human habitation, they are closed: you may pass through lanes of these closed houses in what was once a busy part of Dublin. Portions, happily, have been demolished, and rebuilt by the Artisans' Dwell-

ing Company; one small demolished quarter is now being converted into a public garden by the Guinness family. But these are only oases in the filth and decay and degradation in the old parts of Dublin. There is, besides, a savagery in living such as I have never seen elsewhere, not alone due to defects in our present system, but also to a direct inheritance of times when the Irish generally were especially low in the scale of civilization. The mass of the Belfast workers inhabit separate, neat houses of modern construction. Dublin is one of the unhealthfulest, Belfast one of the healthfulest cities in the United Kingdom. There are dirt and misery in Belfast, but far less than in Dublin. The working-people there look as if they had bought their own clothes: here they have more the appearance of wearing second-hand garments. The great mills, the roar of the spindles, the lurries piled with bales, a general go and brightness and hope in the air, the shriek of the steam-whistles at meal-hours, the streets crowded with hurrying working-people —these in Ireland belong only to Belfast. There you do not seem to be in Ireland: it is more as if you were in the States or the north of England, and Belfast is less gloomy than English manufacturing towns of similar size; yet there is through all a certain provincialism of life and thought and feeling, and the city is, as we all know, disgraced by occasional rioting and brutality peculiar to it. Catholic majorities over the rest of Ireland show a liberality respecting honors and spoils which is not shown by Protestant majorities in Ulster; and such disabilities as Protestants do labor under are due almost entirely to political causes, while in Ulster the opposition to Cathol cs is mainly on religious grounds.

It is strange, this claim of Ulster to a life in the Empire distinct from the rest of Ireland. The Protestants and Catholics in Ulster are nearly equal. Of nine counties, four are represented entirely by home rule. There is not one county without a home-rule representative. Its home-rule representatives are a majority of one. In three-quarters of its area, the Catholics are nearly two to one. In the remaining quarter, containing two-fifths of the population, and comprising the extreme northeast corner of Ireland, and mainly three counties only, the Protestants are about three to one. At the last census, the income-tax assessment of Ulster was less by nearly £1,000,000 than that of Munster and Connaught combined, and less by £3,000,000 than that of Leinster. This may not be altogether a fair criterion of general wealth, since such a large proportion of the inhabitants of Ulster earn high wages and occupy a comparatively comfortable position without coming under the operation of the tax. Leinster, for taxation purposes, is rated at £4,761,000; Ulster at £4,346,000; Munster at £3,424,000; Connaught at £1,366,000. In education Leinster is ahead of, and Munster nearly on a level with Ulster.

It is difficult to understand how Belfast and the small portion of Ulster decidedly Protestant and anti-Irish could be staked off from the rest of Ireland. "I wish to goodness it could have been," said a Nationalist M. P. to me the other day. "How would its farmers now feel if they had no Land Acts, or its Presbyterians if they still had to support the Episcopalian Church?" The Belfast corporation is just about to consolidate and lower the interest on its debt by availing itself of an act passed almost entirely through the exertions of Mr. Sexton and other home-rule members. The opposition of Belfast and the north to home rule arises from local jealousy. 900,000 Ulster Protestants would have much more influence in an Irish Parliament representing a population of 5,000,000 than in a London Parliament representing 30,000,000. Ireland could not harm Ulster without harming herself. With the guarantees upon which home rule would be conceded, how could she single out the Ulster Protestants for attack? How could she injure them without injuring the mass of Catholic employees dependent on them for livelihood? And if Ireland had the opportunity, she would not have the strength to injure a race like the northern Protestants, even if they were not backed by the Protestant opinion of England and the United States, where Catholic minorities desire to make their way. When it comes to the point, I do not believe Belfast and Ulster will fear to throw in their lot with the rest of Ireland. They would hardly consent to leave the small minority of Protestants scattered over the rest of the country to be hopelessly swamped by a Catholic majority; and all Catholics are not considered even by Ulster-men as Catholics in the dangerous sense. A recent writer has pointed out that if ever there are 500,000 or so of the better class of Catholics in Ireland reasonable and reliable, they and the Protestants will hold the balance of power in the country. Much of what is said regarding the inherent incompatibility of the north and the south of Ireland reminds me of the views current thirty years ago regarding the inherent incompatibility of the Italian peoples.

The Marquis of Londonderry announced her Majesty's desire regarding Belfast at a public banquet upon the opening of a free library, the foundation stone of which had been laid some years ago by Earl Spencer, then Lord Lieutenant, in the odor of sanctity as an opponent of home rule. The Marquis's speech was in the main a glorification of the Balfour government of Ireland. The most casual reader will see in it evidence of those proclivities in the governing class here which render it impossible for the Queen to be popular in Ireland. In Great Britain, royalty is a neutral representative centre, round which politicians of all shades can meet, as round a common love of country. However bitter politics may be, however the Queen or royal family may be supposed to incline one way or the other, neither she nor any member of her family ever thinks of openly taking sides, much less of publicly indulging in strong language regarding any political party. The Lord Lieutenant is the Queen's representative; he is about all of her Majesty or her family we ever see. And it was at this banquet in Belfast where, "as representative of our beloved Queen in Ireland," he felt "quite at a loss to find words with which to thank you for the kind manner in which you have proposed my health," he then went on to abuse the Opposition, and to speak of the Irish members and their doings respecting the Plan of Campaign in a way which would hardly be justifiable even if they were convicted felons. He asserted that his policy and that of his party had been a complete success; yet, strange to say, "we know well that if we were to relax the firm hand that holds the reins of government in Ireland, that fire which is at present smouldering would inevitably spring into a blaze"—not very reassuring as to the permanent effects of the policy.

Statistics of crime and outrage in Ireland, collected as they are by instruments entirely under the influence and control of the central authority, and always inclining to favor the current views of the Government, are not very reliable. I have in previous communications traced the reasons for crime and outrage having diminished, and for the agitation having somewhat subsided. The Coercion Act has had perhaps a little to do with this, but not much; ameliorative and hope-inspiring causes have been more potent. I doubt the correctness of his Excellency's contention that farms from which tenants have been unjustly (or, for that matter, justly) evicted are being taken up with any more readiness than they have been since the commencement of the agitation. If this were the case, to the extent he claims, the agrarian difficulty would for the present be at an end. So far as I can ascertain, "evicted farms" are as closely boycotted as ever. Only the other day a relative holding property and residing in one of the most settled districts in Ireland, complained to me that there would be no use in his evicting a notoriously troublesome tenant of a laborer's cottage, because no one else would take it. (The present temper of the country relative to such holdings will eventually press heavily on the poor, the application of capital to the construction and maintenance of residences for them being entirely checked by the difficulties in collecting rents and in resuming possession in cases of unsatisfactory occupiers.)

The Government are trying to show that the law is being "firmly, fairly, and fearlessly" administered all round, by not administering it at all in certain classes of cases. Men are arrested and punished here and there, now and then, to keep up an appearance. But if the law were fully carried out, the jails in Ireland would not hold one-tenth of those who would be committed for breach of proclamations against the League and the Plan, and the Press clauses. The law could not be carried out, and is not carried out further than is necessary to save appearances. The rise in the value of live-stock since last March from 36s. to 42s. per head for sheep and from 50s. to 60s. per cwt. for beef may have a much more quieting effect upon the agitation than the power now exercised by Government. After all, the ballot-box, and not rhetoric, supposition, or statistics, proves the real feeling of the country; and there is nothing in late elections, and in the municipal elections now proceeding, to indicate any change here in the relations of parties. The advance of opinion in some directions is certain. A few years ago those who now most violently oppose political change, upheld the land system of the country as the best that could be desired, maintaining that a system under which the landlord held the capital and the occupier had its use, was better for the state than the systems of peasant proprietorship, with their attendant clog of mortgages. On this subject there is an entire change of opinion. The *Daily Express*, the organ of Irish landlordism and ascendancy, said a few days ago, relative to the sale of a large portion of the Abercorn estates to the occupiers:

"It may be conceived that, in the case of a thrifty and industrious tenantry, the change from tenancy to ownership will have a magical effect. . . . Although the bonds of attachment which have been transmitted from feudal times are now loosened, we are sure that it will only be a legal severance, and that feelings of sympathy and friendship will still be cherished on both sides."

These considerations as to Ulster and the present state of feeling in Ireland have been prompted by a perusal of the Lord Lieutenant's speech at Belfast. But every other interest pales before the proceedings of the Commission which in a few hours is to open at Westminster.

D. B.

GEORGE SAND IN ITALY.

VENICE, September 12, 1888.

IT was towards two o'clock one morning after the great *galleggiante* down the Grand Canal, that we stopped at Florian's for a cooling

drink, and thoughtlessly asked the waiter at what hour the café closed. "Closed, sirs?" he said with astonishment. "The doors of Florian's have not been shut for three hundred years." And truly, as the streets and canals of Venice are never deserted by day or night, it is possible to sit in any part of St. Mark's Square, and imagine that life has never ceased there since those buildings were first erected. The "Cappello Nero" over there has been an eating-house for more than five hundred years. You glance at the windows of the Procurazie, and seem to see the same figures looking down on the Doge's procession which you saw that day at the Academy in the pictures of Gentile Bellini, or in the reproductions of the old woodcuts hanging in the show-cases of Ongania's book-shop at the corner; or, on turning your head, you see the masks and jests of the last century as you saw them in the pictures of Longhi in the Civic Museum. You see those very scarlet gowns which hang there, over the shoulders of real people; for they cannot be creatures of the imagination. There is no place so easy to repeople as Venice, and none where the ways of revivifying are so many and so various.

But one element of the population of old times is wanting. The gondoliers ply their oars from father to son; the shopkeepers and petty tradesmen still practise the virtues inculcated in their minds by the old conservative Republic; there are perhaps not so many priests and abbés visible in the cafés, and their worldliness has given place to the outward decorum demanded by the age; foreigners of all nations are here in as great numbers as at any time during the last two centuries; Venice is still hospitable to dethroned royalty: but the old nobility are no longer here. They spent their fortunes in riotous living during the last century, especially in their mania for *villeggiatura*, satirized by Goldoni, and borrowed money from convents and monasteries to keep up their state, until there came the French occupation, and the mortgages on their estates were foreclosed to fill the coffers of Napoleon. With their fortunes the families also disappeared, and few of them can now boast of a male representative. It is true that many of the old names still exist, but those who bear them are, for the most part, not even connected by birth with the nobles whose names they have taken. It was at times customary for a servant, client, or dependent to give his child as a baptismal name that of the family which he served. In many cases the name of the reigning Doge was thus introduced. With time the plebeian name has been dropped, while that of the noble family alone remains. For example, Daniel Manin, the illustrious patriot of 1849, was no relation to Lodovico Manin, the last Doge, but a Jew to whom his name had been given. When it became necessary for the Austrians to give up Venetia, the Emperor Francis Joseph would have been glad to have restored the old Venetian republic, but, on asking the advice of his best qualified counsellors, was unable to find a sufficient number of descendants of noble families to fill the official posts.

Good old Jules Lecomte, in his excellent guide-book to Venice—in which, by the way, he gives a very interesting account of the higher Venetian society of the early part of this century—recommends as a way of learning and appreciating Venice the perusal of George Sand's Venetian tales. He wrote at a time when these had been recently published; but his advice is still worth taking, for these stories, even after fifty years, have lost none of their freshness. The impression made by Venice on George Sand was so strong that, long after her visit, the recollection of it would inspire charming bits of writing. She almost foretold this in a passage in 'Lettres d'un voyageur,' written while still at Venice.

"On putting my hands to my face I inhaled the odor of a sage-bush, whose leaves I had touched some hours before. This little plant was now flourishing on its mountain several leagues away from me. I had respected it: I had carried away from it only its exquisite scent. What a precious thing is perfume! Without causing any loss to the plant from which it emanates, it attaches itself to the hand of a friend, and follows him on his way, to charm him, and to recall to him for a long time the beauty of the flower that he loves.——Remembrance is the perfume of the soul."

It was the remembrance rather than the reality of Venice which inspired George Sand, except in the first part of the book just cited, where she wrote under the impression of a recent passion.

"The hazy nights," she says, "of our own mild regions have charms that no one has felt more than myself, and no one has less wish to deny. Here Nature, more vigorous in her influence, perhaps a little too much imposes silence on the mind. She lulls thought to sleep, agitates the heart, and dominates the senses. Only a man of genius could think of writing poems during these voluptuous nights: one should sleep or love."

She had loved, and the first part of her stay in Venice had included her idyl with Alfred de Musset. It is useless recapitulating now a story about which so much has been written. The 'Histoire d'un merle blanc,' 'Elle et Lui,' and 'Lui et Elle' give us no detailed facts to enable us to understand from three points of view the divergences of character that brought to a speedy end a passionate love, which strongly influenced them both for the rest of their lives. In none of these, of course, are there real facts and real names, but the allusions were only too evident to the curious public at the time. George Sand's story of the two painters is clever and pleasing as a story, and, while it represents the hero as very weak, makes him sympathetic. Paul de Musset's tale of two musicians is brutal, both in its statements and its insinuations, but is yet well enough done to leave you with a feeling of detestation for the heroine. Arsène Houssaye has recently made a revelation of this affair which he professes to have taken down from Musset's lips. Musset first met George Sand at a dinner given by Buloz of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and sat between them. He says: "Between Buloz and George Sand there could be no hesitation," but he added that her great eyes did not fascinate him long. He had really loved her only at Venice,

"because Venice always inspires love in poets and artists. You may imagine that on first meeting her I found neither beauty nor charm in her; although she might play with a switch in remembrance of Maurice de Saxe, one of her thirty-six fathers, she was still a countrified *bourgeoise*. I admired her in her genius, not in her face. I don't love women who dress like men, any more than real women love men who disguise themselves as women. Nevertheless, travelling with her in Italy intoxicated me a little, and, besides that, I was not sorry to carry her off from some other men who were sighing for her. The journey was charming. She, who had learned nothing, talked of everything as it were by magic. I believed myself her master, but yet I bowed down before her."

During the earlier part of her stay at Venice George Sand lived at the Hôtel Danieli, and it was there, on the last night of the Carnival, when the extreme cold added to her moral sufferings, and she had the feeling of being all alone among a population of strangers all bent on amusing themselves, that, in order to distract herself, she began to write 'Léone Léoni,' the idea of which was in part a reminiscence of 'Manon Lescaut.' She finished it in a week; for when she sat down to the writing-table her inspiration never failed her, and interruptions did not hinder her power of self-concentration. She took no credit to herself for her power of work, which one of her friends described by saying: "She sits down to the table and turns the tap; somebody comes in—she shuts it off. When the interruption is over, she turns it on again." And so she wrote for nearly all her life, from midnight till morning, and often for a couple of hours besides during the day. She was then writing to gain her bread; for the separation from her husband had not yet been arranged, and the money for her journey had been advanced by Buloz as payment for unwritten articles in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. But Danieli's was then, as now, the most expensive abode in Venice; and after Musset's departure she found a lodging in the Campo S. Luca with an apothecary named Ancillo, who had been known, from Byron's time on, as the greatest scandal-monger and *mauvaise langue* in Venice. Mengaldo says of him in his diary: "A perfect good-for-nothing; but it is sometimes a good thing to make friends with the devil." Here, when for a while she was left without money, she dined with the strictest economy, and slept on a mattress on the floor, as she had no bedstead; but she was able to work for eighteen hours at a time without getting ill, and generally for seven or eight hours a day, after which she had only enough strength to go and drink her coffee, smoke her cigarettes, and talk bad Italian with her friends on the Square of St. Mark. But here, apart from bread-winning, she wrote th charming 'Lettres d'un voyageur,' which it is difficult to praise too highly, and introduced us to the society of Beppa, the Doctor, the Abbé, the Gondolier Catullo, and the Turk Zuzuf, who all reappear from time to time in the stories written in later years.

All these tales due to Italian reminiscences have one thing in common with the novels of George Sand's first period, that they have really but one theme in all its changing forms—the passion of love. And they are not disfigured by the political, socialistic, and humanitarian thories and discussions which mark so disagreeably the other work of her second period. Indeed, one of the greatest of these latter, 'Consuelo,' would scarcely be readable now, were it not that the early part of it gives such an enchanting picture of the easy, careless Venetian life of the old days, and that the heroine is surrounded with a sort of mystic Italian glory which does not desert her even in the worst circumstances. I should have excepted one little story, 'Les Maîtres Mosaïstes,' because in this there is scarcely a word of love from first to last. It is simply a *conte* told to amuse a boy, and is an example of clever workmanship, being, in fact, a paraphrase of a dozen pages of dull prose at the end of Zanetti's book on Venetian pictures. But George Sand was conscientious in all that she did. She says somewhere: "I like to have seen everything that I describe. If I have only three words to say about a place, I love to see it in my remembrance, and make as few mistakes about it as possible." So, when writing this little story at her solitude in Nohant, she asked a friend in Paris for details about Venetian costumes, and, with a sort of realism, drew the characters of the two heroes from two of her friends. This little masterpiece should be the first book read by the visitor at Venice, and he can then never pass through the Church of St. Mark without a sentimental interest in the mosaics, which will add greatly to his pleasure.

Her love of reality in the *mise-en-scène* never

hampered George Sand's imagination, and no improbabilties were allowed to stand in the way of the development of a plot or the painting of a character. Her intercourse with the shepherd children of Berry had early given her a love of the marvellous, and the mysterious corridors and winding passages in 'Consuelo' and 'La Daniella' (which might be used as a guide-book to the country about Frascati) seem reminiscences of her wanderings about the garrets and cellars of her convent with the other girls, "in search for secrets that never existed, and to rescue from a romantic captivity imaginary victims whose names even were unknown." She says herself:

"I am very fond of romantic events—the unforeseen, intrigue, action in a novel. . . . I have used all my efforts to keep the literature of my times in a practical path between the peaceful lake and the rushing torrent: my instinct would have pushed me towards the precipice."

'La Daniella' was chiefly the product of a subsequent visit to Italy, and contains some singular criticisms on Genoa, Pisa, and Rome, none of which towns inspired the authoress with the sympathy which she had for Venice. She was disgusted with much that she saw at Rome, did not like the monuments, felt oppressed by the ruins, and especially by the dirt, saw nothing picturesque or harmonious in priests and beggars, and hated the Papal Government. All this is seen in the early part of the book, as well as in some of the later chapters; and in a letter to a friend, she says:

"No, I don't wish to admire anything, to love anything, to tolerate anything in the kingdom of Satan, in that old cave of brigands. I wish to spit on the people who kneel to the Cardinals. . . . If, thanks to me, any one takes a horror and disgust of Rome as it is to-day, I shall have done something. I could say as much about ourselves, if I were allowed."

The letter goes on hoping that the French are slightly better than the Romans, and will not sink quite so low under the Empire. The publication of 'La Daniella' brought two warnings to the newspaper in which it was published, *La Presse*; and another article by a different person soon after caused its suspension. As this fell in the middle of another story which George Sand was publishing, she wrote to the Empress, begging that the newspaper might be pardoned.

In 'L'Uscoque' she rewrote the history of Byron's 'Corsair,' and gave it a Venetian setting. "It was very cold in my room," she says in the preface, 'and on going to sleep I used to see fantastic landscapes, rough seas, and storm-beaten rocks. The wind blowing outside, and the fire crackling on the hearth, used to produce strange cries and mysterious rustlings, and I believe that I was more possessed than charmed by my subject." The Corsair or Uscoque is a Venetian nobleman of high rank, who used his position of Admiral and Governor to join with the pirates one day in plundering his countrymen, while pretending to fight the pirates the day after.

In 'Le Piccinino' the fancy took her to tell the story of a brigand chief.

"Whether the type be frightful like those of Byron or worthy of the Monthyon prize like those of Cooper, it suffices for these heroes of despair to merit legally the rope or the galleys for every good and honest reader to love them from the first pages and hope for the success of their enterprise. Why, then, under the pretext of being a reasonable person, should I be deprived of creating one to my liking?"

She did not aim in this book either at painting a precise historical epoch or faithfully describing a country. It was a color-study, dreamed rather than felt, where some traits are accidentally true. The scene was laid in Sicily, rather than anywhere else, because she had just received some good engravings of that country.

All these tales are delightful, both to those who love a mere story for the story's sake, and to those who wish a relief from ordinary occupations; and they seem to suffer not at all from the lack of the realistic touches which are considered necessary by a Stevenson and a Haggard. In 'Teverino' and 'Le Secrétaire intime' you are removed far from any probabilities and possibilities of earth into the realms of poetry and fancy; and yet, while enjoying this, you feel all the time that you are in Italy. In one you get a glimpse of Bassano, in the other of Monaco; but the landscape is so dim and hazy that the pictures would be recognized only by those who know the country. Both of these stories are ended with the same inspiration with which they were begun. It had no time to cool. In many of the longer novels you feel the want of a settled plan: the opening is the finest part; then come the wearisome pseudo-philosophical discussions and reflections, which take the place of inspiration; and the dénouement arrives apparently as a mere matter of duty towards the publisher. George Sand was always fond of natural history: it was part of her love for nature. She gave herself up sometimes for weeks and months, together with her son Maurice, to researches in botany, mineralogy, and zoölogy, when she dreamt of nothing else, and her brains seemed to be filled exclusively with scientific terms; nothing else existed for her. "After one of these scientific orgies," says Caro, "she had all the difficulty in the world to return to ordinary life and her habitual tasks." The 'Secrétaire intime' was suggested to her by a tale of Hoffmann, but it is easy to see from one chapter that it was written just after an entomological orgy.

One of her novels shows remarkably the author's love of nature, and her power of depicting passion, although it is chiefly, as she herself says, "a work of analysis and meditation." It is the strongest of all the tales due to the influence of Italy and one of the strongest of all her books. This is 'Lucrezia Floriani,' a picture of love and jealousy. The scene is laid in the soft landscape of Lake Iseo, such as she saw it in going from Milan to Venice. She has feebly denied that Prince Karoll, the jealous lover, is a portrait of Chopin; but there can be no question that Lucrezia is a portrait of herself—greatly idealized, it is true, but as characteristic as Thérèse in 'Elle et Lui.' Every page, as Caro says, "is written from an observation or a remembrance." In any case it would be difficult to find in literature a more faithful representation of the passion of jealousy—in this case, jealousy of an unconcealed and well-known past, which destroyed all pleasure of the present, and left no hope of happiness in the future.

In 'La Dernière Aldini' we return to Venice and the Venetian nobility, then in process of extinction. The story is told by Lelio, the tenor, one of her friends in the Campo S. Luca whose acquaintance we have already made in 'Lettres d'un Voyageur'; and most improbable it is. We demur to the love-making between Mme. Aldini and her gondolier, even when we find that she had been married only for her money, and was despised by her husband for being in reality one of the common people; but the similar scene between the daughter and the gondolier, who had now bloomed into a great singer, is somewhat more natural. We remember, however, that it is a cardinal point of George Sand's faith that love is a leveller, and makes all men as all women equal; and when we yield to the magic of her style, we almost believe it. This little story shows one trait which is rare in George Sand's works—a sense of humor; in real life she was utterly destitute of it, and her conversation, when more than one person was present, is said to have been very dull and heavy. It was only in the night watches, when her pen seemed to dictate to her brain, that she escaped from the grossness and commonplace of ordinary life into an imaginary world, full of light and airy creatures, whither she will lead, and where she will keep, all who begin to read her stories.

Renan, at one of the dinners at Magny's so celebrated in their time, said that George Sand was truer than Balzac; and added that she would be read three hundred years from now. The late M. Caro, in his charming sketch (which alone is sufficient to justify his election to the Academy), and other recent critics, think that the world is getting tired of realism and naturalism, at least as preached in contemporary France, and predict the return to passion and sentiment as shown in the works of George Sand. Her romantic nonsense and her tedious political philosophy may be eliminated, but very much will still remain.

E. S.

Correspondence.

ELY'S AMERICAN TAXATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your reviewer of my work on 'Taxation in American States' accuses me of ignorance of the decisions of the Supreme Court bearing on the constitutionality of a tax on gross revenues of railroads, which may be held to interfere with inter-State commerce. As your review will be read by many who will never see the book, may I in justice to myself quote a single sentence from page 227, in which I had in mind the very decision referred to?

"Prudence must be exercised in taxation of railroads, or it will be found that laws taxing them will be nullified by a Federal court, on the ground that it involves interference with inter-State commerce."

I believe the Wisconsin system still stands, and when I was in Wisconsin making a special study of taxation, one of the justices of the Supreme Court told me that he did not believe it could be successfully attacked. A few weeks ago a gentleman who has prepared a digest of all the decisions of the Wisconsin Supreme Court on the subject of taxation, wrote me that he regarded their system of taxing railroads as invulnerable. At the same time, I fully recognized the weighty character of the principle involved, and was careful to call attention to it. So far from never having considered the subject, it may not be improper to say that it was carefully considered by our Maryland Tax Commission, of which I had the honor to be a member, and that among its members were lawyers of standing in the community.

Whatever may be the tendency of the book, my intention was to recommend changes which should be an effectual barrier against socialism. It is easy to "call names," but it is generally regarded as evidence of malignity or of a weak cause. Yours truly,

Richard T. Ely.

Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md., November 3, 1888.

GERMAN RAILWAY SERVICE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As an offset to the unfavorable opinion concerning the railway service of Germany

expressed in the article "Competition in Fast Train Service," printed in the *Nation* for October 11, will you allow me to state briefly my experience of German railroad travel? Without possessing the special knowledge relating to this subject evinced by the writer of the article referred to, I have had no inconsiderable experience of our own railroads east of the Missouri River; and I had more than the tourist's usual interest in making whatever observations were possible in regard to railroad trains while making rapid journeys through Europe. Besides carrying a copy of Bradshaw's 'Continental Railway Guide' in a handsatchel, I made it a point to secure, wherever possible, the local guides or railroad time-tables, and also made a practice of timing the arrival and departure of the various trains.

The following routes, wholly or partly within the German Empire, were travelled over during 1887: Lindau-Munich-Vienna; Vienna-Prague-Dresden-Leipzig; Leipzig to Weimar, to Jena, to Halle, and return; Leipzig-Berlin-Rostock (Warnemünde); Kiel-Hamburg-Bremen-Hanover-Frankfort; Cologne-Frankfort-Heidelberg-Strassburg. With but a single exception, no trains on any of these routes were late, either in departing or arriving. They sometimes reached stations a few minutes earlier than was indicated upon the time-tables, but in such cases delayed their departure until the time set down in the table. The single exception was in the case of a fast train from Hanover to Cassell and Frankfort, which was about fifteen minutes late in reaching Göttingen. This was much complained of at the university town as a thing of too frequent occurrence as regards that special train, and the explanation given was that the schedule time did not make sufficient allowance for the transfer of passengers and baggage from the Berlin-Hanover train, with which it was necessary to make connection. *My* impressions of the railway service of Germany, as regards reasonable speed, punctuality, choice of trains (both as to swiftness and cost of tickets), comfort, and a prevalent, and to an American most delightful, sense of safety, were entirely favorable.

S

PURITY IN POLITICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Every lover of higher morals in politics must admire the course of the *Nation* in its endeavors to bring about reform in the civil service and a wise readjustment of the tariff. The inexorable law which politicians seem so unable to grasp is, that the purest party, with the highest aims, must in the long run be the victorious party. This is illustrated in this country and in England by the fact of the frequent change of administration; by the fact that, if the party in power ceases to represent the highest aims in politics, the party out of power, declaring its attachment to such aims, very soon succeeds in wresting the power from the more corrupt one. This law it was that brought victory to Lincoln and the Republican party in 1860, and that turned the party of that name out of power in 1884, and gave victory to Cleveland and the Democrats.

However the coming election issues, whether in keeping in Cleveland or putting in Harrison, let the successful party remember in its flush of triumph that, if old and rejected party corruptions are taken up and questionable political methods countenanced, defeat is sure to come, and quickly. I would transcribe here for the consideration of thoughtful men the following words of a wise living historian, Bishop Stubbs ('Lectures on Mediæval and Modern History'):

"What we want to see is men applying to history and politics the same spirit in which wise men act in their discipline of themselves—not to cease to be partisans, not to cease to hold and utter strong opinions, but to be as careful in their party behavior and in their support of their opinions as they are in their behavior in social circles, their conversation in social life. The first object of the true politician, as of the true patriot, is to keep himself and his party pure, and then to secure victory; to abolish meanness and corruption where he has influence, rather than to make capital by denouncing it where his denunciation can only provoke a retort. The sound politician, on whichever side he may be, believes that his scheme of politics is the one in which the benefit of his country is most entirely involved, and he wishes the position of his country to be impregnable. To be impregnable it must be sound: if his party represents to him his country, his party must be sound, and it concerns him much more closely to purify his own ranks than those of the enemy. Success is certain to the pure and true: success to falsehood and corruption, tyranny and aggression, is only the prelude to a greater and an irremediable fall."

Percy Gordon.

November 2, 1888.

FOREIGN ALLEGIANCE OF FOREIGN GOODS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I wish to contribute the following to that history of the "Influence of Protection Doctrines upon the Operation of the Intelligence" which some one will surely write, after the present hysteria passes away and sanity returns. It is from a communication in the Minneapolis *Tribune* of October 29, and is an attempt to answer the argument that protection does not help the American laborer as long as the foreign laborer immigrates freely to compete with him:

"The labor that comes to American soil in the shape of human beings is, as a rule, animated by mind, and in consequence thereof thinks and soon becomes Americanized; while goods, wares, and merchandise never forswears (*sic*) allegiance to foreign powers; but always remains foreign, and therefore loyal in results to the land that manufactured it (*sic*)."

The writer would seem to make allowance, by his phrase, "as a rule," for some human beings coming to American soil who are not "animated by mind." He thus secures for himself in advance an asylum from all criticism. D.

CONFIRMATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May I add, as a commentary on my last week's letter, some sentences from the *chronique* of M. Charles de Mazade in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of October 15:

"The recent journey of the President of the Republic, to Lyons, in Savoy, in Burgundy, may throw some useful light upon the real and inward feelings of the country. The President, held back by a certain constitutional preciseness, by an excess of reserve perhaps beyond what public opinion demands, committed himself but little; but he was able to hear what was said to him, and there was almost everywhere the same feeling which finds its most happy expression in the discourse, as temperate as judicious, of the President of the Chamber of Commerce at Lyons, asking for the country only that protection which results from constitutional stability, from public order firmly maintained, from a good condition of the finances, from social peace propagated by that true liberty which is the guarantee of all rights and extends to all faiths."

And a few lines farther on:

"For ten years the evident palpable cause of all the parliamentary incoherences, of all the financial disorders, of the legislative anarchy, is the progressive usurpation of a Chamber as presumptuous as ignorant, which has not ceased to place itself above the Constitution, which has wished to manage everything, without knowing how to do anything."

Is there not instruction and reproof for us in the affairs of France? Is it not true that, with all the abundance of our financial resources, with our large surplus in the Treasury, with all our immense material prosperity, there is through the country a feeling of uneasiness and distrust, owing to want of confidence in the ability of Congress—without leaders or any definite plan of action—to accomplish anything to good purpose? G. B.

Boston, November 3, 1888.

TEACHER AND COMMUNITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "C," whose letter in relation to "The Teacher and the Community" you published on October 18, speaks of the lack of individuality in teaching as caused largely by the custom of giving preference to teachers resident in the community. That this is true, no careful observer can doubt, and it is refreshing to know that there is at least one community in which there exists so nearly an ideal state as your correspondent depicts.

But the evil mentioned as derived from this sort of "protection to home industries" is but a small part of the damage done. The truth is, the methods of employing teachers in our public schools are but little better than those of filling Government offices. The school system needs "civil-service reform" as much as the United States Government. It is bad enough to have political parties running rival candidates for members of the School Board, and to have these nominations worked for from precisely the same motives as Mike or Barney works for an alderman's seat, *i. e.*, that he may use his position to make money. It is, for example, no uncommon thing to find men working for place on school boards because they are coal-dealers and want the contract to supply the schools with coal, or plumbers, or building contractors, or real-estate agents from motives equally obvious; but when we have in addition the custom of employing local talent for teachers, and thus bring into play the whole set of political, social, church, and family interests, then we have a truly deplorable result.

The evil makes itself manifest along two lines. (1.) In the selection of teachers. Good teachers fail to obtain positions for lack of the requisite "influence," while poor ones succeed because of a father or uncle on the School Board, or because pushed by a certain church, or because of the backing of some social clique. Moreover, it is almost impossible to get rid of an inefficient teacher under such a system. I have in mind now a school in which are two grossly incapable teachers. The principal is well aware of their inefficiency, and finds his own efforts largely nullified by their presence; and yet, were he to endeavor to have them removed, he would stir up a perfect hornets' nest of church and social antipathies, which would probably damage the school more, at least for some time, than does the present poor teaching. Very likely, should he attempt to oust them, not having himself the same sort of "anchors to windward," *he* would be the one to go. Capable and conscientious superintendents are hampered almost beyond endurance by this custom. It would be difficult to exaggerate this aspect of the evil.

(2.) Good teachers cannot do so good work in their own communities as elsewhere. It is well known that both ministers and teachers succeed best away from their "native seats." It is almost impossible to attain to that absolute impartiality necessary in a public servant, when among one's old friends and associates.

It is a great misfortune to a teacher "always to have known" certain families. In a word, the whole set of local interests and jealousies familiar to us all, but too many to enumerate and describe here, hamper the activity of the teacher, and form an incubus that is non-existent in a strange town. TEACHER.

October 28, 1888.

THE PRATT FREE LIBRARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation* for October 25, in speaking of the library to be given to this city under the provisions of Mr. Tilden's will, states that the only things approaching it in character are the Newberry Library at Chicago and the Boston Public Library. May I ask if the Pratt Library at Baltimore should not receive honorable mention with these? Its money value is less than either of the libraries referred to, though it is not inconsiderable, Mr. Pratt's gift being in all one million dollars, of which two-thirds will draw 7 per cent. interest perpetually. But in respect of its freedom to all classes it certainly has no superior. There are practically no restrictions whatever for actual citizens, while temporary residents in the city can obtain books on the same terms with citizens with much less formality than is necessary at the Boston Public Library.

It certainly could not be, in any fuller sense, "a library of the people." J. S. R.

NEW YORK, October 25, 1888.

TRANSLATION AT SIGHT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The fact that several little text-books have been prepared of late, with annotated extracts for sight-translation, would seem to indicate "a felt want" on the part of teachers. The need of these books, however, is not very apparent, because a teacher can easily find short extracts in the books used by the classes. There is another form of sight-reading which I have employed with my classes, and which it may be worth while to suggest to other teachers. It consists of extracts from some modern Greek newspaper, written upon the board for the students to read. It is a very easy matter to make selections in which the deviation from the classic standard is exceedingly small. This plan has several important advantages over the reading of short extracts from the ancient authors. The students find it a pleasing change to see that their Greek can actually deal with the affairs of to-day, as well as with those of more than two millenniums ago. The freshness of modern life and modern interests is very helpful in giving a touch of zest and enthusiasm to what so many find a very dry study. To read, in very fair Greek, telegrams about the great events happening over the world, and comments on them, taken, it may be, from the London *Times* or the New York *Herald*, opens the eyes of many a student to the possibilities of his Greek.

A few of the various extracts our Freshmen and Sophomores had last session were, for example, statistics from the New York *Herald* about the number of cows in the United States, and the annual yield of milk, butter, and cheese; articles about the *Great Eastern*; about Volapük; about John Wanamaker's picture-gallery; about Adelina Patti's celebrated fan, with the sentences written on it by the Emperors of Russia and Germany, by Queen Victoria, M. Thiers, as President of the French Republic, and others; about Dickens, George Eliot, Abraham Lincoln. In short, almost anything which at the present day is noteworthy among current events can be presented to students, in Greek which they would frequently scarcely recognize as not being good enough for Xenophon. At times I have seen students almost double themselves up laughing at jokes in Greek, an experience rather rare in the reading of any of the classic authors they study.

It is quite easy and very appropriate for the teacher to give his scholars in connection with these readings some idea of the structure of modern Greek and its chief departures from the classic norm. To all of which is to be added the important fact that students who have read even this little of modern Greek will be likely to have a keen appreciation of the fact that Greek is *a living language*. For, strange as it seems, it is not difficult to find intelligent people to whom the declaration that Greek is *not* a "dead" language comes as a sort of revelation. When you tell them that Greek is as truly a living language as English or French or German, they find it hard to take you seriously.

Respectfully, A. H.

UNIVERSITY OF MISSISSIPPI.

JOHN WISE OF IPSWICH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The note concerning this unappreciated worthy, printed in a recent number of the *Nation*, led me to consult the edition of his works published in 1860 by the Congregational Board of Publication. The introductory chapter, by Rev. J. S. Clarke, D.D., asserts that "some of the most glittering sentences in the immortal Declaration of Independence are almost literal quotations from this essay" ('A Vindication of the Government of New England Churches'). If this is true, it is time that Wise took his proper place in our political, as well as our religious annals.

The list of subscribers to the edition of 1772 contains the names of Mr. William Dawes of Boston, Mr. Ephraim Fairbank of Bolton, and Mr. Peter Jayne of Marblehead, each of whom took one hundred copies. But a more important name is that of Rev. Manasseh Cutler of Ipswich, properly of Ipswich Hamlet, now Hamilton. Did any of the wisdom of Wise pass through Cutler into the Ordinance of 1787?

Why, by the way, does Cutler not appear in the Stedman-Hutchinson 'Library of American Literature'? In the volume where he would naturally figure, nearly seven pages are devoted to Eliza Southgate Bowne, who was merely a writer of entertaining letters. Cutler left behind descriptions of social life equally sprightly, besides records of scientific observation, weighty political papers, and written opinions on various religious topics. Surely, he was "an author," if quantity, quality, influence, and versatility are to be considered.

HENRY BALDWIN.

755 BROADWAY, October 26, 1888.

CONCERNING CERTAIN EPIGRAMS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the interesting notice in your last number of the recently published volume of Dr. Sterrett, 'An Epigraphical Journey in Asia Minor,' occurs this sentence: "Nos. 243 and 245 are curious riddles; but as Dr. Sterrett gives them on the authority of a Greek physician, we shall hold them open to suspicion."

This was Dr. Sterrett's opinion about No. 243, and it certainly is justified, for it is made up of mutilated portions of two epigrams that are to be found in the 'Anthologia Græca Palatina.' First come the last three verses of Lib. xiv., Epig. 58, which are followed by the whole of Lib. xiv., Epig. 35, except part of its first word [Ἀνθρώπ]ου κ. τ. λ.

No. 245 does not seem to be recognized by Dr. Sterrett. This also is to be found in Lib. xiv., Epig. 5, lacking the last line.

Very truly yours, HENRY W. HAYNES.

BOSTON, October 27, 1888.

Notes.

A CHOICE collection of books and papers relating to Lichens, left by the late Prof. Edward Tuckerman to the library of Amherst College, is to be kept apart as a memorial of the donor. Mr. Wm. I. Fletcher, the librarian, desires supplementary contributions of works, and a fund (say of $1,000) sufficient to maintain the collection by additions and repairs.

Longmans, Green & Co. have nearly ready Walter Besant's 'Eulogy of Richard Jefferies,' author of 'The Gamekeeper at Home' and other remarkable works.

Ticknor & Co. issue this month 'The Other Side of War: With the Army of the Potomac. Letters from Headquarters of the Sanitary Commission during the Virginia Campaign of 1862,' by Katharine Prescott Wormeley; 'Pen and Powder,' by Franc B. Wilkie, a war correspondent; 'Vagrom Verse,' by Charles Henry Webb ("John Paul"); 'The Philistines,' by Arlo Bates; and 'Better Times,' by the author of 'The Story of Margaret Kent.'

John B. Alden publishes directly Gogol's 'Taras Bulba,' translated by Jeremiah Curtin; and Daudet's 'The Immortals.'

Mr. F. J. Stimson's 'First Harvests' will be issued in book form by Charles Scribner's Sons, who also announce Mommsen's 'History of the Roman Republic,' abridged by C. Bryans and F. R. Hendy. Their *Book-Buyer* for November has a frontispiece portrait of Mrs. Mary A. Ward, author of 'Robert Elsmere.'

Thomas Whittaker announces as the next volumes in the "Camelot Series" 'The Teaching of Epictetus'; in the "Canterbury Poets," 'Poems of Wild Life,' edited by Charles G. D. Roberts; in the "Great Writers," a 'Life of Heine,' by William Sharp.

The publication of Mr. Lang's 'Letters on Literature' has been postponed until the new year; but his volume of poems, 'Grass of Parnassus,' will be issued immediately.

In 1875 Mr. Grant Allen printed privately at Oxford a little pamphlet discussing certain difficulties in the current conception of energy: and he afterwards sketched out a more elaborate work, which was shown in 1885 to Mr. Edward Clodd, who embodied certain of its conclusions in 'The Story of Creation.' As these conclusions have been attacked, Mr. Grant Allen has determined to join in the controversy, and his 'Force and Energy: a Theory of Dynamics,' will be published here shortly by Longmans, Green & Co., preceded by an "Apology," in which the author modestly sets forth the circumstances of the book's preparation and publication.

Two of the seven volumes of the definitive edition of the Writings of John G. Whittier come to us from Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Externally, the series is uniform with the Browning published by the same firm, but the letter-press is much more open and inviting. The most venerable and endeared of our poets makes for the last time a classification of his verse, with such information concerning the basis and nature of it and the date at which it was written as is desirable. The prefatory

discourse is of markedly frequent occurrence in the first volume, "Narrative and Legendary Poems," less so in the second, "Poems of Nature; Subjective and Reminiscent; Religious." "Mogg Megone," and other youthful and discarded poems, are relegated to an appendix in a subsequent volume. Whittier's prose writings will be included in the present series. A new and very interesting early likeness, of 1836, accompanies the first volume; one ten years younger the second. While we have in this instalment the poems which embalm so much of New England and Quaker history and tradition, the landmarks of the great abolition struggle and an exquisite American portrait-gallery find their place in a succeeding volume or volumes. Whittier's admirers could hardly wish for a more beautiful monument than this Riverside Edition.

Five editions and two reprints of the same edition in twelve years bear witness to the standard quality of Prof. M. Foster's 'Text-book of Physiology,' of which we had occasion to notice the second edition just ten years ago. Macmillan & Co. have now issued Part I. of the fifth edition, relating to the blood, the tissues of movement, the vascular mechanism. The second and third parts will follow as soon as may be. Considerable revision has taken place, chiefly in the way of fuller elucidation of fundamental topics.

Mr. Charles Morris once more appears as a purveyor of literary readings in "Half-Hours with the Best Foreign Authors" (J. B. Lippincott Co.). In four volumes he collects specimen translations from the Greek and Roman, the German (and Scandinavian, though the Introduction makes no allusion to the latter), the French, the Italian, Spanish, etc. Each volume has a frontispiece portrait. The author's scheme is to begin with some brief general remarks on the literature under survey; the extracts then follow, without chronological or any other order, each generally preceded by a summary account of the author, the translator being sometimes indicated in the editorial note, sometimes appended. When an extract is too long, Mr. Morris cuts it down, with an abstract of the omitted part or parts. An index enables one to discover all the pieces taken from a given author. The editor has brought to his task industry enough, but neither remarkable learning, taste, nor critical ability. We shall not insist on omissions, though Ibsen cannot be found in Volume II., nor Fritz Reuter in Volume III. Both the older and the later Russian writers of distinction, however, are at least honored by remembrance in Volume IV. Taking the repast as offered, many will find it palatable; and all may remember that selection from accessible translations is a far different thing from selection from the whole range of the originals.

In a style uniform with their five-volume editions, royal quarto, of 'Les Misérables' and 'The Count of Monte Cristo,' Geo. Routledge & Sons have just issued Sue's 'Wandering Jew, in three volumes. The translator's name is not given. The nearly two hundred illustrations are by A. Ferdinandus, and clearly belong to another epoch than the present. But if special designs were out of the question, then we should have wished to see more discriminating borrowing. We have in mind a French edition far better furnished than this, whether as regards imagination, consistency of character-types, or draughtsmanship. In short, we have here neither true illustrations nor embellishments. The typography, on the other hand, for which the De Vinne Press is responsible, can be unqualifiedly praised. The binding is simple, in dark-green cloth.

Several reissues of well-known books are before us. The Library Edition of Besant and Rice's novels, which is being brought out by Dodd, Mead & Co., is continued with ''Twas in Trafalgar's Bay, and Other Stories.' Scribner & Welford put their imprint on an English-made volume combining 'The Autobiography of Mark Rutherford' and 'Mark Rutherford's Deliverance.' Macmillan & Co. send us a new edition of 'Edinburgh: Picturesque Notes,' by Robert Louis Stevenson. Its chapters are a series of papers that first saw the light in a magazine, with illustrations. The title well describes the book, which is not an ordinary guide-book. If it were, the text would be less interesting and less literary, and the illustrations would (or might easily be) better; and there would probably be a map for the reader's orientation. Mr. Stevenson makes no concessions to Edinburgh's climate or the new villa architecture; but in other respects he is a good citizen of the gray metropolis of the North. He will not listen to overpraise of Burns at the expense of Fergusson, "our Edinburgh poet."

'Jottings of Travel in China and Japan' (Philadelphia: Porter & Coates), by Simon Adler Stern, contains twenty short chapters, giving the impressions of the author, who recently made the trip. They touch lightly the surface of things, and convey the idea of a bundle of letters privately printed for the eyes of personal friends, rather than a book of information for the public. Mr. Stern's experiences seem to have been only those of the average passenger across the Pacific; and three brief appendices on Chinese pirates, the Queen's jubilee, and Japanese dress have been published in the newspapers. The chapters on treaty revision in Japan and the railway problem in China are the most timely and important in this dainty souvenir of travel.

It is worthy of remark that the Tractarian movement in Oxford is followed in the same university by an interest in the philosophy of Hume. Two editions of this philosopher's works in comparatively recent years indicate the tendencies of thought in that presumably conservative centre. That of Thomas Hill Green, with its able introduction, was the most important. Although the idol of conservative minds, Green was a liberal in religion and politics. He was the original of "Grey" in 'Robert Elsmere,' and the influence of Hume upon him is remarked in the fact that he had surrendered miracles, and that he is represented as speaking of "the fairy tale of Christianity," when alluding to certain historical conceptions of it. Green's volumes, however, are scarcely accessible to the ordinary student, because of cost and size. Hence, a new edition in one volume, 'Hume's Treatise of Human Nature, reprinted from the Original Edition in three volumes, and edited, with an Analytical Index, by L. A. Selby-Brigge, M.A., Fellow and Lecturer of University College' (Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan). It is very convenient in form, with good binding, good paper, clear and excellent type. The analytical index is very complete, occupying some sixty pages, and though the editor apologizes for its length, the student will find it very valuable, if not indispensable. There are no notes or comments, only the text of Hume. The book will make an admirable work for the philosophical class-room, although it would have been greatly improved in this respect if a thorough system of notes had been added. Even as it is, however, the study of Hume is very greatly facilitated.

Cataloguers must count among their perplexities the proper entry of the novel attributed to George Sand, 'Princess Nourmahal,' which Mr. Lew Vanderpoole is said to have translated "from the original French manuscript" (G. W. Dillingham). It is highly improbable that an inedited work by this writer should first see the light in an English dress; and the internal evidence is wholly against the imputed authorship. Until proofs of genuineness are forthcoming, duty to a writer unable to defend her own literary reputation would seem to require that her name should not be attached in catalogues to 'Princess Nourmahal.'

The latest American additions to the Tauchnitz series are Mr. Bret Harte's 'Millionaire of Rough and Ready,' Mr. Gunter's 'Mr. Barnes of New York,' Mrs. Burnett's 'Sara Crewe,' Mr. Marion Crawford's 'With the Immortals,' and Mark Twain's 'Selections from American Humor'—a very motley choice, it would seem to an American.

Not to be partisan in our politics, *Paris Illustré* for October 27 supplies a large colored portrait of Gen. Harrison, as lately of President Cleveland (International News Co.).

A French account of the late festivities at Bologna will be found in the October number of the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement*, from the pen of M. Georges Lafaye.

A striking portrait of the dramatist, Henrik Ibsen, is given with the tenth number of *Die Gesellschaft* (Leipzig: Wilhelm Friedrich).

Many of our readers will be glad to learn of the promotion of Mr. F. W. Maitland, lately Reader of English Law at Cambridge in England, to the place of Downing Professor of Law. This is the oldest chair of law at Cambridge; it was established in 1800, and first occupied by Christian, the learned commentator upon Blackstone. Our readers have already been advised of the admirable work upon Bracton's Note Book and other records of our early law which Mr. Maitland has done. Much is expected of him.

The Slater Memorial Museum of Fine Art at Norwich, Conn., of which our readers have already had some account from us, is to be formally opened on November 22, with an address by Prof. Chas. Eliot Norton.

—The most notable feature of the November *Century* is the beginning, with this first number of a new volume, of Mr. Cole's series of engravings from the Italian masters. As the plan is to follow the historical order, this first instalment naturally brings before us specimens of Byzantine art, with samples of the transitional style of Cimabue. With Mr. W. J. Stillman to furnish the historical and critical comments, and Mr. Cole's unsurpassed technical and artistic skill employed in the reproduction, the series promises to provide material and stimulus for popular art education of the greatest value. Mr. Cole's notes, based on loving and protracted study of his canvases, are landmarks of description and critical discrimination. The opening chapters of the "Romance of Dollard" are of a high order. A prefatory note by Mr. Parkman certifies to the historical accuracy of Mrs. Catherwood's story, and the sure style and skilfully handled material of the new writer speak for themselves. Mr. Kennan's Russian paper appeals to the reader's pity and indignation as strongly as any that have preceded it. It is not alone the physical sufferings of the convicts and political exiles, on their marches to Eastern Siberia, that make the system seem appalling, but the blind, suicidal way in which Russia is robbing herself of her best life. She buries alive the men who were born to be her leaders in science and literature, and condemns the gifted women who might become the mothers of the eminent men of the next generation, to such privations that

suicide often comes as the only escape. Nature does not thus ruthlessly destroy her most promising variations. Dr. Lyman Abbott writes a characteristic article on the "New Reformation," which will probably meet the fate of most mediating efforts in theology and get the buffets of both extremes. It must do good, however, for the *Century's* audience to hear so frank a theologian as Dr. Abbott; only, we share his shrewd suspicion that few of those who most need to hear him will read his article through. Mr. Halstead's "Gravelotte Witnessed and Revisited" will necessarily be compared with Gen. Sheridan's contemporaneous paper, and will suffer from the comparison. The editor has some lively passages, and, in some respects, outstrips the soldier; but the latter's clear straightforwardness and simplicity put him decidedly at the front, on the whole. After the fine writing in which Mr. Halstead pretty freely indulges in his descriptions of the battle, it is somewhat amusing, though perfectly natural, to find him asking Sheridan the next morning, "Please tell me what happened yesterday." Lord Nelson's portrait, with genius stamped on every line of it, ought not to go unmentioned, nor should his hitherto unpublished letters written on the Copenhagen expedition; they are in perfect keeping with all that we know of his eager and impetuous spirit.

—Three more issues by the English Dialect Society make the present year still further remarkable for its publications. One of them is a catalogue of the accessions to the Society's library (in the custody of the Manchester Free Reference Library) since 1880. These have increased the collection nearly one-half, so that the total number of works is 820. No fewer than 139 were added to the 352 already possessed relating to English counties. Besides this catalogue, we have received from Trübner & Co. a 'Glossary of Berkshire Words and Phrases,' by Maj. B. Lowsley, and a much larger 'Glossary of Words Used in the Neighborhood of Sheffield,' by Sidney Oldall Addy. The pronunciation and grammar of Berkshire are sufficiently peculiar to warrant the special attention which Maj. Lowsley gives them. Something of both is discernible in the example cited under the word *zaa* (saw): "'Ooll the Meuster be zo good, an' zo kind, an' zo obligin', an zo condescendin' as to len' we the mate-*zaa* vor to *zaa* our me-at?" Initial *f* is always pronounced *v*, and initial *s* preceding a vowel (including *w* and *y*) has the sound of *z*. *Meat* and similar words may, as above, be made either monosyllables or dissyllables. Maj. Lowsley goes extensively also into manners and customs, superstitions, and folk-lore generally. One of the "sayings" is (of the superfluous or unsuitable), "as much as a two-ad (toad) wants a zide-pocket." It would, if we had room, be easy to quote a large number of amusing expressions. "A had *just about* a tumble" is Berkshire for "He had a very severe tumble"—our colloquial "quite," but stronger. "Cupboard love" denotes the affection which children have for those who give them sweetmeats, etc. Here is a good definition in dialect:

> "A chap be called a '*hobble de hoye*'
> As be shart of a man but moor'n a bwoy."

—Mr. Addy, too, has much to tell in his introduction about Sheffield customs, and he is an innovator (so far as we remember) in respect of inserting local place-names among the common parts of speech in his Glossary. This he does very extensively, and, we should suppose, most usefully, since he quotes when possible from old deeds and other instruments in which a name occurs. Sheffield he interprets to mean "the field of division." "America," the name of two fields, is accounted for in one case by reference to its remoteness from the village. It is of interest to notice that "the Derwent is still called the *Darwin* and also the *Darrand*." Mr. Addy argues plausibly in favor of the view that the author of the 'Catholicon Anglicum,' perhaps the oldest English dictionary, was a Yorkshireman; and he fain would make him also a native of Rotherham, and give a name to him. Mr. Addy's equipment for the glossary proper seems inferior to that of some of his predecessors, and his remarks occasionally have a touch of naïveté. Reference to earlier volumes in this series would have explained to him the term *whigged* (of milk) as meaning "wheyed." The Sheffield dialect contains numerous quaint concepts, as *manners-bit*, the 'portion of a dish left by the guests that the host may not feel himself reproached for insufficient preparation'; *thrift-pot*, a savings bank; *waistcoat-piece*, a breast of mutton; *dateless*, with memory gone; *be-twittered*, 'excited, frightened, overcome with pleasing excitement,' etc. *Clever* denotes 'physically strong'; *buxom*, 'a good-tempered, well-fed rural beauty, not unconscious of her power of attraction, nor unwilling to receive a chaste expression of admiration,' etc. *Christian* is used of a man in contradistinction to a beast of the field. Both poetically and truthfully, "one is said to be his *own man* when he is in his usual health." It is odd to find *nous* in vogue with the meaning 'sense, ability,' and to be told that it may not be the university slang. We refrain from further quotation with this locution for 'how much soever': "*Choose how much* I did for him, I never could please him."

— A quarto pamphlet of twenty-eight pages, entitled 'Objects and Work of the Selden Society, with an Account of the Principal Classes of Manuscripts with which the Society Proposes to Deal,' may be obtained by any one interested (price one shilling) from the publisher, Bernard Quaritch, No. 15 Piccadilly, London. It sets out at length the objects of the Society, one of which is the collection of material for dictionaries of "Anglo-French" and law terms; and Prof. W. W. Skeat furnishes a "scheme" for the proper collection of such materials, with practical directions for the transcription of words and quotations. This scheme, together with the Prospectus of the Society, was published in the London *Law Times* for April 23, 1887 (pp. 449-451). Prof. Skeat uses the term "Anglo-French," he explains, as the best one, "from a philological point of view," to distinguish the language of the French manuscripts written in England from the Norman-French, from which Anglo-French gradually diverged. Prof. Skeat's directions for the preparation of word-slips furnishes another illustration of the slowness with which English scholars realize the full benefits of that beneficent invention, the card system. The best size of card to use is given as seven by four and one-half inches, but these dimensions are apparently accidental, being those of the commonest size of English note-paper, which it is recommended should be used—even the utilization of unused halves of old letters being suggested. After the sheets have been written upon, they are to be alphabetized, and then tied up in bundles. Here we have three distinct sources of waste. The sheets of note-paper, to be kept of the proper size, must be cut into halves by hand with a paper-knife—a useless labor in this age of machine-work; besides, by this method one edge is left rough, which interferes with the proper manipulation of the finished sheets. The preparation of scholarly work upon second-hand paper is poor economy. Such labor is wearing at best, and it is not wise to tax the tired brain with the added strain caused by the vexation of trying to write on paper which has been folded and crumpled—a strain which is by no means insignificant, as most writers will have learned. Furthermore, the handwriting will, of necessity, be poorer, resulting in increased chances of error; and this last is a consideration of great importance in work of the kind contemplated. Finally, the method used in arranging and preserving the completed cards is of the very first importance, and tying them up in bundles is about the worst possible way, especially where the nature of the work in preparation demands constant reference to them.

— It is astonishing how slowly the European mind seizes upon the fact that these cards will stand upon their lower edges in drawers or trays, without other support than that which each card affords to its neighbor. In one of the large libraries of Great Britain, for example, a catalogue of books had been prepared on cards which were kept (considerably more than one hundred thousand of them) in beautiful cases of drawers, each drawer being about one inch in depth, and nicely divided into compartments of a size corresponding to the cards, except that sufficient space was left at one end to allow the insertion of the fingers when the contents were to be removed. Here the cards reposed, in suitable bunches, flat on the sides, it being necessary to remove a whole parcel every time a single card was to be referred to. If these cards had been placed upright in drawers of a suitable depth, not only would there have been a great saving of space, but each card would have been entirely accessible, and could have been referred to without a moment's loss of time, and without the least disturbance of the cards coming before or after it. It could have been removed and replaced in a few seconds, or changed to another position, with no disarrangement of the remaining cards, while new ones could have been added *ad libitum* without any difficulty; whereas, in the case of the catalogue mentioned above, the addition of more cards to any one parcel than the depth of the drawer would allow, necessitated the shifting of the cards in every compartment beyond the one where the additional cards were placed—a vexatious labor, involving great loss of time. Another frequent mistake in the use of cards for catalogue, dictionary, or index work is that of having them made of too thick paper. In no case, even though a large size is desirable, or clippings are to be pasted on them, is it necessary to have the cards thicker than the one-hundredth part of an inch. If they are cut by machine, as they ought to be, and consequently of a uniform size, with smooth edges, they can readily be used no thicker than two hundred or three hundred to the inch.

—Booksellers and librarians will rejoice to receive the eleventh volume of Lorenz's "Catalogue Général de la Librairie Française," forming the subject-index to the two previous volumes. It is made in what is called the "dictionary" style, another testimony (of the more importance because appearing in the land of Brunet, whose systematic arrangement has been so widely copied) to the superior serviceableness of an alphabetic arrangement of subjects. There is, however, one not objection-

able departure from strict dictionary rules. Under "Poésies," "Romans," "Théâtre (Pièces de)" are alphabetically arranged lists of titles of poems, novels, and plays. In a pure dictionary catalogue these would be dispersed throughout the alphabet. The pleasure of getting this index will be somewhat dimmed by the announcement that the author now gives up the work, after twenty-seven years of labor. He expresses the hope that he shall find a successor. It will be very unfortunate for all who have to do with French literature if he does not. For the issues of nearly half a century (1840–1885) his work is a sure and easy guide; what should one do without it? The utility of continuing it ought to tempt some bibliographical enthusiast and martyr—for the pecuniary reward must certainly be slight. That the labor is not, may appear from Lorenz's assertion that he sent proofs to all the authors whose works were contained in his last two volumes (IX and X), some 6,000 circulars in all, and received replies from between 4,500 and 5,000.

—The October number of *Les Lettres et les Arts* (Paris: Boussod, Valadon et Cie.; New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons) opens with another long passage from the "Notes et Souvenirs" of M. Ludovic Halévy, extending this time from August 11, 1871, to January 19, 1872. It would perhaps be ungrateful to question whether these delightful notes were ever taken, even in the most rudimentary form, either at the dates affixed to them or at any other period; but the reader cannot help feeling that many of the events and personages of the brilliant collection here offered to his attention have nothing to distinguish them from the purely literary creations of the author. The comedy is as brilliant in one case as in the other, and no one will be likely to find any fault with M. Halévy that his "Souvenirs" are presented in so attractive a form. There are two very readable stories in the present number. In "Le Lotus rouge" a young captain of Zouaves and his orderly, and a young Chinese girl and her attendant, play their parts in one of M. Gaston Bergeret's light and amusing little comedies, in which the only thing real is the undercurrent of scarcely indicated sentiment characteristic of his writing. "La Déjanira" is by a less known writer, M. Alain de Mérionec. It is a story of Padua in the middle of the last century, in which music and jealousy are the principal motive powers. There is a charm in the telling of the tale and in the presentation of the scenes in which it passes that makes it pleasant reading. The most valuable as well as the most interesting article in the number is the second part of "Les Canons anciens et modernes," by General Thoumas. The startling progress made since the Franco-Prussian war in everything relating to artillery is told with a rapidity and precision that suggest well-executed military manœuvres, and add to one's interest in the statements made the pleasure caused by the complete harmony between the subject and the manner in which it is treated. The author in the end only states, without resolving, the well-known paradox, that the perfection of all the engines of destruction of which he has been writing is a step towards the realization of universal peace; but the facts he sets forth seem to indicate that the nations of Europe are now engaged in a new kind of war, in which physically destructive battles are superseded by struggles, of which the effects are both moral and financial, in the invention of more and more terrible and costly engines of destruction. It remains a question as yet whether this new warfare is any less destructive of human happiness and progress than the old.

THE COMTE DE PARIS'S HISTORY OF THE CIVIL WAR.

History of the Civil War in America. By the Comte de Paris. Vol. iv. 8vo, pp. 681. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.

THE translation of the continuation of the Comte de Paris's 'History of the Civil War' appears in advance of the regular French edition. A note by Col. Nicholson, the American editor, tells us that this volume "contains, without abridgment, the seventh volume of the French edition, and so much of the eighth volume as was contained in the manuscript which the distinguished author carried with him when he was banished from France." It is also intimated that the preparation of the work is indefinitely suspended.

Irrespective of political questions between the Orleans princes and the French Republic, American readers will sincerely regret the suspension of historical work by the Comte de Paris. The fairness of his spirit has been manifest in every chapter, his military criticism is rarely at fault, his powers of description give his pages great vividness and stirring life, and his sympathy with the national cause for which he fought is sincere and outspoken, while he is by no means a blind partisan. No other historian of the Civil War can compare with him in grasp of the subject as a whole, and in judicious proportioning of the parts. We have numerous good histories of campaigns, and are accumulating much valuable material for a complete history; but, for some years to come, we shall be likely to look to the Comte de Paris for the formal history of the great struggle. This would make it the more unfortunate if his work is destined to remain a fragment.

There is this comfort, however, in the matter—that the point to which he had brought his narrative when he left France was a natural period in the history. The present volume brings it down to the appointment of Gen. Grant to the command, under the President, of all the armies of the nation. It tells of the campaigns of Chickamauga and of East Tennessee, of Missionary Ridge and of Knoxville, of Gillmore's operations before Charleston, and of Banks's Red River expedition. It closes the period of multifarious scattered efforts, and prepares the way for the last act in the drama, when our Eastern army and our Western—Grant before Richmond, and Sherman from Chattanooga to Raleigh by way of Atlanta—concentrated the attention of the civilized world. It would be impossible to find a point at which a writer could more easily stop (if he must stop short of the end) than that which the historian has now reached. The volumes already published make a work in themselves, covering the period when the direction of our armies was in the hands of McClellan and Halleck, the assumed theoretic experts in the art of war, before they passed to the control of Grant, the hardy, inexorable, and indomitable soldier who had no academic standing worth speaking of.

Looking at these four volumes together, it is not difficult to see that the Comte de Paris has predilections which modify his views, notwithstanding the manifest fairness of his purpose. He has what it is not unjust to call prejudices, both political and military; and his military prejudices may be subdivided as personal and as between the regular and volunteer officers. It would have been very strange if his mind had not been more or less warped, considering the circumstances of his connection with our army. He was an aide-de-camp of McClellan during the Peninsular campaign, and then returned to France. He was a very young man, susceptible to the personal charm of his chief and to the influences which prevailed at headquarters. He was there accustomed to hear Mr. Lincoln spoken of in habitual terms of gross contempt, and Mr. Stanton as an unprincipled political adventurer who had been made Secretary of War through McClellan's friendship, only that he might seek to ruin the man by whose aid he had mounted to power. At the same headquarters it was a fixed opinion that McClellan had no second as a general, being the only man in the country competent to conduct a great army. Another article of faith was that only the officers of the regular army had any claim to be considered soldiers, and that, even of these, a comparatively small inner circle included all that should have aspirations beyond the command of a brigade. When the air was saturated with such notions, maintained with passionate earnestness by the younger men, and more or less openly avowed by all, the wonder is, not that the young French prince should have been influenced in his view of American affairs by this medium through which he necessarily saw them, but that, in his later studies, he should have risen so far above them as to leave comparatively little trace of their effect.

Yet there are traces. He blames Mr. Lincoln's retention of McDowell's corps near Washington in the spring of 1862, while he does not blame McClellan's disobedience of the condition on which the Government assented to the Peninsular campaign, viz., that a fixed number of troops should be left for the protection of the capital. The general tone adopted towards the Administration is, in all military matters, at least depreciating. In the volume before us, the tardiness of Rosecrans's movements towards Chattanooga in 1863 is debited to the account of the Government, because Grant and Burnside had not been put in motion to support his flanks in July. "One month," it is said, "would have sufficed, if the direction of these manœuvres had been intrusted to one head only, and not to three generals under the pedantic and annoying control of the small Aulic Council at Washington." The intimation here is that, although Halleck was the responsible general-in-chief, there was also a habitual consultation by the President and Secretary of War with other military men at the capital, and that this was mischievous in its effects. This was one of the common matters of complaint at McClellan's headquarters in 1862, and originated with the consultation by Mr. Lincoln with McDowell, Franklin, and Meigs, when McClellan was ill in the December previous. Gen. Hitchcock was substituted for Franklin in the gossip of subsequent years. There was nothing resembling that bugbear of European soldiers, the Austrian Aulic Council. It was both the right and the duty of the President, as commander-in-chief, to enlighten himself by consultation with the members of his official staff or other military officers on duty at Washington. After a general was assigned to a command in the field, he was allowed as large latitude as is ever given to such commanders. In the Austro-Prussian war, Manteuffel commanded a separate army in the Rhine valley, whilst Moltke was with King William in Bohemia, and the orders to the former were not less definite than those sent by Halleck to Rosecrans. We should not quarrel with the author if he argued that Halleck was not Moltke's equal, but we cannot admit that the case was one of an Aulic Council.

Again, in the criticism of Burnside's campaign, the "Washington Government" is charged with sacrificing the true military end of the movement to politics. In a sense, this is true. It was a question of high politics as well as of Mr. Lincoln's sympathy with the noble loyalists of East Tennessee. It would be easy to state this so that no blame would be attached to the President's action under such motives, even if a military man disagreed with him; but we cannot approve of attributing it to the low side of political conduct, as the author does when he says, "True military interest was sacrificed to the desire of securing a politic result which might be praised in the newspapers and applauded by the multitude." The truth is, that the military view was sacrificed to the political in ordering the movement at all, and not so much in the orders given to Burnside after he had reached Knoxville. Buell had pointed out, in the fall of 1861, that the only way to liberate East Tennessee was by an army moving from Nashville upon Chattanooga, and nothing could be better evidence of his sound military judgment. He analyzed the problem, showing the impossibility of sustaining an army there by a line of wagon communication over the mountains two hundred miles long. Burnside's soldiers learned the truth of this to their cost when they were starving and naked in the winter of 1863-64, before railroad communication could be extended to them. But the loyal mountaineers had burned their ships as soon as the war began, and had been hunted and harried and hanged from that time till the national forces occupied the valley. It was not low politics to be willing to do even unmilitary things for their rescue.

The personal predilections of the author appear gracefully in losing no opportunity to praise those whom he had known in the Potomac army, and not unpardonably when he condones or apologizes for the faults they may have committed in later campaigns. He is, however, true to history in matters of fact whenever they are known to him, and even his friendship for McClellan does not make him conceal the fatal defect of constantly and grossly overrating the opposing army. As a good "McClellan man," he has no mercy for Halleck, and can see no good in him. We could more easily agree with him in this were not the two men so alike in mental constitution that a list of the faults and weaknesses of the one would pretty well answer for the other. There was no comparison in their personal attractiveness, but this counts for little in a critical estimate of their performance of public duty. The sharp contrast in the tone used towards them by the author must therefore be set down in good part to the personal predilection already mentioned.

The Comte de Paris can hardly be said to have known much of the volunteer officers of our army. His service with them in a single campaign, and that the first one made by the Army of the Potomac, could hardly enable him to form any accurate judgment of their quality. It was the well understood policy of McClellan to concentrate in that army the largest possible number of regular officers, and they were proportionately much more numerous than in the Western armies. Gen. Scott had begun the organization of forces for the war, with the settled opinion that it was to be, like the brief conflict with Mexico in 1848, a war in which volunteers would not have time to learn the soldier's trade, and must be regarded as undisciplined auxiliaries to be used in a subordinate way to assist the smaller body of regular troops. McClellan modified this so far as to aim at forming a large army of volunteers, officered, as far as possible in places above regimental commands, by regular officers. One who accepted the views current at headquarters of the Potomac army in its first campaign, could scarcely credit the change which a year or two of constant field-work would make. There remains, throughout all the volumes of the history before us, a perceptible difference of manner in speaking of officers of the two kinds; it is probably unintentional, but it is noticeable. An illustration will best make it evident.

The author details with fulness and unquestionable good faith two unfortunate expeditions—that of the cavalry under Gen. Sooy Smith, intended to coöperate with Gen. Sherman in the Meridian expedition, and the Red River expedition under Gen. Banks. In both he takes the unfavorable view of the performance of duty by the responsible commander. In the first he limits himself to such criticism as is strictly necessary to reach his judicial conclusion, and makes no general comment whatever upon the character of the officer as a soldier or a man. In the second, however, one cannot avoid the impression that volunteer officers as a class are criticised over Gen. Banks's shoulders. The relation of the expedition to the purpose of bringing out cotton from the Red-River country, leads to mention of cotton speculators, who are said to have been the "scourge" of the Western army, "wherever the honest and energetic chiefs, imbued by their education with true military spirit, such as Grant and Sherman, could not nip the evil at its root. These speculators," it is added, "were too often spared by generals who had the fault of mingling political matters with the duties of their command." The contrast instituted between generals of military education and political generals is obvious. If, however, we inquire who had been the objects of severest criticism (justly or unjustly), we must answer Frémont, Ormsby Mitchell, and Butler, of whom two had been regulars. A subsequent chapter narrates the Florida expedition under Gillmore and Seymour for a similar political purpose, equally unfortunate, and condemned also by the author as unmilitary; but no intimation is made that the regular officers who conducted it were therefore political generals.

In strictly military comparisons, there is the same disparaging contrast. We are told that the Confederate Gen. Richard Taylor was eager to take the "first opportunity to measure his strength with his adversary, of whose military inexperience he was but too well aware." So, when Banks was superseded by Canby, the author remarks that "the authority with which he (Canby) was invested, and that which his vast experience conferred upon him, were guarantees that henceforth the Federal Armies of the Far West were going to be handled with a thoroughness which up to that time had been lacking." The contrast is in both cases based on the "inexperience" of Banks; yet it is a simple historical fact that Banks had had more experience in handling large bodies of troops in actual war than either Taylor or Canby. In the expedition to the Texas coast preceding this to the Red River, the author has very frankly given the evidence, and stated the conclusion that, both in sound military conception and in practical execution, Banks's ideas were superior to Halleck's, and were well carried out.

On the Red River expedition, Gen. Franklin was second in rank to Banks, and Gen. Stone was his chief-of-staff. Unless it were shown that these officers were excluded from his consultations, it would be presumed that the organization and movement of the army were not wholly Banks's work. But in this, as well as in the tactical handling of the troops at the battle of Mansfield, the prominent subordinates are exonerated from responsibility and blame, and the "ignorance of the true principles of warfare" on the part of the General is made to account for all that was untoward. The same sweeping condemnation follows each step, till the last one is characterized as "the finishing stroke of disgrace for the general-in-chief." It would be too long a task to analyze the campaign and point out the debatable points in the criticism. We think it enough to say that the tone of the whole, when compared with that used in regard to the other commanders of expeditions mentioned, seems to show that the same standard of judgment of principals and subordinates is not used; and the assumption of Banks's inexperience and ignorance is made a reason (unconsciously, no doubt) for saddling upon him many more sins than his own.

It is time that it should be distinctly recognized that three years of actual experience in a great war and in responsible commands was, for a man of intelligence and of courage, a school in military art in comparison with which any academic preparation is insignificant. Grant explicitly and most broadly recognizes this in his 'Personal Memoirs,' and declares that at the close of the Vicksburg campaign such men as Logan and Blair were every way fit to command armies. European wars attest the same principle. Moreau and Hoche and Ney are too brilliant examples of men passing from civil employment to successful military careers to be overlooked by a French writer, if Americans should not think of them. It is the first step which costs, and the advantage of what in this country has been rather rashly called military education is found in the beginning of an unprecedented struggle, and not after it has continued through several campaigns; after that time, men may safely be left to stand on the merits of their conduct, considered by itself, without reference to their antecedents in time of peace. Our civil war showed the wreck of many reputations among those assumed by a false standard to be preeminently fit to lead armies, and gave solid ground for the conclusion that no man can be called a general till he has stood the test of responsible command when the lives of men and the fortunes of his country depended on his action.

We do not now discuss the question how far the judgment of incompetency against Gen. Banks would be modified by applying to him the same canons of criticism, with the same presumptions in his favor, which are applied to Halleck, Gillmore, Seymour, Sooy Smith, Franklin, or Stone. We only say that this does not seem to have been quite completely done in the volume before us. With the limitations thus indicated, the high praise to be given the author for clearness of vision, for industry of investigation, and for an earnest purpose to judge fairly, cannot easily be overstated. There are some apparent slips in translation, but the delay of the original edition would make any statement of them merely conjectural. The general current of the narrative is lively and attractive, and the vivid picturing of the several campaigns makes fascinating reading of the whole work.

SOME HOLIDAY BOOKS.

Warwick Brookes's Pencil Pictures of Child Life. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

Fairy Lilian, and Other Poems. By Alfred Tennyson. Illustrated. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.

The Bugle Song, and Other Poems. Illustrated. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.

Ranch Life and the Hunting-Trail. By Theodore Roosevelt. Illustrated by Frederic Remington. The Century Co.

Sundry Rhymes from the Days of our Grandmothers. Collected and illustrated by George Wharton Edwards. A. D. F. Randolph & Co.

The Diverting History of John Gilpin. By William Cowper. Illustrated by H. Rosa. George Routledge & Sons.

THUS far the holiday books of the year seem to be of a lighter mould than those to which we have become accustomed of late years. Perhaps the publishers feel that the putting out of elaborate and expensive books for this season has been overdone, and have called a halt for the present; perhaps we have only the skirmish line to deal with as yet, and the heavy battalions are to come. At any rate, we do not see any of those volumes of serious artistic importance which this time of year has been wont to bring forth.

The slightest of all in mere physical bulk, yet the weightiest in artistic metal, is the dainty little volume containing some twenty-eight photographic reproductions of pencil-sketches —most of them of children—by the late Warwick Brookes. The text, by T. Letherbrow, a personal friend of the artist, gives us a glimpse of a singularly sweet and winning character, and some account of a sturdy and laborious life. Mr. Brookes seems to have been almost entirely self-taught. Born in 1808, the son of a poor calico printer, he was taken from school at nine years old to aid his father in his work as what is known as a "tear-boy," whose duty is "to dip a brush in color and to keep supplied the color-cloth on which the printer daubed his block before he applied it to the fabric." While still at this work, some of his drawings fell into the hands of his employer, who placed him as an apprentice in the designing-room. By the time he had become a journeyman his father seems to have died, and the support of his mother fell upon him. To support her first, and his wife and children later, he worked steadily at his trade until his long last illness began in 1865, and it was in the leisure left by this employment that his artistic work was done. In 1838 a night-school for drawing was established in Manchester by the efforts of that singular being, B. R. Haydon, and this school Brookes attended for five years. Then he and others founded a school of their own which was carried on for more than twenty years. He never seems to have had a studio or even an easel, but worked standing, holding his paper in his hand. His models were his own children. When his long illness began, some of his drawings were, for the first time, published by his friends, and attracted the attention of artists and laymen. He made many warm friendships with the most eminent men in England, and received a pension from the Government. He died in 1882.

His art is certainly very interesting. It is not marked, as it was not to be expected it should be, by great force or by academic correctness; sometimes it is curiously feeble. His crowded compositions are weak, as is his landscape; and occasionally there is a visible preoccupation with the style of the classic or post-classic period of Italian art, while again a modern German influence will seem to have commanded him. He is at his best in drawings of one or two childish figures without background or accessories. Some of these are exceptionally delicate and refined in execution, and full of subtle and natural expression. His children are perhaps a trifle too angelic—they are certainly not "of the earth earthy"—but the gentle and sweet side of child nature could hardly be better given. In some of the drawings, the vague stare of very small babies is capitally rendered. Mr. Brookes is not a commanding personality in art, but he is a personality well worth making acquaintance with, and this little book deserves the popularity it is likely to attain, at least with all mothers of children. The reproductions by Mr. Kurtz are capital, and of an accuracy and fine fidelity beyond the reach of wood-engraving.

Whatever Mr. Brookes's drawings may lack, they at least make up a book possessing the quality of unity of purpose and of style; but the very genius of higgeldy-piggeldy seems to have presided at the construction of the two publications that come to us from Estes & Lauriat. Fourteen artists of various talent and degrees of talent are represented by the illustrations of 'Fairy Lilian, and Other Poems'; and their drawings not only bear no relation to each other, but seem to bear very little to the text. There is plenty of cleverness and of ability, but it is cleverness and ability wasted for want of intelligent direction. Illustration of well-known poetical compositions is always dangerous; but when the whole series of designs is unified by one mind and one purpose, it may impress one with its own right to existance independently of the text upon which it is grafted. Here the drawings are like the pictures in an exhibition, each (to use a Gallicism) swearing at its neighbors, and each losing, rather than all gaining, in effectiveness by their proximity; they must be taken separately, and, so taken, their inefficiency as interpretations of the poetry is the more marked. This piecemeal character of the work is distracting enough, but the confusion is worse confounded by the details of book-making. There is not a picture in the book that is printed in the middle of the page. An illaudable ingenuity has been shown in spotting the illustrations irregularly upon the leaves, and surrounding each with an annoying decoration in pale gray, or in designing them of odd and unsymmetrical shapes.

The second book from the same publishers is worse, for it has not even any discoverable unity in the text itself. It contains short poems by Tennyson, Goethe, Moore, Longfellow, and Scott; and the selection cannot even be accounted for by the exigencies of illustration, for one of the poems appears without any illustration at all. The drawings range from mediocrity downwards.

The other books on our table may be more rapidly dismissed. Both Mr. Roosevelt's sketches of Western life and Mr. Remington's illustrations are too well known through the pages of the *Century Magazine*, in which they first appeared, to need much notice here. It is enough to say of the latter that, while not in any serious sense works of art, they are capable and spirited illustrations. The book is handsomely printed on heavy paper, with wide margins, and somewhat fantastically bound. Mr. George Wharton Edwards's illustrations of the wofully moral ballads he has gathered together from the Taylor family, are superficially clever and evidently imitative of Abbey, while Mr. H. Rosa's illustrations of 'John Gilpin' are not even superficially clever, and are equally evidently imitated from Caldecott.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.

GOOD lessons of family affection and of self-denial, of courage and of enterprise, are taught in 'Raymond Kershaw,' by Maria McIntosh Cox (Roberts Bros.). This is the narrative of a struggle with limited means by a family suddenly bereft of their supporter. It is very well told and in a sweet spirit, the charm of which will perhaps be as much heightened to some readers as marred to others by the Episcopalian coloring.

An entirely charming story, entitled 'The Captain's Dog,' has been, not literally translated, but "done into English" by Huntington Smith from the French of Louis Énault. (T. Y. Crowell & Co.) The dog's character and intelligence are drawn by a loving hand, his human companions pleasantly sketched, and the incidents of the story told with grace, humor, and *esprit*. One or two of the illustrations, representing the hero, really add to the value of the book, but as a general thing they have little merit.

Young girls will thank Mrs. J. W. Davis for her excellent translation from the German of Eva Hartner's story called 'Pythia's Pupils' (Routledge). It is most refreshingly different from the ordinary type of stories for girls. The scene is a small German city, and the heroines are members of a cooking-class. Their culinary experiences, their friendship for each other, their domestic life, are all related with engaging simplicity and vivacity, and they themselves are delightful specimens of cheery and kind-hearted girlhood minus the intense self-consciousness of the American maiden. Dora's fear of her father will seem singular to our cis-Atlantic daughters, but it only adds to the quaintness of the book. It is a pity that we have not more such stories, so firm morally, so quiet and healthy in tone. The translator's style is very clear and pleasant.

Mrs. Champney has interwoven with some personal impressions of the West others gained from reading, and embodied them in a story called 'Howling Wolf and his Trick Pony' (D. Lothrop Co.). Indian scenes, legends, and superstitions appear plentifully. We find also some illustrations of the white man's cruelty to the Indian. The story opens well, but drags later on. At times it taxes severely the reader's notions of probability, and once or twice degenerates into positive silliness. On the whole, it is moderately interesting.

An absurd story, written by Selden R. Hopkins, and called 'The Young Prince of Commerce' (D. Lothrop Co.) has for its object to teach matters of business and explain financial terms and operations. No doubt, a person ignorant of such things may learn considerable from its pages; but the instruction would have been given far better without a silly setting of fiction, and, moreover, should have been clearer and fuller.

Fairyland lacks its due enchantment when its charms are catalogued. 'Brownies and Bogles,' by Louise Imogen Guiney (D. Lothrop Co.) is not, as one might fancy from glancing at its pretty pictures of elves, a collection of stories, but seems an attempt to give children a smattering of folk-lore by classifying the "little people" who at different times and places have been supposed to exist. The authoress has done her best to enliven her book by sprightly comment and description, intermingled with accounts of fairy doings and occasionally the outline of a special story. Nevertheless, those for whom it is written will hardly have the patience to read it; and why should they? The virtue which would carry them through its tediousness would do them better service in some other field.

'Jack in the Bush, or, A Summer on a Salmon River,' by Robert Grant (Boston: Jor-

dan, Marsh & Co.), recounts the exploits, on the York and St. John Rivers in Lower Canada, of a party of six boys, taken for the occasion by a self-sacrificing gentleman, who was a sound sportsman and a master of the art of properly governing the youth in his charge. The author knows about salmon fishing, and is perfectly familiar with the phenomena of Canadian woods-life. His book is instructive, interesting, healthy reading from beginning to end.

The same cannot be said of 'The Search for the Star,' another boys' book, by Edward Willett (T. Y. Crowell & Co.). The story is of the journey of a party of boys to the headwaters of the Penobscot in search of an improbable man who has stolen an apochryphal ornament from their parents. They kill moose, deer, bears, wild-cats (as the author calls panthers), "Indian devils," which are animals of great size and ferocity, till now unknown, and have various other adventures, nearly all so palpably invented and so badly described as to awaken no feeling save one of indignation in the reader that such trash can be printed on any except political topics and just before an election.

One book, which seems to have been originally intended for two, is 'Wrecked in Labrador' (T. Y. Crowell & Co.). The wreck appears only in the second part, but in both we have an account of visits made to the coast of Labrador by people who are represented as enjoying greatly the opportunities for fishing, etc., offered by that region. The author, Winfrid A. Stearns, states that much of the story is a transcript from his own diary. He would have made a briefer and better book if he had not forgotten that many things interesting to one's self appear very trivial and tedious to the general reader; moreover, the style is poor, and the language often ungrammatical.

G. P. Putnam's Sons give us a handsome volume, well and appropriately illustrated, in Margaret Vere Farrington's 'Tales of King Arthur and His Knights of the Round Table.' This is pleasantly written, though not always with sufficient care; and if our young people will put up with some inevitable monotony, it will give them a good idea of various of the Arthurian legends. It is, of course, impossible, in treating material of this kind, to avoid some presentation of ideas which we dislike to put before boys and girls, but these our author has touched very lightly. Indeed, a believer in literary candor would be tempted to desire the postponement until adult age of a kind of reading which necessitates such caution. The preface to the book, which aims to give an idea of the rise of this legendary matter, is less clear than it should be.

Denkmäler des klassischen Altertums. Von A. Baumeister. Munich: R. Oldenbourg. 1885–1888.

AMERICAN scholars are often heard, after their return from a few years of study at one or other of the great European universities, to lament the absence at home of the unlimited facilities for investigation to which they have become accustomed abroad. Few, perhaps, reflect that nineteen-twentieths of their German fellow-students, after an equally brief or even briefer sojourn among the museums and libraries of Berlin, Munich, or Vienna, find their professional engagements at small country colleges often in no wise better equipped than our own, making fully equal exactions on the time of their instructors, and practically quite as remote from the coveted facilities of the metropolitan university. The plan of the 'Monuments of Classical Antiquity' was drawn up with special reference to the needs of these teachers. This does not exclude an appeal to cultivated lovers of antiquity of all classes, notably among artists, collectors, and literary amateurs. No one, in these days, can be expected to take all the publications devoted to the elucidation of the concrete side of antiquity and the reporting of the almost daily discoveries made in this field. Still less can any individual dream of owning all the sumptuous folios that illustrate the topography of ancient cities and the varied marvels of ancient art. Most of these works are out of print, and can therefore be obtained, if at all, only at fancy prices. To comprise in one publication either the whole field, or the most captivating aspects of what the French so aptly designate under the term *l'antiquité figurée*—this has been one of the great practical problems in the advancement of learning. Each generation of scholars, almost ever since the revival of learning, has felt the want, and has offered a solution of its own.

The name of "Monuments" is itself a traditional title. The first comprehensive work of the sort was the learned Bernard de Montfaucon's 'L'antiquité expliquée et représentée en figures,' which came out at Paris, from 1719 to 1724, in fifteen folio volumes. Its modern parallel, Daremberg and Saglio's great 'Dictionnaire,' gives little promise of advancing far beyond the first three letters of the alphabet. The idea of a selection was uppermost in Winckelmann's 'Monumenti antichi inediti' (Rome 1767–68), and also in the grand old 'Monumenti dell' Instituto,' the serial issue of which was but recently suppressed through an acute access of *furor Teutonicus* that suddenly made itself felt in Berlin. The superb volumes of heliotype plates from choice antique statuary, engraved in the very finest style of mechanical reproduction by the firm of Dujardin, and edited by Rayet under the title, 'Monuments de l'art antique,' are well known to book-lovers. Yet Rayet is in his turn to be eclipsed by Brunn's new undertaking, 'Monuments of Greek and Roman Sculpture.'

Perhaps it was the deterrent price of this last work, which is now in progress of issue (at $5.00 a number, or $400 complete, in case the price is not raised), that suggested what a field there might be for a rival on a more modest scale, if Baumeister's 'Monuments' can fitly be called so. Both collections are, in fact, the outcome of an intelligently culled opportunity, being based on the recent advances made in the science and art of photographic reproduction. In the 'Monuments of Ancient Sculpture,' as for Rayet's nearly synonymous work, the heliotype process is employed throughout. The twenty-four hundred plates and inset figures that furnish forth the copious illustration of the present work, are mainly distributed (according to whether a photograph from the original *monument* or a standard line engraving is taken for archetype) between the recently invented wire-net and the long-familiar etched-zinc processes. Both methods of reproduction seem almost providentially designed for the purposes of an archæological reference-book like the present dictionary. By the aid of them, the publishers have harvested in, for the benefit of even the least affluent of classical scholars and teachers, a wealth of material heretofore accessible only to the wealthiest of well-circumstanced amateurs, if, indeed, to these; for how many dispose of such a treasury of archæological publications as the Bavarian State Library, or have at hand so rich or so carefully accumulated a cabinet of photographs from the antique as that attached to the Chair of Classical Archæology in the University of Munich, and slowly collected by Professor Brunn? These two sources have been lavishly drawn upon in the formation of the magnificent store of capital cuts, equally remarkable for the elegance of their execution and for the absolute faithfulness with which they render their originals, that distinguishes the 'Denkmäler.'

Not a small proportion of the works of ancient sculpture made accessible in these trustworthy engravings are published for the first time altogether, or for the first time with any approach to veracity. Some have been so distorted in the ordinary trade-cuts one groans to meet again and again, in manual after manual, that it is like breathing the freshness of the marble itself to let the eye repose on the nicely graded shading of an unfalsified presentment. Here, to open at random near the beginning of Volume I of the 'Denkmäler,' is the sepulchral stele of our old friend Aristion, "the soldier of Marathon," as the Greek photograph dealers persist in calling him, although he more probably served in the body-guard of the Peisistratidæ. Much cited as this relief has been, both on account of its vestiges of a festive coloring and because it is the earliest signed work by an Athenian master that we possess, it has remained badly known. In Figure 358 we can at last see it as it is without having to go to Athens; even the painted portion of Aristokles' design is clearly visible. How interesting to compare with this partly colored low-relief the entirely painted specimen portrayed in Figure 935. Here there is no relief at all, nothing but a flat marble slab, on which Lyseas, the dead man, appears delineated in graven outlines, which were filled out, as may be tolerably discerned even in the engraving, with red, white, green, black, etc. Perhaps the process is a little better suited to the rendering of the sharply contrasted lights and shades of sculptured drapery than for the subtler surface modelling of the nude. It is sufficient to compare two fair types of the best that can be achieved in this style of illustrations. Figure 1,549 gives us the Louvre torso of Praxiteles' "Resting Satyr" (the "Marble Faun" of Hawthorne's story) in a form on which the most extreme nicety of execution has been aimed at, owing to Brunn's recent identification of this piece as the master's original work; Figure 130 is a full-page plate, after a fine photograph from the original, of the famous "Sleeping Ariadne" of the Vatican. The pictorial effectiveness of the latter cut, of which the netted shading is relatively coarse, far exceeds that of the one representing the Satyr.

When the process is pressed into service for polychrome work, it proves an artistic failure. Plate xlvii, in illustration of that much-debated subject, the polychromy of ancient statuary, shows us a Pompeian statue of Venus in the exact coloring of the original. The goddess has yellow hair, blue eyes, and a body the tint of which a herald would blazon as *proper*, whereas the prudish might see more propriety in the white, yellow, and blue coloring of the gown that chastely enwraps her nether limbs. The genuine chromo-lithograph, as employed elsewhere in the 'Denkmäler,' is far more pleasing to the unsophisticated eye. Plate xlvi puts before us an architectural piece, a corner of a Doric temple, restored in its pristine glory of terra-cotta incrustations and gay coloring, and detached in bold perspective against the cheering blue of a Grecian summer sky. A three o'clock sun throws a sharply defined shadow of the cornice across the whole breadth of the blue triglyphs and white metopes of the entablature; the eye, dazzled by

the sunlight reflected from the great blocks of the architrave, reverts to the pleasant polychrome adornment above and below with a sense of relief and rest. One has, as it were, spent a minute in the sixth century B. C., thanks to an eight-color chromo measuring thirteen inches by nine. It is a pity no better specimen of colored sculpture could have been given than the above-mentioned Venus, which, whether in the original or in the reproduction, is certainly not very remarkable on the score of art.

The general scheme of collaboration embraces coutributions from some two dozen approved connoisseurs. Their names alone are a sufficient guaranty of the high level maintained. Arnold treats of Scenic Antiquities, Assmann of Nautical Antiquities, Blümner of Private Antiquities, including Agriculture and the Arts, Deecke of the Alphabet and Etruscan matters, Von Jan of Music and Musical Instruments, etc., etc. Perhaps as noteworthy a one as any among the single articles is that on Olympia, by Professor Flasch of Erlangen. In ninety-two pages of close print he recounts the history of the site, of the games, and of the German excavation of the Altis, and discusses the results of the latter as they appear embodied in the buildings and statuary brought to light. Flasch assigns the sculptures from the pediments of the temple of Zeus to the Attic school, without pretending to fortify his position by argument. This is a curious return to the theory originated in the old pre-Olympian days by Brunn, who has since discarded it as untenable, and now connects the artists Paionios and Alkamenes, whose actual works were unearthed at Olympia, rather with the artistic tendencies prevalent in Northern Greece, the home, as it happens, of both men. In view of the altogether antipodal character subsisting between the Olympian sculptures in question and the style of the early Attic school, as exemplified in the recent discoveries on the Acropolis, we need not wonder much to see Flasch soon after advocating the *Secento* nonsense of ascribing the whole plastic decoration of the Olympian temple to the invention, if not the material execution, of Pheidias himself. It is difficult to understand this mania for systematically degrading artists whom their contemporaries at least assigned to the very first rank, to the position of mere journeymen. Flasch himself ranks Paionios exceedingly high. Some sentences in his appreciation of the famous Winged Victory have the ring of Winckelmann's own.

The contributions of Flasch on Olympia, Milchhöfer on Mykenai, and Trendelenburg on Pergamon, taken together with the numerous articles by the editor on the Mythology of Art, by Julius on Ancient Architecture, by Julius and Waldstein on Sculpture, and by Von Rohden on Painting, if published separately, would constitute one of the most satisfactory manuals of the history of ancient art yet published. The alphabetic arrangement presupposes some acquaintance with the names of ancient artists as associated with their works; but the cuts themselves serve as a convenient key in turning the leaves, as one involuntarily does a great deal, and that with much gain of information as well as pleasure. Sometimes the juxtapositions are a little curious. A lady pupil of the writer was a whit abashed, on opening Volume I., some days ago, at the heading "Costume (Greek)," to be confronted by a full-length cut of the Venus de Médicis, this statue having been inserted under the name of its reputed author, Cleomenes.

One of the last issues to hand, No. 58, brings an exhaustive treatise and a superb series of illustrations relating to the topic of "Triumphal Arches." The last of the great articles is that on "Vasenkunde," by Von Rohden. Painted vases by Attic masters of the sixth, fifth, and fourth centuries B. C. already enjoy an esteem in archæological circles greater than is accorded to marbles of the period of feebleness, dependence, and debasement. Such a vase as that of Erginos (the potter) and Aristophanes (the painter), depicted in Figure 637, offers an example of draughtsmanship and figure composition Pheidias himself could not outdo. Examples of this art are frequent in the *Monuments*, and will do much to bring the general public round to the point of view occupied by the trained expert. It is a pleasant duty, now that the completion of the serial issue is in sight, to congratulate both publishers and editors in behalf of the numerous American scholars whose situation is so nearly akin to that of the average *Gymnasialassistent* that the 'Monuments of Classical Antiquity' will be welcomed by them as a real boon. As a Government, we shall of course continue to fight the importation of educational works like this by a blackmail tax ot twenty-five per cent.

The Complete Angler; or, the Contemplative Man's Recreation of Izaak Walton and Charles Cotton. Edited by John Major. London: J. C. Nimmo; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1889.

THE first of Major's editions of Walton was published in 1823, and marked the period in which this classic began a greatly increased popularity and circulation. A second was published in 1824, and a third in 1835, followed by others up to 1882, two or three of which were American editions. Of these, the one of 1844, which we believe was the last of those issued under Major's superintendence, was a great improvement on its predecessors in print and illustration, the work of Mr. Creswick and the woodcuts of fish being especially good, as are also the designs of Absolon. The etchings by Tourrier in the volume under notice, which replace the earlier Absolons, are far inferior in design and treatment.

As an appendix to the edition of "1889," and bound with it, is 'The Practical Fly Fisher, more particularly for Grayling or Umber,' by John Jackson of Tanfield Mill. This contains 10 plates of natural and artificial flies, comprising 120 examples, colored by hand, and exceedingly interesting to the angler.

The difference to the reader, as compared with the collector, between the various Waltonian editions is in the "introductory essay" or preface which different editors have fallen into the fashion of publishing. Dr. Bethune has distinguished himself by having written the best of all these—a thoroughly just, appreciative, and brilliant setting for his editions—and Mr. Major has done the very worst. Of it Mr. Westwood, in his 'Chronicle of the Compleat Angler,' says: "The writer, though worthy and inoffensive, was vain, vulgar, and silly, and his essay is precisely what we should expect from a shopkeeper turned man of letters for the nonce. It is, in fact, a farrago of twaddle from end to end," etc., etc. In attempting to gloss over Walton's humble origin, Mr. Major has also aroused the indignation of Dr. Bethune, who, in his 'Bibliography of the Complete Angler,' devotes a page of severe rebuke to the unfortunate publisher. The ideal edition of Walton will be one with the illustrations of the Pickering of 1836, and the imprint (let us, as Americans, say) of De Vinne, and the preface of Dr. Bethune.

Leibnitz's New Essays concerning the Human Understanding. By John Dewey, Ph.D. 12mo, pp. 272. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. 1888.

PROF. DEWEY has written one of the clearest and most comprehensible of the books in the philosophic series in which it appears, and of which it is the seventh. In this respect he has the advantage of those who have preceded him. But it is due rather to the system with which he is dealing than to any proclivities on the part of the writer to keep shy of Kantian and post-Kantian philosophy; for he evidently judges of his subject from the position of transcendentalism. Leibnitz wrote before German philosophy had become oracular in its deliverances, and hence was less afflicted with the curse of obscurity than Kant and Hegel. It is fortunate, therefore, for Prof. Dewey that his exposition offers fewer obstacles to the general reader than would have been the case had he been obliged to make concessions to the phraseology of his author; for both his reputation and his usefulness will be helped by the intelligible character of his work, and the growing philosophical community in America may congratulate itself upon this additional contribution to its libraries.

There is one important difference between this and the other volumes in the same series. They are purely expository, with as little of the historical method as it is possible to get along with. Prof. Dewey, on the other hand, has done as much historico-critical as expository work in this volume, and we suspect that in so doing he has deviated in some degree from the original purpose of the series. This departure, if it be such, has certainly abridged his treatment of special topics in Leibnitz's philosophy, notably the crucial metaphysical conception upon which it turns, namely, the doctrine of monads. Besides, it has made him read Locke with the eyes of Hume, and Leibnitz with the eyes of Kant. Seldom have we observed such a Kantian color given to the interpretation of Leibnitz, and we think more than it will bear, although it is not to be denied that the distance between them is very slight, or that the revolt of Kant against "dogmatism" did not prevent him from being largely influenced by Leibnitzian conceptions. But it is possible to make Leibnitz more of a Kantian than he really is, and some of Prof. Dewey's exposition is open to the objection that it seems to do this very thing.

There is a more important criticism to be made. The writer is a strong advocate of idealism and as strong an opponent of materialism. He assumes a complete antithesis between these two theories, and expects the defence or proof of the one to be the necessary refutation of the other. This is legitimate enough from the position of Cartesian dualism, to which, in a modified form, Liebnitz still adhered. For idealism in such a philosophy was intended to combat the materialism which resulted from Locke's views of sensation, and hence it came to coincide with the spiritual as opposed to the mechanical side of Cartesianism. But now that monism, as opposed to dualism, has become the accepted creed, owing to the influence of Kant and modern science, can the antithesis to which we have referred be maintained any longer? Can idealism and materialism be opposed to each other except upon the assumption of dualism? Monism, in most cases at least, seems to be identical with either materialism or pantheism, and in both is fatal to the very belief which Cartesian dualism, with its idealistic position, was designed to establish. Hence we really gain nothing when

we employ language which will not bear examination from the new standpoint, and which has nothing but historical associations to commend it. There is a serious problem here, and we express the hope that Prof. Dewey may take it up some time, and, if possible, solve it.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alden, Mrs. G. R. The Pansy: Stories of Child Life at Home and Abroad and of Modern and Ancient History. Illustrated. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
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Freeman, A. C. The American State Reports, Decided in the Courts of Last Resorts of the Several States. Vols. I. and II. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co. $4 per volume.
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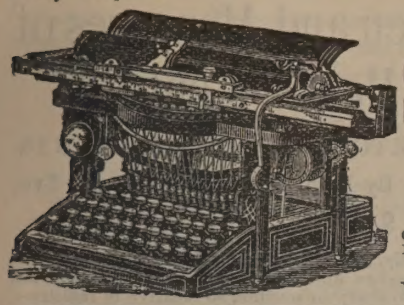

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8th	237	140	278	363
9th	177	124	196	239

Here, it will be seen, are election districts where one-fifth, one-fourth, one-third, and even, in the Fourth District, more than one-half of the men who voted for Cleveland voted against Hill, nearly all of them casting their ballots for Miller. This element consisted of lifelong Democrats, who could not endure the saloon candidate nominated for Governor by their party, and of independent voters, chiefly of Republican antecedents, who abominate the Hill type of politician. There were enough independent voters who thus discriminated between the two tickets, and supported the Presidential candidate of a party whose Gubernatorial candidate they could not abide, to save Cleveland the First Ward, although his plurality in it was but 207, against 498 four years ago. But there were other voters who had all along been favorably disposed towards Cleveland, and would have supported him if nothing had happened to disgust them with his party, who simply would not have anything to do with a party which nominated such a man as Hill for Governor. They did not consider that the country would be endangered or disgraced by Cleveland's defeat this year, as they did consider it would have been four years ago by Blaine's election; they did not think that the cause of tariff reform would be lost if Cleveland should not be reëlected; but they did feel that a party which would honor a man whose only claim above other men was that he was the devoted friend of the liquor interest was a party which they could not help to keep in power, at Washington or anywhere else.

The Republicans are sobering down sufficently now to contemplate what has happened in this city and State as well as in the nation, and we trust that they will give the situation here their most prayerful attention. It is probably great fun to laugh at the Mugwumps because Miller was not elected Governor and Hewitt was not elected Mayor; but are the facts of Hill's return to the Executive chair at Albany, and that Tammany Hall has full control of this city, causes for uproarious merriment? What is going to be done to guard us against similar successes in future elections? Does anybody believe that if Hill had been running against Miller on the issue of rum against temperance, in an election in which no other candidacy was involved, the State of New York would have given a majority for Hill and rum? Does anybody believe that if Hewitt had been running against Grant, in an election which was on city issues alone, the Republicans would have been so partisanly blind to the interests of the city as to make Grant's election sure by running a candidate of their own? Why should the welfare of the city and State be thus tied up with national politics, and sacrificed whenever the elections occur on the same day? We put these questions to intelligent and patriotic men of all parties, and ask them to consider seriously whether they can devote their energies to a more worthy object than the securing of separate municipal, State, and national elections.

The Harlem Democratic Club has already taken steps to advocate legislation which will give us separate municipal elections. They have appointed a committee to draft a bill to be submitted to the Legislature providing for spring elections for municipal and county officers, and another bill to secure electoral reform within the lines of Gov. Hill's veto of the Electoral-Reform Bill of the last session. As to the desirability of holding municipal elections at such times as no other elections are held, there can be no doubt. As it is now, the interests of the city are almost invariably sacrificed for State or national party interests, and a great flood of unworthy candidates for the Legislature, Board of Aldermen, and minor local candidates is swept into office under cover of the political excitement of the time. Gov. Hill, in his first message to the Legislature, took strong ground in favor of spring elections, and afterwards vetoed a bill providing for them, because it had some other measure conjoined with it. He might be tried now with a simple measure for the same purpose, and see what he would do with it.

As for the imperative necessity of a ballot-reform law, we have already expressed ourselves in favor of that, and are glad to see that a Democratic organization is the first to take the field for it now. Certainly the Democrats of this State, and of the whole country, ought to be impressed with the importance of such a reform to them. It is small use for them to make any attempts to carry the country and elect a President so long as a handful of political gamblers of both parties in this city and State can arrange a "deal," and decide the contest to suit themselves. Other States are already in the field with measures looking to the same end. A ballot-reform bill has been prepared by a club formed for the purpose in Providence, and is now before the Rhode Island Legislature. Michigan, which made an effort to secure such a law two years ago, and passed a bill through one house of the Legislature, will undoubtedly return to the subject this winter, when the Legislature comes together in biennial session.

There is even a prospect that Indiana too may be rescued from the disgrace of being put up at auction every four years. The State has long been in urgent need of a new

election law, but the Democrats have stood in the way of the reform. This year they have lost the State on the Presidential vote, for lack of such a law, as they claim, and the leaders of the party in the press and the organization are demanding that the Democratic Legislature chosen last week shall do something about it. "The supreme duty of the next Legislature," says the *Sentinel*, the most prominent Democratic newspaper in the State, "is to pass an election law which will forever free Indiana from the scandal and disgrace to which it is now exposed every four years." The *Sentinel* points out that the Legislature is Democratic in both branches, and declares that "if a proper election law is not passed, it will be an everlasting reproach to the party." Chairman Jewett of the Democratic State Central Committee takes the same view of the matter as the *Sentinel*. "There is an urgent necessity," he says, "for the passage of a better election law than the one we now have," and he holds that "all men ought to unite in this effort." He thinks that the reform should include provisions limiting the size of voting precincts so that not more than 250 votes should be polled at one precinct; forbidding any one except the voter to approach nearer than 100 feet to the polling place; and the furnishing by the State of an envelope in which each ticket shall be enclosed, with opportunity for the voter to select and seal up his ballot unobserved. He thinks it would also be a great gain if the terms of State and county officers could be so arranged that elections for such offices could be separated from Federal elections. Out of the discussion thus started some improvement ought to come.

It is hardly necessary for us to say to the tariff-reform clubs throughout the country that they ought to continue the work for which they were organized without intermission, that they ought to hold regular meetings, issue such documents as they can find means to publish and circulate, and go on in all respects as living organisms. It is hardly necessary for us to give this advice, because these clubs, unlike mere party clubs, were formed for a continuing purpose. They are like the anti-slavery clubs of old, that worked and fought, not against a party, but against an evil, and allowed themselves no rest so long as the evil existed. The tariff-reform clubs have no party end to gain: it is their object to educate, and it is perfectly immaterial to them whether the reform they work for is carried out by one party, or by the other, or by both together. They are volunteer organizations, moved by a conviction that the tariff is an obstacle and a hindrance to the prosperity of the nation, and an injustice to the great mass of the people. The activity of the past few months, when a national election was pending, cannot be kept up; but the organizations can be continued and improved, and the work carried forward quite as effectively as before.

The year 1892 is a more distant goal than the tariff-reform clubs have in mind at present. There will be an election for Congressmen in all parts of the United States two years hence. This is the true objective point for tariff-reformers. The recent election has shown where the tariff-reform clubs can put in their most effective work, namely, among the workingmen of the large cities—the very ones who were so pelted during the recent campaign with wage statistics and quotations from English papers, forgeries and other. The returns show that this rubbish was wasted on the workingmen. They didn't believe a word of it. The Republicans, on the whole, lost votes in the manufacturing centres, where people meet and talk, and hear debates and take part in them. They gained in the rural districts, where the poor, tax-ridden farmer is still gulled, and gulled more than ever, with the idea that, by paying taxes for somebody else's benefit, a mysterious subterranean stream of wealth will gush out at his doorway by and by. He has been waiting for it all his lifetime, and it has not come; but apparently his faith in it has grown in proportion to the mystery of the oracles which have promised it to him. The tariff-reform clubs can easily reach the workingmen, and bring more and more of them into a knowledge of the truth; and to this work, in season and out of season, they will continue faithful to the end.

The three largest wool-growing States in the Union are Texas, Ohio, and California. These are the States in which, if anywhere, we ought to look for Republican gains by reason of the Democratic demand for free wool. But what is the complexion of the returns from these States? The returns from Texas are unimportant in any case, the Democratic majority being so large, and are at present insufficient to base a comparison upon; but in Ohio and California, strange as it must appear to the high-tariff mind, the Democrats have actually gained votes. In Ohio, Mr. Blaine's plurality four years ago was 31,802. This year Mr. Harrison's plurality is less than 21,000. In California, Blaine had 13,128 plurality, but Harrison's plurality is several thousand less. So much for the wool-growing States. Let us now glance at the cities and States where wool manufacturing is an important branch of industry. Probably Rhode Island is the most important centre of this industry. What do we find here? In the city of Providence Blaine had 1,864 plurality; Harrison has now only 488. In Pawtucket Blaine had 451; Harrison has 266. In the whole State, Blaine had 6,639; Harrison has 4,427. New Hampshire is also extensively engaged in wool manufacturing. In Manchester, the largest manufacturing town, Blaine had 587 plurality; Harrison now has 391. In the whole State Blaine had 4,066; Harrison has 2,748. The city of Philadelphia is probably the largest wool-manufacturing centre in the whole country. Here Mr. Blaine had 30,000 plurality four years ago; now Mr. Harrison has 18,065. Norwich, Connecticut, is another important wool manufacturing point. In that city Blaine had 431 plurality, Harrison has 99. In Waterbury Cleveland had 491 in 1884; his plurality is now increased to 749. In Bridgeport this plurality of 576 is increased to 678. In Meriden his plurality of 54 rises now to 341. Throughout Connecticut, as a general rule, the Democrats have gained in the manufacturing towns and lost in the rural districts. They have gained where there was opportunity for discussion and the mingling together of people and comparison of views.

The Indianapolis *Journal* has reached the conclusion that "this is a Republican country, and there is no middle-aged voter now alive who will ever see the Democracy again in control of the national Government." Something may be pardoned to the natural exuberance of the home organ of a successful Presidential candidate, but it is well enough to remind the *Journal* that the Republicans swept the country much more thoroughly in 1872 than in 1888, and that only two years later there was a "tidal wave" which gave the Democrats an overwhelming majority of the House in 1874, and large pluralities on the Presidential ticket in New York, Connecticut, New Jersey, and Indiana in 1876. Also, that Garfield carried New York by 21,000 plurality and received 214 out of 369 electoral votes in 1880, while in 1882 the Democrats carried New York by nearly 200,000, and in 1884 Cleveland received 219 out of 401 electoral votes.

One break has certainly been made in the "Solid South" in the assured election of a Republican Legislature in Delaware, which, although the geographies used always to class it as one of the "Middle States," has of late years in political divisions been ranked with the other late slave States. The result is due primarily to a quarrel between the factions in the Democratic party. This became so bitter that the Saulsbury wing finally helped the Republicans to carry his home county, which holds the balance of power in the Legislature. The political revolution in the little State, thus brought about, will very likely end in giving the Republicans control of the commonwealth. It seems also probable that another break has been made in the Solid South by the election in West Virginia of a Legislature which will send a Republican to the Senate. The Democrats have been losing ground in the State steadily since 1876, and if the Republicans have carried the Legislature this year, they may reasonably hope to secure a majority of the popular vote in the next election, if they have not done so now. The Republicans were sure of controlling the Senate by the casting vote of the Vice President, even if they had not gained a seat in either Delaware or West Virginia. Delaware will make the parties stand 39 Republicans to 37 Democrats, and a change in West Virginia, 40 to 36.

We commend the existing situation to the attention of people who recommend a change in our method of electing a President, so as to have the choice made by popular vote. Under the existing system, it was clear to every experienced student of election-returns before midnight on Tuesday that Harrison had a

majority of the electoral votes, and consequently was elected. But nobody has the slightest idea to-day, or can have for days to come, whether he has also a majority of the popular vote. A long time must elapse before all the voting districts can possibly be heard from in such great and for the most part thinly settled States as Minnesota, California, and Texas. It may easily happen that a candidate may have a large majority of the electoral votes, but a very narrow preponderance of the popular votes, as Garfield in 1880, who had 214 electoral votes to only 155 for Hancock, but led Hancock by only 9,464 votes out of more than 9,000,000. The idea of subjecting the nation to the strain of waiting days and probably weeks to find out who is to be President, while all the back districts are being heard from, is simply preposterous.

Wall Street has not taken a favorable view of the election of Mr. Harrison. There is a tinge of disappointment very clearly discernible in financial circles that Mr. Cleveland is not to be intrusted with the reins of government during the next four years. This arises partly from the fact that the administration of the finances, both under Mr. Manning and Mr. Fairchild, has been prudent and conservative, and always in the direction of economy, and opposed to profligacy of all kinds. It is a great thing to know beforehand what you can rely upon in the Department of the Treasury. It is an unsettling circumstance to have a new man come in, however good his general character may be; it is especially so to have a new man come in backed by a party whose platform calls for large appropriations in order to get rid of the surplus. But we think that the platform will not be much regarded by the politicians, now that the election is past, and that Mr. Harrison will seek, in his Secretary of the Treasury, some man of experience and stability, in whom the best elements of the country may have full confidence; for it is only on these conditions that the Republicans can retain the power they have so narrowly secured in the recent election. It would be a most fatal contrast if it could be shown at the end of two years that in the management of the national finances the Republicans were less trustworthy than the Democrats.

The present Legislature of Georgia is remarkable because of the youthfulness of its presiding officers. The President of the Senate and the Speaker of the House were both born in the year 1853. They were still mere boys while the war was raging, and entered upon their political career after the bitterness of the reconstruction era had passed away. The bringing to the front of the young men in the South is becoming very noticeable. Gov. Seay of Alabama is only forty-five years old. Representatives Phelan of Tennessee and Simmons of North Carolina are two of the youngest men in Congress. The delegates to the St. Louis Convention from Georgia were almost without exception of the new generation, and two of the Presidential electors just chosen in that State have barely attained their majority. West Virginia has been for years noted for the youthfulness of its Governors, Senators, and Representatives, but the more southern States are now conferring political honors upon even those who are too young to have had any war record. There is little or no concerted effort to set aside the "old colonels"; on the contrary, they are honored, because, in the first place, they were prominent and worthy citizens before they were colonels; and secondly, because of their gallantry and self-sacrifice. But it is obvious that they are being supplanted by men of fewer prejudices, of fresher ideas, and of greater vigor.

The infringers of the Bell patents can take little, if any, comfort from the decision of the Supreme Court just rendered, upholding the right of the Government to maintain suits to annul patents on inventions which have been granted illegally by means of fraud upon the Government officials. The principal suits for infringement of these important patents have been decided already in favor of the Bell Telephone Company by the Supreme Court, and the points set up in the Government suit to annul the patent virtually cover the same ground. The points determined in the decision just made relate solely to the question whether or not the Government, under the Constitution and laws, could maintain a suit under any circumstances to annul a patent once granted. This decision settles a long-contested point, and probably will meet with general approval so far as the main question is concerned—that is, that the Government has the right to maintain such suits. The decision, however, would have been received with much greater approval if it had been secured under different auspices, and the suit had been instituted or instigated otherwise than by infringers seeking to gain for themselves benefits which should belong only to a meritorious inventor.

England continues to manifest the most provoking indifference to the result of our Presidential election. One would have thought, in view of the tons of campaign literature carried by our post-offices, circulated in our streets and horse-cars, posted on our dead walls, and borne aloft on our banners, that the whole island would now be in agonies over the loss of Cleveland. But so far is this from the present complexion that Lord Salisbury, in a speech at the Guildhall, rather chuckles over the defeat of Mr. Cleveland as a joke in his own favor, while the English press, even the *Times* and *Spectator*, take rather less interest in it than they would in a tribal conflict in Afghanistan. This may be all artfulness, from which the *Tribune's* Tory Squire will tear off the mask in due time, but at present we can only feel a strong sense of humiliation that the English manufacturers and the Cobden Club are not putting on sackcloth and ashes.

What is exactly the present position of the leading Republican organ, the *Tribune*, and its London correspondent about the Sackville incident, it is a little difficult to make out. Just before the election the *Tribune* described the incident, on the strength of the Squire's despatches, as a conspiracy in the following terms:

> "Mr. Cleveland's Bargain with the British Premier—Trading his Country's Honor for Electioneering Purposes—The Whole Shameful Trick Disclosed — A Secret Understanding with Lord Salisbury—The President Did Not Dismiss Lord Sackville until he had been Assured that England would not be Angry—Lord Salisbury Agreed to his Envoy's Dismissal for the Sake of Having Cleveland Reëlected—If Cleveland is Reëlected he will not Forget his Obligations to the British Government."

This makes Mr. Phelps a participant in a "shameful trick," an accomplice with a foreigner in perpetrating a gross fraud on his own countrymen. Had the affair occurred earlier, and in a more barbarous age, Mr. Phelps would probably have felt justified in inflicting corporal chastisement on the Squire for circulating such a story about him, and nearly all contemporary writers would have said that he richly deserved it. But on Sunday the culprit told a different tale. Says he, with extraordinary impudence:

> "The facts, however, are still very imperfectly known to the British public. The diplomatic correspondence laid before Parliament and published in the papers gives but a fragmentary account of what really happened. The chief novelty in it is the difference between Lord Salisbury and Mr. Phelps respecting what occurred at Hatfield. Lord Salisbury seems to have understood that no decisive action would be taken by the American Government until a fuller statement of their grounds of complaint had been made. It is certain Mr. Phelps neither gave, nor could give, any such assurance."

But how does this hang together with the story that the dismissal of Sackville was arranged beforehand with Salisbury both as to time and manner, and that Salisbury absolutely consented to the dismissal in order to help Cleveland in the election?

The *Nineteenth Century* prints a protest signed by 417 of the foremost men and women in England, so far as intellectual standing is concerned, against the part played by competitive examinations in English schools and colleges. It is probably, in its way, the most remarkable document in educational history. The protest is followed up by short explanatory and confirmatory articles from Max Müller, Edward A. Freeman, and Frederic Harrison. The contention of the signers is that the persistent use of examinations, as the sole or at least main test of the pupil's progress and the teacher's efficiency, has destroyed or is fast destroying in both teacher and pupil the proper sense of the true object of mental training. They have come to regard success in passing examinations as a sufficient proof of education, whereas it may be achieved in a large number of cases without leaving behind a trace of anything which can fairly be called intellectual culture. Unfortunately, the protestants are very weak in the matter of suggesting a remedy. The less we rely on examinations, the higher the order of men and women must be whom we get for teachers; and no community seems as yet willing to take the necessary pains to find the teachers who are competent to keep examinations in their proper place, or to honor and reward them sufficiently for the work done.

REDISTRIBUTION OF POWER.

WHETHER or not the Republicans prove to have carried their ticket for Presidential electors in West Virginia, the apparent choice of a Legislature which will elect a Republican to the United States Senate practically breaks the "solid South" in a national contest for the first time since its solidity was established a dozen years ago. Virginia in the interval has had non-Democratic legislatures and State officers, but it continued Democratic in Presidential years, and the rise of the Readjuster party was a local phenomenon, rather than a sign of revival of the Republican party as such in the State. The result in West Virginia this year is of an altogether different sort. It has followed a fair fight on the national issue between the two parties, uncomplicated by any exceptional local consideration like the debt question in the Old Dominion. The result surprises no close student of the State's political history. Republicanism was discredited in West Virginia for some years after the war by the virulence at first shown towards the "rebel" element, but it has been steadily gaining ground ever since 1876, when Tilden had 11,148 over Hayes, until Cleveland had only 4,221 over Blaine in 1884, so that the only question before this campaign opened was whether the inevitable Republican victory would come this year or be postponed until 1892.

The solidity of the South, once thus broken, never will be restored. All that held other Southern States in the Democratic column this year was the Bourbonism of Republican Senators in giving support to "Bill" Chandler's policy of threatening to restore the force régime, which enabled the Democratic leaders in that region to arouse the fears of their followers lest the evils of the reconstruction era might return if any of them voted the Republican ticket. The fears were as unreasonable as the threats were ill-advised. Neither will be justified by the event. The irresistible logic of events will prevent anything like a reactionary policy towards the South by the Harrison Administration. Nothing effective could be done under the construction put upon the constitutional amendments by the Supreme Court; nothing in the way of political advantage can be gained by any further agitation of the matter. Chandler is likely to drop out of the Senate next March; but whether he remains or not, his policy will be quietly dropped. Even the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette* realizes and confesses that the day of the bloody shirt is over. "Shall we then rush to force the States of the solid South into the rude settlement of the most difficult of all questions, that of races commingled on the same soil?" it asks, and thus answers its own question: "No. Let the Southern States gradually follow the example of old Virginia, where manhood suffrage is almost, and soon will be altogether, established beyond question."

But it is not merely true that the solidity of the South has been broken, never to be restored. The relative importance of the South as a factor in Presidential elections has passed its highest point, and must show a marked falling off after the next Federal census, and before the Presidential election of 1892. In 1860 the slave States contained 12,240,293 out of a total population in the United States of 31,443,321, or almost 40 per cent.; and in the Electoral College which chose Lincoln, those States cast 120 out of 303 votes, or almost exactly 40 per cent. As New York then had 35 electoral votes, the union of this State alone with the slave States would have made a majority of the Electoral College.

The census of 1880 showed a slight falling off in the relative importance of the South, the population of the old slave States being then 18,507,324 out of 50,155,783 in all, or 37 per cent.; and the electoral votes of those States upon the basis of that census numbering 153 out of 401, or 38 per cent. New York, which has 36 electoral votes, no longer sufficed to turn the scales if cast with the "solid South"; a dozen other votes must be sought elsewhere in the North. In 1884 New Jersey and Connecticut contributed three more than the necessary number, Indiana keeping them company; and this year, if West Virginia has not changed, New York, joined with New Jersey and Connecticut, would have reëlected Cleveland, even allowing Indiana to Harrison.

But it is already clear that a solid South, even if it could be kept solid, combined with New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut, will not furnish enough electoral votes to choose a President after the next apportionment. Since 1880 the region west of the Alleghenies and north of the Ohio River line has been growing far more rapidly than any other part of the country. It has received the greater part of the immense immigration from foreign countries during that period, and it is still largely recruited, as of old, from the New England and Middle States. On the other hand, the South has received but an infinitesimal percentage of the foreign immigration, and, outside of Texas, Arkansas, Florida, and isolated districts in other States, has gained but slightly from the Northern States.

In 1860 the region beyond the Alleghenies contained only 8,608,760 people, or not much more than a quarter of the whole population. In 1880 it had 17,141,052, or more than a third. Its growth in political power was still more striking. In the Electoral College of 1860 the West cast but 73 out of 303 votes—a trifle less than one-quarter; Kansas, Nevada, Nebraska, and Colorado not then being States. Under the apportionment following the census of 1880, that region has 135 out of 401 votes, or a trifle more than one-third. The proportion is certain to be still higher under the census of 1890, upon the basis of population alone.

But another element enters into the account, which must operate decidedly to the advantage of the West in the matter of political power. It is certain that new Territories will speedily be admitted to the Union from the Northwest. North and South Dakota and Washington will undoubtedly be made States during the Fifty-first Congress; probably Montana also; possibly Wyoming with them. The greater the number of States in any part of the country, the greater its relative power, since the smallest State must have three electoral votes, corresponding to its two Senators and one Representative. On the basis of the existing States, the South must inevitably lose proportionally to the rest of the country after the next apportionment. The admission of three, four, or five new Western States will materially increase this relative loss. The gain of the North will be the gain of the West. New England, which in 1800 constituted more than one-fourth of the Electoral College, had sunk by 1860 to but a trifle over one-eighth, and was reduced by the last census to less than one-tenth. New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, which had one-fourth the electoral votes in 1800, had fallen below one-fourth in 1860, and have less than one-fifth now. The solid South, if it could endure, would fall far short of 38 per cent. of the Electoral College after 1890, while the West is certain to raise its proportion far above 34 per cent.

The change will tend still further to eliminate the sectional controversies which grew out of the divisions of the slavery era, and is therefore to that extent cause for congratulation.

THE ENGLISH MISSION.

ONE of the difficulties with which General Harrison will have to contend is the difficulty of finding a suitable person for the English mission in place of Mr. Phelps. For some years back the Republican party has made a show of hostility to England a prominent portion of its outfit, partly to please the Irish, and partly to reassure the manufacturers who are afraid of "British free trade." But it is no easy matter to find any one who will represent this feeling diplomatically in London without disgracing the country. The most prominent candidates for the London mission are generally wealthy men who desire—or whose wives and daughters desire—to cut a figure in London society. The men whom every Administration since the war has tried to send have been men of some intellectual or professional distinction. Reverdy Johnson, Motley, Edwards Pierrepont, John Welsh, and James Russell Lowell have all been men with other claims to social favor than their money. The same thing may be said, but with less emphasis, of Gen. Schenck. President Cleveland maintained this good tradition by sending Mr. Phelps.

But every one of these has given offence to the Irish by maintaining good relations with English society, and to Americans by not pushing Americans who wished to get into English society with sufficient vigor, and has in this way indirectly brought odium on the Administration at home. Presidents Hayes and Arthur suffered much from Mr. Lowell's popularity in London, and President Cleveland has suffered from Mr. Phelps's. Indeed, we believe it is hardly a secret that Mr. Phelps's nomination for the Chief-Justiceship was fully determined on,

but abandoned in deference to the wishes, or rather threats, of an Irish delegation.

This is undoubtedly a humiliating position for a great Government with regard to any high office, but it is one which shows no sign of mending. The American passion for shining in English society, which hardly existed as long as there was such easy access to the Court of the Tuileries and Compiègne, has grown with wonderful rapidity within the last twenty years, partly owing to the fostering influence of the Prince of Wales, and partly to the multiplication in this country of incomes so large that American manners and customs furnish no proper or suitable occasion for spending them. English social traditions impose on a very rich man an obligation to live up to his income, and furnish him, in the state of the great nobles, with a model for the organization of his household which saves the newly enriched a world of trouble and perplexity. When a man finds himself in possession of a very large revenue in England, and does not know what to do with it, he has only to see how the Duke of Westminster or the Duke of Buccleuch lives, to get an idea of the sort of thing, at all events, for which he ought to strive with his own money.

In this country he has no such helps or reliefs. Until very recently our rich men made a point of living plainly and affecting frugality. Men desirous of political distinction have to do so still, but only a small proportion of our very rich men now care for political distinction. What they seek is social distinction —that is, association with people whose company is, for one reason or other, a little exciting, and whose surroundings and tastes are luxurious, and who make amusement a serious business. They cannot find this at home, so they seek it in England ; and, of course, if they can seek it with ambassadorial rank and privileges, all the better. Hence a world of trouble for every new Administration. Almost every man in America with over $30,000 a year thinks he would make a beautiful Minister to England, and his wife knows he would. Distance gives splendor to all foreign missions, but the London mission it positively glorifies. There is hardly a politician in the West, from the humble ward-worker up to the Congressman of the "deestrict," who does not in the inner recesses of his heart believe he would be the idol of the imperial circle at Vienna, or a favorite evening companion of the Czar or King Humbert, if clothed with American diplomatic robes. But for the "better element," what Gen. Butler used to call the "white-cravat and daily-bath men," there is no place like London, as Gen. Harrison will soon find out. There are plenty of American citizens to-day to whom an assurance of this mission would be worth a $50,000 contribution to "Matt" Quay's campaign fund; and the more unfitted a man is for it, either socially or intellectually, the more, of course, he is willing to pay.

But no matter which kind of man he sends—the vulgar rich man, who would like to show Londoners that he too has liveried lackeys and smart turnouts and heavy silver plate and is sure to furnish them with private club jokes at his own expense and that of his wife; or the cultivated American, who can command the respect of the best English company by his mental equipment, his manners, his self-respect, and his long familiarity with the way people of refinement live—the President will find himself in trouble. Either variety will enjoy English society, and let it be seen plainly that he does so; and the result will be that he will offend both "the plain American," who thinks a real American ought to call on the Queen in his shirt-sleeves and walk London streets with his boots outside his trousers, and the patriotic Irishman, who thinks the American Minister ought to leave a threat of war at the British Foreign Office every morning, to procure the release of some ill-used member of the National League, or the pardon of a meritorious murderer. No Administration can escape responsibility in the eyes of these two classes for the demeanor of its London representative; and the more efficient he is from the purely diplomatic point of view—that is, the more agreeable and welcome he is to the society to which he is accredited—the more political injury he is likely to do to the Government at home.

The "presentation" trouble alone is increasing at a rate which threatens before long serious international complications. There is a growing feeling that every American, with the means of purchasing a return ticket to Great Britain, and reasonably well dressed, has a right to be presented by his Minister, in company with his wife and one daughter, to the Queen, or the Prince and Princess of Wales representing the Queen. All recent Ministers have resisted this claim successfully, but they have resisted it at the cost of great rancor and heart-burning. They have thereby sent home hundreds of "enemies of the Administration" who had gone out feeling kindly enough towards it. If the Queen had not to be consulted in the matter, the pressure would long ago have been irresistible. But can the Queen hold out indefinitely? Will the state of the British navy and of her poorer classes warrant her in holding out? Will the Cobden Club let her hold out? These are questions Gen. Harrison will have to answer for himself, and we do not envy him his task.

THE FUTURE OF THE COPPER SYNDICATE.

MANY writers are predicting the speedy downfall of the syndicate which now controls the world's supply of copper. At present prices, consumption by no means equals production. The unsold stock is constantly increasing. Most observers rush to the natural conclusion that this increase must ultimately ruin M. Secretan and his associates.

Of the facts with regard to production and consumption, there can be no doubt; nor is there any doubt that the unsold stocks are also increasing. Yet the conclusions drawn from these facts may be wrong. There are certain contingencies, as pointed out by M. Georges de Laveleye in the *Moniteur des Intérêts Matériels*, under which this unsold stock may be a source of strength, instead of weakness, to the syndicate. The matter can best be understood by some reference to the recent history of copper production and prices. Owing to new processes and to the discovery of new mines, the copper product has grown rapidly, having doubled within about fifteen years. The consumption has also increased, but not so rapidly as the production. Even at the extremely low prices which prevailed two years ago, the excess of production over consumption was something like 50,000 tons annually. The London price was driven down to about £40 per ton, or about 9 cents a pound, for Chili bars. For a large number of the mines this figure was not remunerative. Some of them closed their business, and a great many more strove to contract operations as much as possible.

It was at this juncture that the syndicate began its operations. It quietly purchased the floating stock of 50,000 tons at very low rates, and at the same time it made contracts with the leading producers of the world, agreeing to take their product for the next three years at a decidedly higher figure. Most of these contracts were made at about £65 per ton, which then seemed to the producers a highly profitable operation. In this way the syndicate obtained control of something like three-fifths of the world's annual product. The monopoly was even more complete than it seemed, because the other two-fifths of the product came from the smaller and weaker mines, whose chance of independent action was less than that of the mines controlled by the syndicate. Under the influence of this monopoly the price was rapidly raised to £80 per ton, where it has since been maintained. In individual cases, the syndicate forced speculators who had "sold short" to settle at even higher figures; but the price just named is that which seems to have been fixed for Europe.

If consumption did not equal production at the low prices ruling a year or two since, it is obvious that the difference must be even greater under present circumstances. The syndicate stand face to face with an annual product of 250,000 tons (of which they control about 150,000) and an annual consumption of not much over 200,000. In order to maintain prices, they must be prepared to absorb the excess of each year, and carry it as long as may be necessary. If they start with 50,000 tons at the outset, at the expiration of their three years' contract they will find themselves loaded with 200,000 tons. The first question is, whether they have the capital to do it. This can probably be answered in the affirmative. Their present system of contracts enables them to sell 100,000 tons annually at a profit of £15 per ton. This will not, of course, enable them to purchase 50,000 tons outright at £65 a ton, but it will readily enable them to put up whatever margins may be necessary for this operation, and to pay the interest on the capital involved, with much additional profit to spare.

But what will be their situation at the expiration of the three years? Will they be able to continue their operations when their contracts expire and when prices are once

more ruled by free competition? Will not their present temporary profit be more than swallowed up by a subsequent fall in price? Most observers believe that the outcome cannot fail to be disastrous to the syndicate. Yet this result is by no means sure. It may be that the stock thus accumulated will prevent a return to the system of free competition, and will force the mine-owners to renew their contracts at the expiration of their present term in a manner more favorable to the syndicate and less so to the producers and consumers.

If we take the result of three years' operations under present prices, we shall find that the syndicate has made a profit of £15 on each ton actually sold, or say £4,500,000 in the aggregate. They will further have a stock of 200,000 tons on hand, for 50,000 tons of which they have paid £40, and £65 for the rest. Interest charges are slight in any event, because of the initial profit on the first operations; and, such as they are, they are probably much more than covered by the gains on subsidiary transactions in which the syndicate has engaged. If the syndicate should at the end of three years have to dispose of its product at £40 a ton, there would still remain a profit on the whole transaction, as will be seen by the following figures:

Expenditures.		
50,000 tons @ £40..	£2,000,000	
450,000 tons @ £65..	29,250,000	
		£31,250,000
Receipts.		
300,000 tons @ £80..	£24,000,000	
200,000 tons @ £40..	8,000,000	
		£32,000,000

With the capital which they undoubtedly control they could even go further, and dispose of their product at £30 per ton or seven cents per pound, without anything like financial ruin as a result of their operations.

But what will be the condition of the copper producers under these circumstances? Our past experience shows that there are comparatively few mines for which a European price of £40 per ton is really remunerative. They will have to face the alternative either of a conflict with a syndicate already possessed of 200,000 tons of copper, which it is prepared to sell at £40 or even £30 a ton, or of making a new contract with that syndicate on such terms as it may be willing to offer. Looked at in this light, the accumulated stock will form a powerful means in the hands of the syndicate of forcing the copper-producers to make a new agreement on such terms as it may choose. The first results of this kind are beginning to show themselves in some remodelled contracts which are now being made with European mines. It is, of course, impossible to tell just what those terms will be. The syndicate may attempt to limit the annual product in such fashion as to prevent accumulations in the future; or it may strive to fix the price so low that it can sell to consumers at a lower price and thus increase the demands of the market, while at the same time making it unprofitable for outside producers, not under contract with the syndicate, to extend their operations in the way which they are now tempted to undertake. In either case, the final position of the syndicate would be much stronger than it is to-day, while the copper producers would have less advantage than at present.

This result, it will be observed, is subject to three contingencies. It may, of course, happen that the syndicate has not sufficient capital to carry through its operations, in which case the result would inevitably be disastrous; but there is no evidence that such is the case. Or it may be that certain mine-owners will think it worth while to fight the syndicate for a time, in the belief that their resources will be sufficient to give them a controlling position in the long run. But the large stocks of copper in the hands of the syndicate do not increase the probability of such a result. While they may, in a certain sense, weaken its powers of financial endurance, they also tell severely against the chances of any competitor who may strive to enter the field. In other words, they make the struggle more disastrous for both parties, and not for the syndicate alone. There is still a third contingency, that new discoveries of copper may increase the independent product not now controlled by the syndicate; but there seems to be no immediate prospect of any such result with the stronger companies. From the weaker mines M. Secretan has little or nothing to fear. It is far more advantageous to them to sell their copper at the present high rates than to try to obtain any controlling position in the industry. They neither have any inducement to enter upon a destructive competition, nor the power to sustain it if it were once begun. Looked at in the light of all these facts, the position of the syndicate is stronger than most people think.

THE LONDON MURDERS.

The resignation of Sir Charles Warren, the head of the London police force, is a very good sample of expiatory sacrifice. There has not been a thing said against him in relation to the Whitechapel murders which really touches his efficiency. He is accused of making the police too much of a military body, and thus separating it too much from the population to which it ministers; but that this has in any degree increased the difficulty of catching this particular criminal has not been shown. The first of these murders was committed over six months ago. Since then the most expert detectives, both regulars and volunteers, have been on the track of the murderer without result. Much fame and a large reward has for some time awaited the person who should catch him, but no such person has appeared. Sir Charles Warren says the police have acted on the suggestions furnished by 1,400 letters, without any result. Of course this is very wonderful, but it proves nothing against the efficiency of the police in this particular case, and he has to resign in obedience to the demand for an expiatory offering, which the public in times of trouble calls for almost as eagerly in the modern as in the ancient world. It is true he goes out ostensibly for writing an article in one of the magazines about his own force, which is against the rules, and it is also true that he has been very unpopular with the London Radicals ever since he broke up the meetings in Trafalgar Square; but neither of these things would have hurt him if he had found "Jack the Ripper."

Among the few explanations of the difficulty of discovering the murderer which have had any value, is a suggestion of our Pinkerton, that the crookedness of the London streets, and the multitude of courts and nooks in certain quarters, facilitate the commission of crimes of this sort, and the escape of the perpetrators. It is quite true that London in this respect offers a marked contrast to New York, where all, or nearly all, the streets are straight, and cross each other at right angles, and where the houses have no back alleys. But Boston is in all these things nearly as badly off as London, and does not seem to suffer in consequence. In fact, as nearly as we can see, the secret of the murderer's success lies in the class in which he finds all his victims. Both their habit of nocturnal roving in secluded places, and the facility with which they can be approached, make them an easy prey. The really unaccountable thing is that nobody has been found in any lodging-house, or tavern, or human habitation of any kind, after these butcheries, with blood on his clothes, and that no cast-off, blood-stained clothes have been found anywhere. That anybody can cut up a living body as this murderer does, without staining his clothes, seems impossible. Where, then, does he go after he has done the deed? There is undoubtedly a sharp look-out for him in every haunt of vice and crime in London. The class of women whom he slaughters is now full of suspicious horror about every man they see. Any thief or vagrant can get a good reward by putting the police on his track. To hide or change his clothes, or burn them, without attracting anybody's attention, when everybody is on the watch, would seem a task of extraordinary difficulty, and yet it has been achieved.

The mystery is not lessened by setting him down as a lunatic with homicidal tendencies. Lunatics are often very clever or cunning in concealing their intention to commit a crime, but they rarely show any special skill in concealing a crime after it has been committed. They do not hide either themselves or the evidences of their guilt with any adroitness; in fact, their usual resort, if stricken with remorse, or afraid of being caught after committing a murder, is to kill themselves. But this man appears to be just as skilful in covering up his tracks as he is in the work of slaughter. It is said he must be a doctor or a medical student, he cuts so skilfully; but the best dissector cannot keep the blood off his clothes when he kills a person with a knife in the open street, or keep people from asking what he is about if he tries to hide them, or wash them, or burn them. Taken altogether, the affair must be set down as the most puzzling in the history of crime.

IRRIGATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

In the United States, irrigation is employed extensively in Colorado, Utah, and California. Colorado has by far the greatest irrigable area,

and there the laws respecting the use of water for agriculture are the most perfect. Nature seems to have ordained that this State shall lead in irrigation. Within its borders are congregated the highest ranges and peaks of the Rocky Mountains; it is the veritable Dome of the Continent. On the countless square miles of its lofty summits fall the heaviest mantles of snow, the sources of an unfailing water supply. All the great rivers west of the Missouri, except the Columbia, commence their courses in this State. The Platte, the Arkansas, the Rio Grande, and the Colorado rise nearly together in central Colorado, and in summer are large, swollen rivers before they leave its confines. No Western State or Territory, therefore, is nearly so abundantly supplied with water and streams as Colorado. This advantage, together with its favorableness of location with respect to immigration, and its vast extent of most fertile farming land, assures to it the foremost rank in agriculture among the mountain States.

The canal system of Colorado at this time embraces 5,000 linear miles of large and small ditches. It represents investments of private capital amounting to $12,000,000, and furnishes water for two and a half millions of acres. So attractive are canal enterprises to those familiar with them that many miles of canals are now being constructed, notwithstanding the fact that there are at this time fully one million of acres of fine, unoccupied, and unimproved land situate in the irrigated territory. The young State needs people rather than reservoirs and more canals.

The water of every natural stream is declared by the Constitution of Colorado the property of the public, and is dedicated to the people's use. There are no riparian rights. The canals are taken out of the rivers and creeks, and at present furnish water only for valley lands. The fertile plain-ranges and smooth *mesa*- or table-lands lie above the level of the streams, and must eventually be supplied with water by great and costly systems of reservoirs. When all the water of a stream is claimed and appropriated by ditches, it becomes a source of contention among its users, and the law is active in determining and enforcing the rights of the respective canal companies. The law is based on the principle that the right to water is acquired by priority of utilization; that is to say, the courts hold that water should not be taken away from those who first have utilized it in good faith. If, for instance, a canal has used the full capacity of a stream, it is for ever entitled to all the waters of that stream. The volume of a river from which several canals are conducted having been estimated in cubic feet per second * of time by the State Engineer, each ditch company appears before the district court, which has jurisdiction subject to appeal to the Supreme Court, and shows when it was constructed, what its capacity is, and how much water it has used, or can use, for actual tillage. The court thereupon decrees to each company the number of cubic feet of water per second it is entitled to draw each season from the stream, and its rank of priority, *i. e.*, its order of precedence with respect to other canals supplied from the same stream.

These decrees are, of course, enforced. The State Engineer has general supervision of all matters pertaining to irrigation, and he is required by law to see that water is distributed in accordance with the court's injunctions. The State is divided into water districts, and for each district the Governor appoints a water commissioner, whose term of office is two years. It is his duty to divide the water in the streams of his district among the several canals, according to their rights as determined by the court; and, if need be, he may summon the sheriff to assist him in the discharge of his duties. The water commissioners are under the direction of the superintendents of irrigation, who have charge of the water divisions, each division embracing several water districts. The especial duty of the superintendents is to see that the laws are properly executed, and that the judicial decrees are enforced by the commissioners. The superintendents are under the general supervision of the State Engineer, and anybody has a right of appeal to him from a superintendent. The commissioners must report fully to the superintendents as often as the latter desire, respecting the supply of and demand for water in their respective districts, and all other matters deemed worthy of attention.

So much for the relation of the State to the canals. What are the farmers' relations to them? Water is disposed of to consumers in two ways—by rental and by absolute sale of the right to it. A company rarely attempts to dispose of water under both plans, for that has not been found practicable. A corporation seeking a permanent investment may construct a canal for the purpose of renting water to farmers at an annual rental "per inch."* Water rents, in Colorado, are from $1.50 to $2.50 an acre (or an "inch") per annum. If a farmer regards the rental exorbitant, he may have the matter brought up before the county commissioners, who, after hearing evidence on the part of the consumer and the company, can fix the sum. Their decision is final, so that practically the people control the rate. The principle which inspires the law to adopt this procedure is that the canal companies do not *own* the water, but are public carriers. If a farmer has once used water on his land, he can always compel the company to furnish it to him upon tendering each year the rental price established by the commissioners, the theory being that water, once applied to a tract of land, is a fixed appurtenance as long as the rental is paid. It cannot be transferred by the company or the farmer to other land without the consent of both parties.

But the usual and most popular plan of disposing of water is to *sell* a "perpetual right" to its use. When the constructing company on this plan has sold all of its water, the canal is owned and operated by the farmers as a stock company, shares of stock representing "inches" of water. The corporation is then a mutual company, escaping the hindrances of the law; and the consumer owns the right to his water, and pays only the annual charge for "maintenance and operation"—generally ten cents per acre. "Perpetual rights" on this plan are worth from five to twenty-five dollars per acre. While the parent corporation exists, the purchaser obtains a deed or contract for his "perpetual water-right"—a temporary evidence of the right to use water. A "perpetual water-right," or simply a "water-right," is a right, good for all time, to sufficient water to irrigate eighty acres. When the farmers reorganize the company on a final basis, "water-right" contracts or deeds are superseded by shares of stock.

How the consumer farms under the irrigation system, and what are some of his advantages, next deserve notice. The farmer must conduct the water to his land from the head-gate, or opening, through which he takes his supply. The head-gate is always under the control of the superintendent of the canal, who divides the volume among the users. Each man's water flows over a weir—a device for measuring exactly how much the consumer receives. A lateral, or small ditch, is built from the main canal by the farmers of a neighborhood, and from it each one takes his share of the supply. The user contrives to conduct his water along the highest side of his farm in a smaller lateral, whence the stream is distributed over his fields by flooding, or conveyed in small channels between the rows of crops. Crops are usually supplied with water three times from the middle of May until about the first of August. A skilful man can irrigate from eighty to one hundred and twenty acres of grain during a season, and can "go over" eighty acres in eight or ten days. In the fall, another irrigation usually takes place, so that the ground may be in condition the following spring to germinate the seed. Very rarely is fall grain sown in Colorado.

Frustrated by neither drought nor flood, the husbandman is able to mature his crops to perfection, to accelerate or retard their ripening, and to bring harvest to suit his convenience. By applying water, he can keep half of his field green while he harvests the other half. The growth of grain is almost marvellous. In parts of the State, solid fields of oats and wheat five feet tall, with heads in proportion, are common. The grain itself is perfect in quality and usually over-weighs. But alfalfa (or lucerne) and leguminous plants yield the most astonishing results. Alfalfa is the most beautiful, wonderful, and profitable crop raised in the Rocky Mountain region. A field of it, with its sweet-scented, purple blossoms, is a perfect garden of beauty and perfume. It is a kind of clover and highly nutritious; it grows about two feet high, and, being perennial, its roots reach down usually five feet deep. Alfalfa is first harvested in June; then water is applied, and in four weeks it is cut again; the water is reapplied, and it is ready for another harvest a month later. Each cutting of a good crop will yield two tons. It is worth in Colorado from $7 to $10 per ton. It will been seen that irrigation is simply an *insurance*—it assures a certainty of return for the year's work.

In passing from the subject of irrigation in Colorado, attention should be called to the surprising effect of the canals on the volume of a stream. It would seem natural that, if the full capacity of a river were directed into a channel, there would be no supply for ditches lower down the stream. With this in mind, the people of western Kansas and Nebraska, realizing the necessity of irrigation, are inclined to complain because all of the water in the eastern-flowing streams of Colorado is appropriated before reaching their borders. However, both experiment and theory show that their fears are groundless. The State Engineer of Colorado gives the result of his investigation of this subject in his report for 1885–86, before there was any expectation of inter-State contention, and when the people of those parts of the plains more remote from the mountains had no thought of the necessity of irrigation for their region. He made the experiment in the Cache-la-Poudre, a stream of northern Colorado, and says: "Starting with a flow of 127,609 cubic feet per second in the cañon, before any water is drawn into canals, the volume at the lower point, after supplying fifteen canals, had in-

* A cubic foot per second is becoming the module in Colorado, and is that volume of water which will flow, during the irrigating season, through an orifice one foot square. It is sufficient to irrigate about fifty-four acres.

* An "inch" of water means the "statutory inch," *i. e.*, that volume of water which will flow in a second of time through an inch-square orifice, under a five-inch pressure. An "inch" of water is generally considered, in Colorado, sufficient to irrigate one acre; but it is an inaccurate term, and is fast falling into disuse.

creased to 214,508 feet per second, showing an addition of more than two-thirds of the original amount, to supply canals farther down the valley." The reason for this is, that all the water withdrawn from the river for irrigation gradually seeps back into it, making a steady and reliable current. But for this fact, the water would rush down the sandy beds of the rivers in torrential streams, disappear quickly, and be of slight avail for the irrigator's purposes.

That irrigation is destined to be practised widely in the United States admits of no doubt. Without it, the western half of our country would not be susceptible of cultivation. All the valleys and great parks and *mesas* of the West—whether at an elevation of 500 or 5,000 feet, whether in the Rocky Mountains, the Sierra Nevadas or the Coast Range—demand irrigation. The same may be said of the vast arid plains—the "bad lands" of America—which lie between the twenty-second and twenty-seventh meridians. Although their soil is almost as rich as that of the valley of the Ganges, they are, without water, a desert, and with water, marvellously productive. They will some time be covered with extensive and costly systems of reservoirs stretching eastward from the mountain lakes. Nor is it venturesome to predict that irrigation will some time be quite extensively employed in considerable portions at least of the Eastern, Middle, and Southern States. There are two grounds for this prediction. The sure and sufficient supply of water for his crops is the greatest desideratum for the farmer. Irrigation not only provides this supply, but it fertilizes the land. The silt-bearing, mountain water spreads rich soil-food over the fields, and renews and reinvigorates them each season. Although the expense of constructing irrigating canals in the States east of the Mississippi would be great, the enormous sums now expended in fertilizing stuffs, which would not then be needed, might perhaps pay the whole cost. If, for instance, the farmers of the Genesee Valley in New York State should distribute over their farms the never-failing waters of their neighboring lakes with the vast amount they pay annually for guanos, their outlay per annum might be no greater than at present, and their income would be greatly increased. Guanos add nothing to the permanent melioration of their farms; but the irrigating canals would be a fixed improvement, and, making possible the increased revenues arising from the additional quantity and the improved quality of the grain produced, and produced without failure, would add to the value of their farms many fold.

LUCIEN BONAPARTE.

PARIS, November 1, 1888.

AN anonymous work has just appeared on Prince Lucien Bonaparte. "We publish this notice," says the unknown writer, "in the hope of proving to all who, from interest or through passion, have pretended to separate Lucien Bonaparte from the Imperial family, and who look upon him as a mere private individual, without any connection with the throne, that if, from the most honorable motives of personal pride and of fidelity to beloved beings, he thought it a necessity to escape for many years from the domination of his all-powerful brother, he returned to him when he saw the storm gathering about his head. The reconciliation was sincere on both sides, and he reëntered, therefore, the family circle, and resumed the titles and honors to which his birth gave him a right."

Lucien was the third son of Charles Bonaparte and of Letizia Ramolino. Charles, the father, died at Montpellier in 1785, leaving eight children, five sons and three daughters. Here is the list of them: Joseph, born in 1768, died in Florence in 1844 (King of Naples and of Spain). Napoleon, born in 1769 (there has been much discussion about the exact date of his birth), Emperor of the French, died at St. Helena in 1821. Lucien, born in 1775, died at Viterbo in 1840. Eliza, born in 1777, died at Trieste in 1820 (Grand Duchess of Tuscany). Louis, born in 1770, died in 1846 (King of Holland). Pauline, born in 1780, died in 1825 (Princess Borghese). Caroline, born in 1782, died in 1839 (Queen of Naples, the wife of Murat). Jerome, born in 1784, died in 1860 (King of Westphalia). All these names have become historical. We see in this list that Lucien came immediately after Napoleon, who came himself after Joseph. Lucien began his education at Autun and continued it at the Seminary of Aix, after a short stay at the school of Brienne. He was preparing himself for ecclesiastical life when the Revolution broke out. He adopted its principles, and entered into the struggle of the Corsicans, who remained faithful to France, against Paoli. The whole Bonaparte family being proscribed from the island, Lucien fled to Toulon, and the Government gave him a small office worth 1,200 francs a year, at Saint Maximin, in the Department of the Var. He was twenty years old; and, little suspecting his future destinies, he married the sister of the keeper of a small inn in which he lived, Catherine Boyer. The author of the memoir before me is obliged to confess that the education of this Catherine, whom her husband often called Christine, was neglected; that, not knowing how to write, she was unable to sign her marriage papers.

In 1795 Lucien was appointed inspector in the military administration. He had some difficulties with the revolutionists of the province, and was for a moment put in prison at Aix. By the influence of his brother Napoleon, he was released, and appointed *commissaire des guerres* in the armies of Germany and of the North. He afterwards returned to Corsica, with instructions from Bonaparte, and was appointed a member of the Council of the Five Hundred. Though he was not yet eligible, on account of his youth, his election was validated. After a while, he took his place in the ranks of the Opposition. "Ah!" said one day Sieyès to Lucien, "why do we not have a sword on our side? Why is your brother not here?" His brother was in Egypt; when he landed at Fréjus, there was a great feeling of joy in France and in Paris. Joseph and Lucien met him on his way; public opinion was prepared for a change, and everybody longed for it. Lucien had been elected president of the Five Hundred. He put his brother Napoleon in relations with Sieyès. The first interview took place on the 10th Brumaire, in Lucien's house. Sieyès and Napoleon came immediately to an agreement. "Occupy yourself," said Bonaparte, "with the transfer of the two councils to Saint-Cloud and with the establishment of a provisional government. I approve of the reduction of this government to three persons, and, since it is judged necessary, I am willing to be one of the three consuls, with you and with your colleague Roger-Ducos."

The 18th Brumaire was chosen for the day of the execution of this plan. I will not relate the history of this famous day, but will only say that Lucien was one of the principal actors in the drama. He left the presidential chair, he spoke to the troops: "I confide to the soldiers the care of liberating the majority of the representatives of the people; once liberated from poniards by bayonets, we shall be able to deliberate in peace on the destinies of the Republic." The poniards were a fable, the bayonets a reality. The Directory was suppressed, the executive power given to a commission of three consuls, and the Chamber was adjourned. The author of the 'Secret Memoirs of Lucien' says: "The true author of the 18th Brumaire, Lucien hindered the demagogues of the Five Hundred from profiting by Napoleon's discomfiture in order to outlaw him. Lucien, surrounded with threats and with clamorous voices, refused, as President, to put to vote the decree which outlawed his brother, and which might have altered the dispositions of the troops which had been brought for the dissolution of the Council. Five grenadiers, into whose arms Bonaparte had fallen, would have been a feeble barrier against furious men; and if Lucien had not struggled as he did against those who tried to tear him from his chair, the plot would have failed and turned against its author."

Lucien was appointed Minister of the Interior at twenty-four years of age. The Home Office at that time comprised also Public Instruction, Letters and Arts. His sister Eliza, married to M. Baciocchi, kept his salon, where he received the writers of the time—Fontanes, La Harpe, Chateaubriand, just come back from the emigration, Roederer, Boufflers, who seemed a remnant of the eighteenth century. The wife of Lucien, whom he kept in the background, the illiterate Christine Boyer, died at that time, leaving him two young daughters (one became a Princess Gabrielli, and died in 1865, the other was married in 1818 to a M. Arved, a Swede, and in 1824 to Lord Dudley Stuart, and died in Rome in 1847).

When Bonaparte returned from the campaign of Marengo, he quarrelled with his brother Lucien. They were both hot-tempered, and Lucien, in a fit of anger, threw his portfolio on the table of the First Consul. He was sent as Ambassador to Spain, and obtained at Madrid the retrocession of Louisiana to France. He offered Tuscany, which had been erected into a kingdom under the name of Etruria, to the Infant Duke of Parma, who was married to the Infanta Maria-Louisa. The King and Queen of Spain loaded him with presents. He wrote to his brother: "For the treaty of Tuscany, I have received twenty-five pictures from the gallery of the Retiro, for my gallery, and 100,000 écus in diamonds. I shall receive as much for the peace of Portugal. If money were my passion, I should already be a millionaire. . . . I dare not look attentively at anything, for fear it will be offered to me. . . . The King and Queen have offered me all the orders of Spain, the Golden Fleece, and a pension of 100,000 francs. I answered as you imagine; then their Majesties told me they gave me all that *in pectore*." When Lucien was recalled, he made his parting visit, and we read in the 'Souvenirs' of Prince Pierre Bonaparte, the son of Lucien: "Sapey, the first secretary, received a magnificent diamond snuff-box. Lucien wondered if he had been forgotten, when there arrived, for the Ambassador, the full-length portrait of the King." The frame was wrapped up in paper. "Sapey opened the paper cover, and what did he find? Uncut diamonds innumerable, to the amount of five millions of francs! Such was the origin of Lucien's fortune." Lucien returned to France, with his diamonds carefully packed in little bags, under a strong escort of cavalry. On his arrival, he entered the Tribunate, and in 1803 he was appointed Senator and Grand Officer of the Legion of Honor.

At the death of the young Infant of Parma, whom Lucien had helped to make King of

Etruria, the First Consul asked Lucien to marry Maria Louisa, his widow. She was the third daughter of Charles IV. of Spain. Lucien refused; he had secretly married a French woman, Alexandrine de Bleschamp, who was the widow of a M. Jouberthon of Nantes. Mme. Jouberthon was very handsome. She had some difficulties in producing the legal documents necessary for a civil marriage, for M. Jouberthon had died in Saint Domingo. Lucien had at first only a religious marriage, and had kept it secret from his brother. When the papers arrived, the civil marriage was celebrated and announced to Napoleon. Napoleon became so infuriated with his brother that Lucien thought it necessary to leave France. He went to Rome, and when the senatus-consultum of May 18 established the Empire, Lucien and Jerome were formally excluded from the line of succession (Jerome only reconquered his place in 1806, when he divorced Eliza Paterson). Various attempts were made towards a reconciliation of the two brothers. Lucien went to see Napoleon at Mantua, in 1807, after the Emperor had signed the Peace of Tilsit. Napoleon was anxious that his brother should be divorced, and, showing him a map of Europe, told him to choose for himself: "All this is mine, or will soon be mine. I can dispose of it all. Will you have Naples? I will take it from Joseph, who does not care for it. . . . What will you have? Speak. Whatever you like is yours, if your divorce precedes mine." Lucien answered that even the Kingdom of France could not tempt him. The last word of Napoleon was: "Everything for Lucien divorced, nothing for Lucien without a divorce."

In 1810 Lucien's name was struck from the list of Senators. In the letter addressed by Napoleon to Laplace, the Chancellor of the Senate, we read:

"Lucien has abandoned himself to a shameful passion for a woman who by her conduct had placed an insurmountable barrier between herself and whatever is honest. We judged that he could not be comprised in the line of heredity. While we raised our brothers to the rank which suited their birth and the interests of our crown, he remained in the state of a private individual. Since we have been struggling against great dangers and have had to fight a European coalition, his duty ought to have brought him back to our side, and we had a right to count upon the talents which he received from Heaven. He has always been deaf to our voice; he has finally looked for a refuge out of the Empire, and has placed himself under the protection of the Powers which he knew to be ill disposed to our throne, and has rendered more irrevocable his renunciation of all his duties towards us, towards the Senate, towards the country."

What had Lucien done? He was on the most excellent terms with the Pope, who had shown him great kindness; he had remained on his estate at Canino, which the Pope had sold to him. He was desirous to remain neutral between the Pope and the Emperor, but the Emperor did not permit any such neutrality. Lucien resolved to go to America, and asked for English passports, in order to go to the United States.

A GERMAN HOME FOR AGED WOMEN.

DRESDEN, October, 1888.

IN spite of Julian Hawthorne's bitter vilification of the Saxon capital and its people, "all the world" continues to come year after year to the beautiful city on the Elbe; and small indeed must be the town, even in Western America or Eastern Russia, where there is not at least one heart that cherishes pleasant memories of Dresden. Yet I venture to assert that few remember Dresden as a city of benevolent institutions, though it possesses several that would enjoy considerable notoriety in a town having fewer attractions of a more brilliant character. It has been my good fortune to become intimately acquainted with one of these, the Consolidated Hospital for Women, or Materni Hospital, as it is usually called, after the chief of the united foundations. "Hospital" is now a misnomer, for the institution has become simply a home for aged women; and in case of prolonged serious sickness, an inmate is removed to a hospital proper.

The beginnings of the institution go back to very early days. The first we know of the Materni Hospital is that in the year 1280 Henry the Illustrious, Margrave of Meissen, presented it to his daughter-in-law, Helena, the wife of Margrave Dietrich of Landsberg, who, in turn, 1291, transferred it to St. Clara's Convent at Seusslitz, from which it passed over, in 1329, to the Town Council of Dresden, and became an asylum for respectable burgher women without means. The Bartholomæi Hospital seems also to date from the thirteenth century. It was founded by citizens of Dresden as a hospital for persons afflicted with leprosy and other contagious diseases, but, on the establishment of other hospitals, assumed a character similar to that of the Materni Hospital. "There were eight inmates besides the hospital master (who had charge of the fields belonging to the home, and whose duty it was in early days to go about the town once a week and take up a collection) and his wife, who had charge of the cows." Little is known of the origin and history of the Brücken Hospital. It seems to have been at first an ordinary hospital at the old bridge over the Elbe, and was maintained by the bridge funds; in time it too became a home for old women, and was removed to another location.

The plan of a consolidation of these three institutions was one of the beneficial results of the reform movement which set in after 1830, at which time the direct representatives of the people began to have a share in the city government. A large piece of land on Freiberger Street belonging to the Bartholomæi Hospital was purchased by the Materni Hospital, and here a building was erected according to the modified plans of the celebrated architect Gottfried Semper, who built the old theatre and planned the present one. The building was opened in 1838, and cost $63,549,* besides $2,431 for furnishing. It contains eighty-two rooms for the inmates proper, and apartments for the superintendent and his family, his assistants, and the servants. In time more room was required, and the necessary funds ($55,231) being furnished by the city from the surplus of the City Savings Bank, a new building was erected in 1883 on the same piece of land and in the same style. It is connected with the Old House by a covered passage, and has accommodations for sixty-seven inmates, beside bath-rooms, kitchen, etc., and servants' quarters. The buildings have the form of an Π, are three stories high, including the ground floor, and have broad and well-lighted staircases and corridors. The stairs are of stone and the floors of wood. The walls in the hallways are painted light brown to a height of four feet from the floor, and above have a faint blue tint like the walls of the rooms, while the ceilings are white—altogether a combination very cheerful and agreeable to the eye. Each room is heated separately by the stove in it, and in the New House the corridors are also heated by a furnace, so that even in the winter time the old ladies can walk about, or sit on the fine heavy oaken benches and chat while their rooms are airing. The water-closets have recently been arranged on the modern plan, and in the New House an excellent system of ventilation has been provided. Here, too, are the bath-rooms with hot and cold water and all appliances, where each inmate is required to bathe at least once a fortnight. Here, as well as over each bed, is the button of the electric signal calling the attendant.

The whole institution is managed by the Materni Hospital proper, which receives as compensation from the other foundations a yearly allowance of $60 for each individual it cares for on their behalf; and the money given weekly to each inmate also comes from the treasury of the foundation to which she belongs. From time to time there are made by benevolent persons other foundations, sometimes only supporting one person at a time, and these are attached to the Materni Hospital in the same way. All inmates are on the same footing and have the same advantages, but the conditions of entrance differ slightly in the various foundations. Since the consolidation, the fiftieth anniversary of which has just been celebrated, the number of places has risen, not counting the 29 provided for by new foundations, from 28 to 120. This remarkable increase has been made possible by the rise in the value of the property of the institution, the accumulation of unused interest, and the gifts and bequests of inmates and others. The capital of the Materni Hospital is at present $205,956, that of the Bartholomæi Hospital $106,331, that of the Brücken Hospital $9,856, and that of the new foundations about $113,000. Besides this the Materni Hospital owns real estate to the value of $352,722, and the Bartholomæi Hospital to that of $44,299. The institution and its property are controlled by the City Council, and more immediately by one of its members, who is called the Administrator of the Hospital. In the institution itself there is a superintendent, a matron, seven attendants, a chief cook with three assistants, a janitor, and three general servants.

An applicant for admission must bring proof of an unblemished character, and of freedom from any disease that would make her obnoxious to others or require special treatment; be sixty years of age (now practically seventy, as there are always enough of that age waiting for a vacancy); have been ten years a resident of Dresden, and, in the case of the Materni Hospital proper, be the widow, divorced wife, or unmarried daughter of a citizen of Dresden, or have herself acquired citizenship; bring with her the furniture necessary for her room, and pay an admission fee of $75.

Each inmate receives a room 12x21 feet for her exclusive use, fuel and light, $1.40 a week with which to buy food, and 40 cents extra for a Christmas dinner, medicine and treatment when sick (in case of prolonged serious sickness she is removed to the City Hospital, the cost of her treatment there being carried by the foundation to which she belongs), and burial at the expense of the Home. No provision is made for clothing, and here each one must have resort to what little resources she may have, or to relatives and friends. The institution is also the legal heir of each inmate, and inherits whatever is in her room at the time of her death (except letters, family pictures, and the like), and a certain proportion of what she may possess elsewhere. There have been in all but three cases of withdrawal from the Home; of these the cause was in one case the winning of one fourth of the highest prize in the State

* I have given throughout the American equivalents of German money, counting a mark as practically 25c.; of course the same amount of money will buy more in Germany than at home, which must be borne in mind farther on in considering the amount allowed for food each week.

Lottery, in another the inheritance of a large fortune, and in the third the desire of relatives to have the old lady with them. An inmate may be removed in case of serious misdemeanor, but no such case is recorded.

Now let us examine one of the many little homes of which the great Home is composed. They have much in common, but as each old lady brings her furniture with her and arranges it according to her taste, each room has an individuality of its own. The room I shall describe is that of my grandmother, in which I have spent not a few happy hours, and of late some very sad ones, for she has been for a number of days confined to her bed. When, one pleasant September evening, I came up the stairs and into the hall that leads to her room, her door was distinguished from the others by an evergreen garland and a great 90 above it, for it was her ninetieth birthday. I did not come unexpected, and she was busy making tea for her "American grandson," as she is fond of introducing me. Opposite the door is a large double window, with neat white curtains and dark shades, and a number of flower-pots with her favorite flowers. She called my attention to one and said, "See how nice your geranium blossoms." I had taken it from the garden in Göttingen some years ago and potted it, but had forgotten all about it. Before the window, on a little elevation or "throne," is a stand with a chair on either side, one of these the large easy chair in which she sits when she wishes to read, and at the same time be able, if she chooses, to look down into the fine large garden belonging to the Home, or upon the street and watch the people passing by. In the middle of the wall on the right is her bed, and on the opposite side a large sofa with a table before it, in the German fashion. A high porcelain stove stands in the corner by the door. She has also a wardrobe, a bureau, a cupboard for her dishes, and a washstand. On the walls hang pictures of children, grandchildren, and great-grandchildren in both hemispheres, and views of the places where they live. Here she is absolutely her own mistress, receiving company, and coming and going as she pleases, being held only by the following rules, which aim to secure the convenience, health, and safety of all. It is forbidden to stay away over night or go upon a journey without first informing the superintendent. The door and gate are locked at nine in winter and ten in summer, and any one coming later has to pay the janitor a fee. A high standard of cleanliness must be maintained, and it is not allowed to wash clothes in the rooms, or engage in any other work or industry that might be objectionable to others. Birds are allowed, but dogs are banished, as also the cat, which was even allowed the nuns by the 'Ancren Riwle.' One old body who, when she entered the Home, had a dog she was very fond of, put him out to board, and has him brought to her twice a week to pet and fondle.

In the morning each old lady does her little housework (till age or sickness prevents), and makes her coffee by the aid of an alcohol-lamp or in the kitchen; if she prefers, she can have it prepared for her for a trifle. Dinner is cooked in the large kitchen in the New House and brought to each room by an attendant. The amount charged is for the raw material only, all expense for preparation being carried by the institution. The following is one of the weekly bills of fare that the superintendent took from the frame in the kitchen and handed me. The messes given are bountiful, and potatoes are always furnished though not mentioned.

July 1–7, '88. *Sunday:* Soup 1c., Roast 6c. or Pork-chops 7c., Dessert 1c. *Monday:* Boiled beef and barley 4. *Tuesday:* Fried sausage and Lentils or Meat balls and Groats 4c. *Wednesday:* Beef with Cauliflower and Carrots 5c. or with Farina 4c. *Thursday:* Rice cooked in milk 3c., Veal-fricassee 4c. *Friday:* Boiled Beef and Noodles 4c. *Saturday:* Soup with Greens 2c., Macaroni 2c.

As dinner may be ordered for visitors, I have often eaten with my grandmother, and I am sure could not desire food better or better prepared. Still, the greatest freedom is allowed in this matter, and no one is required to have dinner from the kitchen, but simply to state, when the girl comes around the evening before, whether she will or not. She may go to a restaurant or wherever she pleases, and have as expensive a dinner as her means permit, or she may buy what she wants and prepare her dinner herself. Ordinary peddling is not allowed in the building, but a baker and certain peasant women have been authorized to make regular visits and bring bread, produce, and fruit to sell to the inmates. Those in the New House who wish to prepare their own dinner must provide themselves with oil-stoves or get along with the one hole of the stove in their rooms. In the Old House, the two small kitchens in the first and second stories, which were used before the New House was built, are put at the disposal of the old ladies, and fire provided for them at certain hours. In this way they are able to secure a variety that could not be provided for them, and each is able to indulge her taste, and keep up on a small scale the busy home-life she once led. Some carry this too far, occasionally objecting to what is offered for the next day, and then, when the time comes, cooking the same; some even affect to be above eating what is prepared in the kitchen. Supper, too, may be ordered, but most prefer to prepare it themselves, the girl being required to buy and bring them what they wish.

There is a chapel in the third story of the Old House, and evangelical service is held every other Thursday by one of the clergymen of St. Anne's Church; but attendance either here or in a church is according to the desire of each individual. Communion is held quarterly, and not only in the Chapel, but also, for those who find it difficult to go down the stairs, in one of the rooms in another story. This was once done in my grandmother's room during my stay in Dresden. A white spread was laid upon the table, on which were arranged a crucifix, the goblet of wine, a little silver box with wafers, and two candlesticks. Here the kindly *Diakonus* in his vestments administered the Lord's supper and the consolations of the faith to four old ladies in or approaching the nineties —but I, of course, was excluded. There is also a drawing-room, in which the inmates may come together for social intercourse; but they very seldom avail themselves of the opportunity. Still, there is plenty of visiting, and one cannot be surprised that, where 149 old women are gathered under one roof, there is a deal of gossip, fault-finding, and even scheming to displace attendants and others. Nevertheless, these things are not prominent, and pains are taken to keep up a high standard of demeanor. Each year the class of persons admitted is better. The entrance fee, together with the other conditions of admission, tends to the same end, and also relieves the inmates of the humiliation of being considered objects of charity. There are not a few here who could well be supported by their relatives or friends, but who prefer to live out their days in this simple but secure and, above all, independent way in their native city. I have several times passed through the quiet halls at night after the closing hour. At each door hung, like children's stockings on Christmas eve, a little basket or bag for the baker to put the coffee-rolls in early in the morning; and somehow I thought how soon, at each one of these doors, Some One would come and knock, and there be an end of daily cares and of the need of daily bread. G. H.

Correspondence.

WHAT WE OUGHT TO EXPECT.

To the Editor of The Nation.

Sir: In your issue of Nov. 8 you say:

"The surplus will stare Mr. Harrison in the face, just as it now stares Mr. Cleveland. It must be got rid of either by reduced taxation or by extravagant appropriations. The smallness of the Republican majority forbids that the latter policy should be adopted. It will not be safe to inaugurate a system of national profligacy in order to empty the Treasury. As little will it be safe to repeal the whiskey tax in order to maintain imposts on the necessaries of life. The masses . . . are not likely to forget anything that they have learned in this campaign of education."

I do not say that this is as unreasonable as if a Frémonter had said, after the election of 1856, that, in view of the rising tide of opinion opposed to slavery, measures for its abolition were likely to be adopted by Congress; but I fail to see any adequate reason for sharing your hope, while I cannot shut my eyes to the likelihood of a very different policy being carried out.

In the first place, the surplus problem could be solved by expenditure with far greater safety than the *Nation* seems to think. Economy is not an American characteristic. Private extravagance rarely excites comment, and we have grown so used to the waste of public funds that, far from being regarded as the robbery that it really is, more often than not it is approved as a means of distributing the public wealth among the people. Besides, our system is such as to make practical party responsibility for any measure involving expenditure a thing of rare occurrence. River and harbor bills and pension bills are never, strictly speaking, party measures, nor was the Bland Silver Law such, nor the Blair Educational Bill. The very prominence given to the Mills Bill shows that it was an exception to the general rule, and it was only indirectly a measure involving expenditure. In the usual absence of Administration measures or organized opposition, each member votes so as to strengthen his position with his own constituents.

Secondly, as to the disposition of the surplus. Extravagant river and harbor bills are too well-known a feature of our financial policy to call for special notice. The glaring unconstitutionality, as well as impolicy, of the Blair Education Bill did not deprive it of a very considerable support in both Houses of Congress. What is most important of all is, that Mr. Cleveland's pension vetoes (both of private bills and of the Dependent Pension Bill) played a part in the recent campaign only less important than those of the Mills Bill and the more or less genuine utterances of the English press. Mr. Harrison boasted himself the "friend of the soldier," and an originator of the dependent-pension scheme, and talked of the "great national ambulance." The "soldier vote" was appealed to most successfully in his behalf, and it will claim recognition. The attitude of the Grand Army prevents all uncertainty as to what sort of recognition will be asked, and it is too much to suppose the leaders of the Republican party are going to disappoint

what must be, from their point of view, such reasonable expectations.

Thirdly, the surplus is there, and all that is necessary to meet the demands of pension and other bills is to let the sources of the surplus stay about as they are. Granted that the tobacco taxes will probably be removed, is there any likelihood that the tariff will be touched, except possibly in the way of raising some of the duties? The repeal of the sugar duties, though proposed in the Senate bill, has too long been regarded as the entering wedge of "British free trade" to warrant much expectation of its being seriously considered. The Republican party is now absolutely controlled by men who believe, rightly or not, that any tariff reduction would deprive them and their immediate supporters of millions of dollars of profits, and they may naturally be expected to fight tariff reform to the bitter end. Even if an attempt in that direction were made, the party whose first and last article of belief is the necessity of fostering special interests would probably find it impossible to adjust any measure of reform to the satisfaction of those whose profits would be affected by a change. Certainly the difficulties in the way of such a solution of the surplus problem would be enormous as compared with the simple plan of spending the money.

It is certainly well to look on the bright side under all circumstances, and all tariff-reformers would like to take the *Nation's* view; but, as a long and bitter fight seems to confront them, it may be just as well for them to prepare for it with a never-slackening zeal, and to look for no concession from their opponents until it is actually made. C. C. B.

PHILADELPHIA, November 12, 1888.

WHAT SHALL WE DO?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The outcome of the election proves clearly that the country is not yet ready to decide with the President on the issue which he made; and to say that Mr. Harrison's election is due to ignorance, self-interest, and misrepresentation is simply to state this fact in other terms. Unfortunate as the result is, it becomes doubly so from the fact that other circumstances accompanying it greatly endanger Mr. Cleveland's position as the leader of his party. His entire public life has, consciously or unconsciously, been an effort to raise the plane of his party's life; and the course of events, by drawing to his support the independent and disinterested sentiment of the country, has aided him in his efforts to identify it with high principles and sound ideas. In a people composed of as many dissimilar elements as is the American people, and a people whose unity is so constantly disturbed by the influx of a large and raw foreign population, it is not strange that four years have been inadequate for this great work. Its influence has as yet hardly touched the official machinery of the party, or its recognized leaders in the Senate and the House. How insufficient a single Presidential term has been thoroughly to regenerate the party, the renomination of Gov. Hill showed; but it was my earnest hope that four more years of President Cleveland would so completely transform his party as to leave Gov. Hill, his friends and his methods, high and dry behind it. But at the very moment when the process was proceeding most favorably, when the people were gradually comprehending his sound ideas of public policy, when the ancient leaders of the party had, however reluctantly, signed their own death-warrants by accepting his leadership, a severe defeat brings to the front a man who represents the very elements of party life which Mr. Cleveland has uniformly opposed.

This, then, is the critical question which the election presents to the Democratic party: Will it continue Mr. Cleveland as its leader, and cling to its declaration of its purposes, without regard to the next election; or will it abandon its leader and its principles, for the chances of success with Gov. Hill in 1892? Will it dare to repudiate its partial success, and to rejoice more in its defeat with the President than in its victory with the Governor? The time has come to choose between two irreconcilable tendencies; and the choice of Mr. Hill will inevitably mean the surrender of every inch of ground that the President has so painfully won, and the exchange of the absolute certainty of ultimate and enduring success for the nearer prospect of office without anything that could make it worth the having.

I confess, however, with great reluctance, that the outlook for the prevalence of wise and patriotic counsels is not reassuring. Success is a sweet thing to most men, and the probability of repeated defeat, even in a great cause and with ultimate triumph, is not pleasant. The history of the Democratic party in recent years contains a somewhat similar case, that of Mr. Tilden in 1880, in which, with practical unanimity, the party deserted its leader and its principles, only to meet, however, a most crushing defeat. How far the Democratic press is disposed to try this course again, I have no means of knowing; but I see with profound regret that the course of the *Courier-Journal* points unmistakably to the substitution of some one else—most likely Gov. Hill or Gov. Gray—for Mr. Cleveland, on the alleged ground that he is responsible for his own defeat. Why? Not, indeed, because he pressed the tariff question, but because he lacked the small abilities that make successful candidates. Has it, then, come to this, that a great principle of government is to be established through bargaining in public offices? Are we to acknowledge manhood suffrage so disastrous a failure that a great truth must be obscured, compromised, and disgraced before it can hope for success? The party of the future will not have it so. The party towards which the President was leading the Democratic party, and with which more than all else the continued endorsement of Mr. Cleveland and the equally vigorous repudiation of Gov. Hill would identify it, will succeed on its merits or not at all.

But if the Democratic party lacks the courage to uphold the President, if it surrenders to Gov. Hill and becomes the counterpart of the Republican party, then let us have a new party, which will grow up with a distinct purpose, appropriating to itself the real strength and intelligence of the nation—a party prepared to bide its time, ready for and indifferent to defeat, but strong in the assurance of its final triumph. For as sure as there is something higher in our life than either the Republican party of Gen. Harrison or the Democracy of Gov. Hill, so surely will the lofty and unselfish conception of public duty in the end prevail; it cannot be that our political life will permanently be disconnected from the true intellectual life of the nation.

In that party of the future, let us give a high and honorable place to the brave man who has just experienced his first defeat. In a brief Presidency of four years he is the only Executive since Abraham Lincoln who has left an enduring and worthy imprint on our national history. I am not now disposed, nor have I ever been, to extenuate his faults. His almost forgotten message on the labor troubles was a stupendous, an unexplicable blunder; his retaliation message, though a consummate political move, may well be criticised on higher grounds; his treatment of Lord Sackville, though the provocation was great, was hardly in keeping with the national dignity; and his course in regard to the civil service, though in this he contended against obstacles which no man can realize, was still inconsistent and unfortunate. But, despite all these shortcomings, he is still the first President in a quarter of a century who has contested the domination of selfish interests, who has encountered and combatted the great forces of demoralization which have threatened and have impaired the purity of our Government. Monopolies, railroads, "pension sharks," "land-grabbers," have all recognized that they had nothing to expect from him; and these have been our great public questions since the accession of Gen. Grant! It is not strange that Mr. Cleveland was not victorious in his last struggle against the organized forces of corruption and ignorance, fighting for very life: it is enough for him that he will be so in the end. He has directed and developed forces which will continue to grow in activity long after he has retired from his high office. To his lasting honor be it said, he is the only man in public life today who could seriously aspire to be their leader. F.

LOUISVILLE, November 10, 1888.

THE ELECTION IN MARYLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It looks as though Gormanism had received a mortal blow in this State. The defeat of Indian Inspector Morris A. Thomas for clerk of the new equity court, the election of two and perhaps three Republican Representatives in Congress, and the reduction of Cleveland's plurality in the State to 5,500, have rudely awakened the masses of the Democratic party to the conviction that the great boss in whose invincibility they had been taught to trust is, in fact, destroying the party. In 1876, in a total vote of 163,761, Tilden had a plurality of 19,799. In 1880 the total vote rose to 172,221, but the Democratic plurality was only 15,191. In 1884 the total vote was 186,019, and Cleveland's plurality was 11,118; and now, with a total vote in the State of 212,000, the plurality is but 5,500. In twelve years the Democratic vote has increased less than 15,000, while the Republican is now nearly 29,000 greater than it was in 1876. This reduction in the Democratic majority has been brought about in the face of the naturalization of many thousand foreigners, four-fifths of whom vote the Democratic ticket. In 1876, only four of the twenty-three counties of the State gave Republican pluralities. In 1888, twelve went Republican. For the first time since the war, Baltimore city will have a Republican member in the House of Representatives.

National issues have probably had very little to do with this growth of Republican strength. It has been almost entirely the result of the frauds, corruption, and political tyranny of the Gorman machine. Every independent movement that we have had in the last thirteen years has permanently detached some voters from the Democratic party. The men most prominent in these revolts are still, with very few exceptions, Democrats, but after every campaign some of the rank and file unite with the Republican party. Unless this drain can be arrested in the meanwhile, Maryland in the next Presidential election will be a doubtful State. Some of the Gorman people are saying that the small Democratic majority is due to

the tariff policy of the national Administration. This is not so. It is unquestionably true that in some of the workingmen's wards the Republicans made large gains on the tariff issue; but on the other hand, it was that issue, and that alone, which held the great body of independent Democrats loyal to the Democratic national ticket. Had not the Republican party represented (in their view) a dangerous economic policy, there is little doubt that many of the most prominent Independents in the State would have either voted for Gen. Harrison or not voted at all. As it was, one or two of them who have been lifelong Democrats, and who are anything rather than Protectionists, cast their votes for the Republican ticket, as did many of the Republican Mugwumps of 1884. But the great mass of independent Democrats gave their earnest support to Cleveland and Thurman. They organized a campaign society which they called the Jeffersonian Association, and under its auspices was held the meeting at which Secretary Bayard made his speech.

On the whole, therefore, the fact that the economic question was an issue in the canvass helped rather than hurt the Democratic party. The nomination of Morris A. Thomas was, it is generally understood, due to the personal influence of Senator Gorman. Naval Officer Rasin, and the city leaders who take their orders from him, were, it is believed, reluctant to put Thomas in any position in which the people could get a chance at him; but Gorman insisted, and Thomas got the nomination. Thomas doubtless counted on its being a Presidential year, and on the fact that the Republican candidate, Capt. John H. Suter, who had been nominated when it was understood that the Democrats intended to nominate Mr. William Brewer, (who had been for twenty years deputy clerk of the existing equity court, and would have been the best possible candidate for the place), was far from a strong nominee. He had been put up to round out the ticket and without any thought that he would be elected. His integrity and clerical efficiency were not assailable; but he had been well known as a Republican politician, and had held a place in the custom-house for some eighteen years, having resigned on request about a year ago. It was alleged that his habits were not good. Under these circumstances, the Reform League decided that it would not be wise policy for them to endorse Capt. Suter. They accordingly confined themselves to the publication in the papers of a formal protest against Thomas's candidature, laying especial stress on the details of his fraudulent bankruptcy, as showing in a striking manner his unfitness for a place in which thousands of dollars of trust moneys would necessarily pass through his hands.

The members of the League, in their individual capacity, almost without exception did all they could to beat Thomas, in the only way that it could be done—that is, by electing Suter. Several gentlemen had prepared and distributed 50,000 circulars containing the principal objections to Thomas. With each circular Suter pasters were sent. No public meetings were held, no further newspaper publications were made. Disgraceful as it is to say, not a single newspaper editorially made mention of Thomas. He had expected a scratching campaign, and, in order to defeat it, he had prevented the circulation of the Democratic ticket throughout the city. For the first time in many years the Democratic voters of the city received no Democratic tickets at their residences. He evidently believed that few people would scratch him if they had to go to the polls and there get their tickets and then scratch him openly. Doubtless this scheme did save him a good many votes, but the result proved that there was a more general and robust independent feeling in the city than anybody had supposed; for although Cleveland had 5,000 plurality, Suter had some 3,400 more votes than Thomas.

The result, in its entirety and in its details, is a tremendous blow at Gorman, and is so everywhere accepted. Politicians who have been his subservient tools are now openly saying that his mismanagement has brought the party to the very verge of defeat. The various factional leaders who have been beaten by Rasin and Gorman in past contests for the control of the party organization, are everywhere preparing for a new struggle. Meanwhile, the Independents are quietly watching the signs of the opening battle, and are busying themselves in preparing drafts of new election and civil-service laws, in order that they may be ready to seize any opportunity which the fortunes of the strife may offer for the advancement of these great reforms. O. S.

Baltimore, November 9, 1888.

THE SAME ISSUE UNDER CHANGED CIRCUMSTANCES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Suffering under disappointment, as I suppose is the case with most of your readers, I seek for consolation in eternal principles.

The London *Spectator* discusses M. Floquet's proposals for the revision of the French Constitution, and especially that which it regards as most important, viz., that the Ministers shall have a fixed term of two years, and not resign upon defeat of a bill, but only upon a special vote of a want of confidence. The critic thinks the Chamber would vote want of confidence just as readily as it would defeat a bill. Very likely; but why need the Ministers resign in either case? "Moreover, in the case of many bills which involve policy, defeat must be followed by resignation, or affairs would come to a deadlock." Why any more than they do now in this country? Would the fact that Ministers had a voice in the discussion of legislation involve such a consequence any more than the fact of its being thrust upon them without their having anything to say? "Could a Ministry remain after such a defeat? It does in Prussia, because Prussia is not a democracy, and Ministers do not mind a vote of want of confidence." That is to say, Ministers in Prussia are not appointed by the Chamber and are not dependent upon it, but derive their authority from the sovereign. Why might not the same thing be true in this country of Ministers appointed by a President elected by the people and independent of Congress? "Government must obey the law of its being, and it seems to us that in a Democratic country an effort to make Ministers secure against the representatives of the people, yet absolutely subject to their authority, is foredoomed from the very first to failure." The gap in this reasoning lies in the words "yet absolutely subject to their authority." It may be true of England and France, where Ministers are made and unmade by the Legislature; but it need not be true of this country, where Ministers are made and unmade by the people through the President."

"If it succeeds, it will be at this strange price, that the Ministry which cannot be turned out will be reduced to impotence. The momentum which carries great bills, and especially great but not popular bills, is the fear that, if they are rejected, the Ministry will resign; and if that fear is removed, they will be rejected by wholesale." This leaves out of sight another fear which is not less powerful, that of members who see danger of losing their seats. What is it which makes the Prussian Chambers submit so tamely to the bullying of Prince Bismarck? I suppose it is hardly the fear of fine, imprisonment, and torture for words spoken in debate. The German people are hardly sunk so low as to be cowed by that. It is because members feel that the present popularity of the throne and Government is so great that attacks upon them would recoil upon the aggressors. May we not suppose that a President elected by eleven millions of voters could lend force enough to his Ministers to enable them to withstand factious opposition, or that skilful holders of such offices could wield a lash long enough to make the dogs of opposition cautious of barking too closely at their heels? G. B.

Boston, November 10, 1888.

'PRINCESS NOURMAHAL.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your column of literary notes published on November 8, I find a paragraph devoted to a recently published novel entitled 'Princess Nourmahal,' said to have been translated by Lew Vanderpoole from the French of George Sand. Of it you say, "It is highly improbable that an inedited work by this writer should first see the light in an English dress; and the internal evidence is wholly against the imputed authorship." Will you be kind enough to allow me to present the external evidence in my possession confirming your opinion?

While I was editor of the *Cosmopolitan*, Vanderpoole came to me and made such representations in regard to the 'Princess Nourmahal' that I was induced to accept it. But happily, before a line of it appeared in the magazine, I became convinced that his statements were not to be believed. He had asserted, among other things, that he was a nephew of George Sand; that he had visited her at her home in France; that he had been intrusted by Victor Lamoureaux, his cousin and a co-executor of Mme. Sand, with the manuscript of 'Princess Nourmahal,' and that he had been authorized to translate and publish it in the United States. At my request, Mme. Adèle Roch of New York wrote to Baron Dudevant, Mme. Sand's son, in regard to the truth of these claims. What he wrote in reply I will let him say in his own words and in his own language. His letter is dated Nohant-Vic, October 23, 1887, and the parts referring to the matter in controversy are as follows:

"(1°.) Ma mère, Madame George Sand, n'a jamais laissé de manuscrit intitulé 'La Princesse Nourmahal.'

"(2°.) Elle n'a pas institué pour son exécuteur littéraire M. Victor Lamoureaux. Je suis son seul exécuteur testamentaire, et je suis seul héritier de tous les manuscrits et autres travaux littéraires qu' elle a laissés, et seul chargé d' en user à ma seule convenance.

"(3°.) Elle n'a aucun lien de parenté avec Mr. Lew Vanderpoole.

"(4°.) Le monsieur susdit n'a jamais fait aucune visite à Mme. George Sand, et elle ne l'a jamais ni vu ni connu.

"(5°.) Ce Mr. Vanderpoole n'a jamais été chargé, que je sache, par qui que ce soit, de traiter avec qui que ce soit pour la publication de manuscrits émanants de George Sand, et ces manuscrits n'ont pu lui être confiés, puisque j'en suis seul possesseur comme héritier légitime et direct avec plein pouvoir d'en user comme il me plaira sans que cela regarde personne autre."

Whatever doubts I may have had in regard to the character of Vanderpoole and the genuineness of the 'Princess Nourmahal' were, of course, removed by this letter. I think that it will also solve any perplexities that librarians may experience when they come to catalogue

the story. They need not hesitate to refuse to credit George Sand with the authorship of the story. F. P. Smith.

Rochester, November 6.

THE BATTLE OF CHATTANOOGA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the edition of the *Nation* of October 4, ult., under the head of "Notes," the writer, referring to a paper by me proving that the "Chattanooga engagement was fought exactly as it was *not* planned," makes mention of "Tolstoi's thesis that such deviations are the rule in war." That idea was not Tolstoi's, is as old as the art of war, and is familiar to all those who have the merest smattering of the rudiments of that art. The reputations of generals have appreciated as they have shown ability in taking advantage of events to change their plans on the field of battle. The remark quoted is, however, not applicable to the paper in question, which was only a reply to a labored argument by the principal personage in the battle to prove that it *was fought as planned*. Had the "thesis" of Tolstoi been accepted by him, the answer to his arguments would never have been necessary.

The conclusion would seem to be irresistible that I was the one who accepted Tolstoi's idea and not the writer to whom I replied.

Wm. Farrar Smith.

November 8, 1888.

[Precisely; and this was what we meant to intimate. That General Smith has misunderstood us, shows that we wrote obscurely. —Ed. Nation.]

THE PRATT LIBRARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is not surprising that a writer in the *Nation* had not heard of the Pratt Library of Baltimore. It has not yet joined the ranks of libraries, in the modern sense of the word. Mr. Pratt's gift was a very handsome one, but the management of the library is at present in very unintelligent hands. No better way of giving out books has been devised than to make tired women and laborers stand in a long row until their turn is reached. My dressmaker has told me that she is going to join the Mercantile Library (the fee for which is five dollars a year), because she cannot afford the time required for waiting at the Pratt. Far from instituting courses of lectures, or any other means to show unbookish people what they want to read, it refused last year to allow its rooms to be used for such a course when other benevolent people were anxious to get one up.

These are two instances out of many which might be given of how much it needs instruction in the ways which have lately been devised for making a library a centre of literary influence—such ways, for example, as Mr. Bemis has found to be so admirably successful in Buffalo. M.

Baltimore, November 11, 1888.

Notes.

Mr. S. S. Rider, Providence, announces as in preparation a general index to the first series of Rhode Island Historical Tracts, "with a correction of all known errors." Moreover, he will shortly begin a second series with 'An Inquiry concerning the Origin of the Clause in the Laws of Rhode Island (1719-1783) Disfranchising Roman Catholics, and Prescribing a Religious Test for the Admission of Freemen.' This tract will be from Mr. Rider's own pen, and will differ in its conclusions from those arrived at by the late Chief-Justice Eddy. The new series, we should mention, will be limited to 250 copies at the utmost. The first series has nearly doubled in marketable value.

"The Gift-Book of the Year," according to the publishers, Estes & Lauriat, Boston, will be their Keats's 'Endymion,' illustrated by W. St. John Harper. They will issue for the gift season also an illustrated edition of George Eliot's Poems, together with a "George Eliot Portfolio" of photogravures and etchings illustrating the works of the novelist; 'Fair Women of All Countries and Times,' text and a great variety of illustrations; 'Voices of the Summer,' sixteen etchings after Millais, Birket Foster, etc.; 'American Painter Etchings,' ten remarque signed proofs, by F. S. Church, Thomas Moran, F. Dielman, and others; and Victor Duruy's 'History of Greece and the Greek People,' elaborately adorned with more than two thousand engravings and color prints.

Charles W. Sever, of the University Book store, Cambridge, Mass., will shortly issue 'Hesper: an American Drama,' by William R. Thayer, author of 'The Confessions of Hermes.'

Ticknor & Co. will publish on November 17 'Wanderers,' being a collection of the poems of William Winter, author of 'Shakespeare's England,' etc., and dramatic critic of the *Tribune*.

Ginn & Co. have in preparation an 'Analytic Geometry,' by Prof. A. S. Hardy of Dartmouth; and 'A Reader in Botany,' by Jane H. Newell.

The Seeger & Guernsey Co., 7 Bowling Green, are compiling a 'New Business Cyclopædia of the Manufactures and Products of the United States, for Domestic and Foreign Trade.'

The second volume of the new 'Chambers's Encyclopædia' (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.) extends from Beaugency to Cataract. Some of the longer articles are Bible, Bird, Book (Bookbinding and Booktrade), Brain, Bridge, and Carlyle. Noteworthy also are those on Bibliography and Biography. Marks of freshness abound—in the lists of authorities, in mention of the fact of Belfast's becoming a city, of Brazilian emancipation, of Mrs. Green's Henry II., etc. Andrew Lang writes on Robert Burns; A. H. Bullen on Samuel Butler; George Saintsbury on Byron; Sir George Grove on Beethoven (making free use of his article in the 'Dictionary of Music,' and giving a convenient chronological presentation of Beethoven's compositions and troubled existence); Stanley Lane-Poole on Cairo; H. B. Wheatley on Caricature, etc., etc. The illustrations continue numerous, and there are several maps.

A very notable undertaking has just been completed by the Clarendon Press, Oxford (New York: Macmillan). We refer to the new edition, in six volumes, of Clarendon's 'History of the Rebellion,' to which Mr. W. Dunn Macray has brought a refinement of accuracy unknown to his less painstaking predecessors. He has collated every word of the text with the original MS., and that there may be no doubt as to the value and extent of his corrected readings, he has grouped these at the close of Vol. VI, where they fill more than fifty pages, in single column, set over against the corresponding readings in the edition of 1849. A certain number of significant passages struck out from the first four books of the MS. are also preserved together in the appendix; divisions, both of sentences and of sections, have been rectified, often to great advantage; and the over-punctuation has been much simplified. Another important service has been to indicate by footnotes the transitions from the MS. of the 'History' to that of the interwoven 'Life.' "Hitherto," says Mr. Macray, "it has been impossible, without great expense of labor and time, to verify any passage whatever, from there not having been a single clue given whereby to find it." Not satisfied with all these improvements, the editor has assigned dates to the events narrated so far as this was practicable; and these, standing in the margin, often demonstrate a lapse of memory on the part of the historian. Finally, the index has been made worthy of the name, the references, however, being, instead of to volume and page, to book and section—on the whole, the right course to pursue. Mr. Macray's own notes are sparse, brief, and either for correction or elucidation. A facsimile of the first sheet of the 'History' shows the well-known rhetorical alteration in the very first line. Too much praise can hardly be bestowed on this edition, to which it would appear that little can be added except, as Mr. Macray points out, in the way of fixing dates.

In 'After Noontide' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), Margaret E. White has made a collection of extracts designed to emphasize the cheerful aspects of old age. Her range of selection is pretty extensive, running all the way from the Bible to Tupper, and yields something, we should think, for all tastes. The book is indexed by authors, and is tastefully printed.

Arthur Helps's 'Casimir Maremma' has been unpretentiously reissued by Roberts Bros.

'The Universal Telegraphic Cipher,' compiled by B. Franklin Lieber, and published by him at 4 Stone Street, New York, appears to be specially designed for the use of bankers and stockbrokers, who would doubtless find it very serviceable, and could easily adapt it to their private business. It is also a very fair and well-arranged general code, but it could never replace the private code of a merchant.

Under the title 'Pompeii' (Naples: Luigi Pierro), L. Conforti, apparently a disciple of Carducci, has collected some fifty poems full of erudition and bristling with Latinisms. A slender vein of narrative, reappearing here and there, serves to give an appearance of unity to the whole; but in the main the pieces are descriptive, the poet's aim being to give us a series of pictures of life in ancient Pompeii at the various hours of day and night. Judged from a Latin standpoint, the verses are graceful and harmonious.

The proprietors of the *Writer*—a now well-established monthly published in Boston, in which the veteran quill-driver and the novice are alike apt to find something helpful, at least on the mechanical side of their calling—are to launch on January 1 a companion periodical, the *Author*. Its aim is to admit selected as well as original matter, of special importance to writers, but its exact physiognomy is not indicated in the prospectus.

The Gesellschaft Urania of Berlin has begun a new popular illustrated monthly, entitled *Himmel und Erde*, the prospectus and first number of which have reached us. As its name would imply, the scope of the magazine is broad enough to include astronomy, physics of the earth and celestial bodies, optics, physics proper, geography, and meteorology. The entire prospectus, a brief one, would be worth producing here, had we space; but if the name of the editor, Dr. M. Wilhelm Meyer, of Berlin, were not sufficient guarantee for the character of this new venture, the long list of contributors would be. Gould of Cambridge and Peters of Clinton are the only representatives

of America in the list. *Heft* 1 makes an excellent beginning with an important paper by Schiaparelli on the planet Mars, the study of whose surface he has made particularly his own. Following are papers by Foerster, the editor, and others, and a collection of interesting notes, and reviews of the scientific works of the day. Each number of this monthly will contain 50–60 pages royal octavo, and the price for the year is $3.50. No. 1 bears the date October, 1888. The illustrations are of a high order, and the new magazine may well displace much of the cheap stuff, French and English, heretofore current.

The November *Academy* (Syracuse, N. Y.) is an exceptionally valuable number, being composed of papers read last month before the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, and of the debates thereon. Mr. John Tetlow's paper, on the desirability of modifying the present modern-language requisitions for admission to college, stands first, and is, to our minds, the most useful; indeed, it led directly to the charging of a committee with the subject. Much discussed also was Prof. Truman H. Safford's paper on the falling-off in the ratio of attendance at college; as he estimates, but five-eighths of the yearly ratio of increase in population represents the increased attendance. President C. K. Adams's paper on the teaching of pedagogy in colleges and universities completes this excellent bill of fare.

The *Studio* for September gives an interesting specimen of Alfred Stevens's portraiture, "The Lady with a Fan," owned in this country. Mr. Kurtz's method of reproduction, the editor assures us, has gone far in translating the color scheme into black and white.

Paris Illustré for November 3 (International News Co.) is much concerned, pictorially, with the Comédie-Française. Admirably grouped is the scene in which Director Claretie and numerous actors and connoisseurs listen to the younger Dumas's reading of a new play. Fine in another way is the view of the Crush Room of the theatre, garnished with portrait statuary.

The Appalachian Mountain Club professes its readiness to receive donations in money or in real estate, whole mountains (*pro bono publico*) not excepted. We believe that nothing so bestowed will go amiss. The Recording Secretary is Mr. Rosewell B. Lawrence, 23 Court St., Boston.

Following in the path of the Associations for the Advancement of Science in England, France, and the United States, the scientific workers of Australia and thereabouts have banded themselves into a like Association of their own, which had its first general session at Sydney late in August last. A marked degree of success is reported. Lord Carrington made the initial speech, and the President, Mr. H. C. Russell, H.M. astronomer at Sydney, followed with an address. The Association starts in with nearly one thousand members, who contributed more than one hundred papers, which will be largely printed in the Transactions of the Association. The meeting of 1889 will take place at Melbourne, with the eminent botanist, Baron Sir Ferdinand von Müller as president, and a meeting in New Zealand is arranged for 1890.

The Observatory at Dun Echt, near Aberdeen, Scotland, is perhaps the most perfectly equipped private establishment in existence. Its owner, the Earl of Crawford and Balcarres, has offered the fine instruments to his Government, on condition that the administration of the Royal Observatory of Scotland continues in its hands. Prof. C. Piazzi Smyth has lately sent in his resignation as Astronomer-Royal of Scotland, because, he says, the Government would do nothing towards the betterment of the ancient establishment on Calton Hill, Edinburgh, of which he has been so long in charge. This may now be dismantled, or reserved for instruction uses, while a new Royal Observatory appears likely to be built elsewhere. A committee have in hand the matter of selecting a suitable site.

From Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, we receive the two concluding sheets of Richard Kiepert's "Wall-Atlas," or series of wall maps, of Europe, the labor of many years. These figure Russia and Scandinavia physically without lettering, but with a conventional coloring to represent elevations, water-courses, etc. A political series parallels the physical. The authenticity and the satisfactory execution of these maps entitle them to the attention of teachers here as well as abroad.

—In the last number of the *Forum*, Mr. Lester F. Ward, whom Europeans know as the principal American authority on sociological questions, turns the tables on the evolutionists, in regard to the status of women, in the very neatest and cleverest of fashions. He points out to them that they are forgetting their Darwinism in not remembering that the greater size and strength of man, and his corresponding greater weight of brain, far from being an unalterable law of organized life, are the merely accidental result of his immediate ancestors having spent their lives in battles with their rivals, and of the great liking which the females among the higher animals had for the conquerors in war. Far from drawing the conclusion that man is the necessary defender and master of women, if we are under a sacred obligation to preserve the "natural" state of things which prevailed among our progenitors, we ought "to insist that woman should defend both herself and her offspring from hostile influences of all kinds, and also assume the whole duty of supplying her children with food, while the sole function of man should be, as it is in most mammals and birds, to take care of himself and fight off rivals"—a state of society which is distantly approached in a few of the very lowest tribes of savages.

—But even this state of things is not "indicated," as the physicians say, if we take account of the whole of the animal creation. It has been frequently remarked that the laws governing the higher forms of life can be rightly comprehended only by an acquaintance with the lower and more formative types of being. It is only among birds and mammals that this physical superiority of the male prevails: throughout the rest of the animal scale, there is a very different state of things, and among the invertebrates female superiority is well-nigh universal. Among the lowest animals the male, if there is a male, usually leads a brief and precarious existence. He is sometimes devoured by the female when his function has been performed. What is worse, there is a barnacle, described by Darwin, which has, in two valves of her shell, two little pockets in each of which she keeps a little husband. These are the deep and ingrained principles of Nature to which we should return if we wished honestly to take her for our guide. But there is one thing more. If it be true, as Prof. Brooks thinks he has made out, that the female sex represents the principle of heredity, or permanence of type, and the male that of variability, then it is of the utmost importance that whatever high qualities of mind and body and heart modern civilization is capable of producing, those it should, in the first instance, produce in its women. It must be from the steady advance of woman rather than from the uncertain fluctuations of man that progress is to come. "There is no fixed rule by which Nature has intended that one sex should excel the other, any more than there is any fixed point beyond which either cannot further develop. Nature has no intentions, and evolution has no limits." The lesson of science, rightly read, is that the elevation of woman is the indispensable condition to the elevation of the race.

—The ninth volume of Mr. John Bigelow's edition of Franklin's Works (G. P. Putnam's Sons) is one of the most interesting of the series. It opens in 1784, while the ambassador was still at Passy, but with a prospect of being allowed to return, as actually took place in the summer of the following year. The thought of a rest from political labors seems to have tinged his familiar correspondence with even more than his wonted geniality, and any selection of his letters, which we may some time hope to see, would draw largely upon the present volume. There is a noticeable amount of personal and especially boyish reminiscence, which ought to be printed in connection with his autobiography proper. Not a few of the letters to him are also to be remarked, as that from Gov. Benjamin Harrison of Virginia, the ancestor of two Presidents, and one from John Sevier, the head of the new State of Franklin. One from Mme. Helvetius, printed verbatim, is amusingly illiterate. The editing might have been a little more laborious to advantage. Thus, a defective proper name, "Cab nis," on page 311, is conjectured to be "(? Cabenis)," though on page 346 it recurs plainly as Cabanis. Franklin spent the long voyage homeward in recording his observations on the Gulf Stream and on various practical matters relating to the methods and perils of navigation, and discussing smoky chimneys. He returned home only to be plunged deep into public business, to be thrice made President of Pennsylvania, and to participate in the Convention that framed the Federal Constitution. He also served as President of the Pennsylvania Society for Promoting the Abolition of Slavery—a partial atonement for his assent to the pro-slavery compromises of the Constitution.

—We are tempted to quote freely from these pages, still fresh for instruction, but must forbear. Franklin remembered the first ship that brought Irish emigrants to Pennsylvania, yet he could say in 1784 that they and their children now ruled the State. In a letter to B. Vaughan, April 21, 1785, he writes:

"We see much in parliamentary proceedings, and in papers and pamphlets, of the injury the concessions to Ireland will do to the *manufacturers* of England, while the *people* of England seem to be forgotten, as if quite out of the question. If the Irish can manufacture cottons, and stuffs, and silks, and linens, and cutlery, and toys, and books, etc., etc., etc., so as to sell them cheaper in England than the *manufacturers* of England sell them, is not this good for the *people* of England who are not manufacturers? And will not even the manufacturers themselves share the benefit?—since if cottons are cheaper, all the other manufacturers who wear cottons will save in that article; and so of the rest. If books can be had much cheaper from Ireland, . . . is not this an advantage, not to English booksellers, indeed, but to English readers and to learning?"

To the Abbé Morellet, April 22, 1787, excusing the war tariff of that date:

"I am of the same opinion with you respecting the freedom of commerce, especially in countries where direct taxes are practicable. This will be our case in time, when our wide-extended country fills up with inhabitants. . . . Nothing can be better expressed than your sentiments are on this point, where you

prefer liberty of trading, cultivating, manufacturing, etc., even to civil liberty, this being affected but rarely, the other every hour. Our debt occasioned by the war being very heavy," etc.

On this the Abbé comments:

"You impose duties that you may raise money; this is plain. But the author of your pamphlet levies imposts to secure to America her navigation and a balance of trade in her favor. He already follows in the steps of European Governments, who have disguised all the tyranny they have exercised over commerce under these false pretences; and I confess I should be very sorry to see you pursuing the same crooked channels."

—Volume xlii of the second section of Ersch and Gruber's 'Encyklopaedie' extends from "Landstände" to "Lehrte." The opening article, covering nine and a half pages of the size of the *Nation*, treats of the Teutonic estates of the realm which flourished from the fourteenth to the eighteenth century, and which are not to be confounded with the popular assemblies that preceded with them, or with the Diets that followed them. They are distinguished from the former in that they did not stand for the rights of the nation or state as a whole, but contended for the privileges of the classes of which they were composed, and, in most cases, developed into three estates, viz.: first, prelates and nobles; secondly, the knighthood; and, thirdly, the cities. From the later Diets or Parliaments they differed in that their members were not representatives, but each one sat by virtue of being a member of one of the estates. The volume is rich in interesting biographical notices. Perhaps the longest article is one of ten pages on John Law of Lauriston. Among titles that possess the attraction of "actuality" may be mentioned Ferdinand Lassalle (not found in Appletons' 'American Cyclopædia') and Eduard Lasker, each of whom gets four and a half pages. Hubert Languet, also missing in the 'American Cyclopædia,' gets six and a half pages. French biography is particularly well represented. Eleven members of the Larochefoucauld family are treated in as many pages, and six members of the Larochejacquelein family in seven pages. Lanfrey, the historian of Napoleon I., has four pages, and Jean Denis Lanjuinais, who is not even mentioned in the 'Britannica,' has five. Other French names are Lannes (Duke of Montebello), La Place, Latude, Lavoisier, Latour d'Auvergne, etc. The battle of Langensalza, June 27, 1866, is described in three pages. The Duchy of Lauenburg requires six.

—A valuable feature of this work is the fulness of the bibliographical references and the copious citation of authorities. Mr. Leslie Stephen pursues a similar course in his 'Dictionary of National Biography'; indeed, no work of reference can make any pretensions to rank as a literary production if it habitually conceals the sources of its information. With all its wealth of learning, however, the present work is not free from errors and omissions, most noticeable in regard to English and American topics. There is no mention of Langland, the supposed author of the 'Vision of Piers Plowman,' or of François de La Noue, or of La Pérouse, the navigator, or of La Salle, the explorer, or of Nathaniel Lee, the dramatist, or of John Ledyard, the American traveller, or of the city of Leavenworth, although Leadville is given, with the statement (important, if true) that in 1880 that enterprising town had 240 miles of telephone connection. In an article on Mme. de Laroche, the grandmother of Bettina Brentano, one of the works referred to is "Crabb: 'Robinson's Diary.'"

—Krummacher, whose researches into Carlyle's language and style we have already noted more than once, brings them to a (provisional?) conclusion in a recent issue of the *Englische Studien*, xii, 38-59. Provisional, we venture to insinuate, because we hope that Krummacher will reprint his results in book form, and, in so doing, revise and extend them. The present instalment deals with syntactic peculiarities and figurative expressions. The curious use of tense in the conditioning clause, mentioned page 40, *e. g.*, "of which, *were* the crisis come, we will give some account," needs fuller illustration and analysis than it here gets. "Historical shot-rubbish," cited page 44, is not fairly rendered by *schlecht verarbeitetes Material*. The allusion sought for on page 53 in "flattering unction to his soul" is readily found in "Hamlet"; that in "not witty, but the cause of wit," in "King Henry IV.," Part II. Carlyle's Trismegistus, page 54, may be directly classical (if Lactantius can pass in that category), but we suspect that he is borrowed at second-hand from Milton's "Penseroso," 88. Krummacher's remarks upon Carlyle's style in general, and its non-German character, are admirable. We shall never understand the genesis of it until some patient scholar (Krummacher himself, or one like him) shall study exhaustively the writings of the Edinburgh period, and compare them step by step with those composed at Craigenputtock. The latter are Carlylese, the former are not. The thing is to show exactly when and how the former gave way to the latter.

THE COMTE DE FALLOUX.

Memoirs of the Comte de Falloux. From the French. Edited by C. B. Pitman. London: Chapman & Hall. 1888. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. xii, 484, 497.

THESE memoirs were published in French in the beginning of this year under the title 'Memoirs of a Royalist,' which the English editor discards from his title-page, but retains as an alternating head-line. The English edition is a handsome, sightly book, and the translation is well done, although there is some inconsistency in the treatment of French titles: Count alternates with Comte, but every Duke is called a Duc. In what the "editing" consists is not readily apparent, except that a copious index is furnished.

Count Alfred de Falloux was born at Angers May 7, 1811, of a family notable for its devotion to the royal family of France and for its zeal for the Catholic religion. His father emigrated at the age of fourteen and entered the Talleyrand-Périgord regiment. His mother was the daughter of the Marquise de Soucy, and grand-daughter of the Baronne de Mackau, both of whom had been governesses to the royal children. His childhood was passed among persons accustomed to make sacrifices to their loyalty and in a province which was the peculiar home of the monarchical creed. He received his schooling first in his native town and later at the Collège Bourbon in Paris. His father's fortune had been reduced to modest proportions by the vicissitudes of the Revolution, but the death of a rich cousin in 1822 placed the family in an independent position. Young Falloux was thus enabled to follow his literary inclinations and to indulge a taste for travelling. One of his earliest journeys was in company with Lamartine, and in the course of it he paid his respects to the King and Queen of Sardinia, who were making a temporary stay at Chambéry, and living in patriarchal simplicity. The Revolution of 1830 caused him to return to Paris, animated by resentment against the House of Orleans and all its adherents. He says that at this time nothing would have induced him to enter an Orleanist drawing-room, although he met the Duc d'Orléans and the Duc de Nemours on the neutral ground of the Austrian embassy. The drawing-room war in which he took part reached an acuter stage after the miscarriage of the expedition undertaken by the Duchesse de Berry in 1832, and during her captivity at Blaye the Royalist society resolved to wear mourning and to give no balls, but only *routs*, at which fashionable authors like Eugène Sue, Balzac, and Sainte-Beuve were the lions.

Finding no opportunity to serve his country, M. de Falloux again started out on his travels, passing through Belgium and Holland and up the Rhine as far as Mayence, reaching Prague by way of Frankfort, and visiting the family of King Charles X., who were then receiving hospitality at the Hradschin Palace. The King played whist every evening; he was a bad player and frequently lost his temper, but his partners were used to him and did not mind. It was at this time that Falloux first made the acquaintance of the Comte de Chambord, then in his fourteenth year and known as the Duc de Bordeaux. In London he met Persigny, who already at that time (1835) was devoted to the interests of Prince Louis Bonaparte, and endeavored to enlist Falloux in the same cause. Finding his efforts useless, he said, "Your eyes will be opened. Prince Napoleon will reign, and you will form part of his first ministry." Thirteen years later this prophecy was fulfilled. A second meeting between the two young men took place in Strasbourg in 1836, a few days before Bonaparte's attempt, when Persigny again made an ineffectual effort to bring Falloux over to his side.

On his return to France, Falloux gave himself up to works of charity and literature; he took part in the missionary work of Saint Francis Xavier among the working population of Paris, being told off to expound the Bible to audiences of workingmen, and he wrote Lives of Louis XVI. and Pius V. Under the inspiration of Montalembert and Lacordaire, the energy of the young men of the Legitimist party, finding no vent in politics from 1830 to 1848, was turned into religious channels. At about the same time a similar proselytism was fermenting in Germany under the leadership of Doellinger and Goerres. In 1842 Falloux offered himself as a candidate for deputy and was defeated; but four years later, when for the second time a candidate, he was successful. The party of the Comte de Chambord was then, as always, divided into two sections, at the head of one of which was the Duc des Cars, while the other acknowledged the leadership of M. Berryer, the distinguished barrister. On entering Parliament, Falloux cast in his lot with the latter, and adhered to it for the rest of his life. He gave evidence of aptitude for practical statesmanship by studying and advocating the question of postal reform, which was opposed by M. Guizot. How necessary this reform was, appears from the circumstance that "the delivery of letters was divided into numerous zones. Each zone had a special tariff, which varied from six to thirty-two sous, and involved a complicated reckoning with the postman for each letter. Moreover, a prejudice existed against pre-payment; no one resorted to it except with their tradespeople, and it was extremely impolite to prepay a letter to any one who was unprepared to accept an imputation of poverty." This was in 1848. The question of educational liberty, with which M. de Falloux was a little later so thoroughly identified, also came to the front at

this time; but all such questions were, for the moment, thrust into the background by the startling Revolution of February, 1848.

The Constituent Assembly, elected by universal suffrage, contained many representatives of the most conservative classes of the country, and among them an unexpectedly large number of priests, of whom Père Lacordaire was perhaps the most conspicuous. Men like M. Molé and Montalembert acquired considerable ascendancy in it. M. de Falloux was, at his own request, put upon the Committee of Labor, desiring, as he says, "to place real solicitude for the working classes in opposition to a quackery which is much more anxious to work upon the wounds of society than to relieve or cure them." A sub-committee, composed of Falloux, Victor Considérant, and Beslay, of whom the last-named took part in the Commune of 1871, reported in favor of closing the national workshops. At the same time M. de Falloux presented a draft of measures for ameliorating the condition of the working classes, embracing "an endowment for the societies for mutual help, the improvement of savings banks, the protection of children in factories, draining and sanitary arrangements for populous districts, the demolition of unhealthy dwellings, etc." These measures were in advance of the times; in England Lord Ashley had begun his efforts in behalf of factory operatives in 1833, but it was not till 1878 that he saw the full fruition of his labors. It may be remarked, in passing, that there are points of resemblance in the characters of M. de Falloux and of the seventh Earl of Shaftesbury, as well as in their sympathy with the laboring poor.

The report on the national workshops was the signal for the outbreak in June, which was suppressed by General Cavaignac, who was invested with full executive power, and who dictatorially executed the decree which the Assembly would have voted if the insurrection had not intervened; but the philanthropic proposals which were intended to accompany this measure were indefinitely postponed. The election of Louis Bonaparte to the Presidency in December, 1848, was brought about by the conservative majority in the Assembly, under definite pledges that a parliamentary Ministry should be formed, in which every faction of that majority should be represented. M. de Falloux was selected from among the Legitimist party on account of his liberal sentiments. He at first declined, although urged to accept by M. de Montalembert, M. Molé, and the Duc des Cars, and at last only yielded to the eloquent appeal of the Abbé Dupanloup, afterwards so well known as the Bishop of Orleans. He entered the Cabinet as Minister of Public Instruction and Worship, being the first Catholic Minister France had had in sixty years; and he gives the following account of the beginnings of the new Government:

"The relations between Prince Louis Bonaparte and his Ministry were at first very embarrassed and sometimes rather ludicrous. With the exception of M. Odilon Barrot, the Prince had little previous acquaintance with any of us. One might even add that, outside the small Napoleonic group in the midst of which he habitually lived, he had never been familiar with any one. He had now to become acquainted with the whole of France. Under these circumstances he felt himself exposed to every kind of slight, and his foreign accent, which the *Charivari* was always taking off, added to his embarrassment. It was easy to detect his ignorance of men and things, an ignorance one would never have expected to find in a pretender who had always aspired to govern them. He was well versed in the exact sciences, and knew much that many others did not know; but, on the other hand, he had but very little of that general knowledge which most people have at their fingers' ends. He had scarcely any correct notion of literature or art."

Within a week after taking office, the entire Cabinet tendered their resignations to the President in consequence of an extremely offensive letter he had addressed to one of their number, M. Léon de Malleville, Secretary of the Interior. The trouble was smoothed over by a formal apology written by the President, who was more cautious after this incident, and backed down promptly whenever one of his constitutional advisers seriously opposed any of his pet projects. M. de Falloux at once devoted himself to elaborating the Education Law which is associated with his name, although it was not enacted until after he had left the Ministry, and he succeeded in enlisting in its behalf men of the most opposite views. He was also the most energetic promoter of the Roman expedition. A little later, when there were difficulties in the Cabinet, he was requested by the President to form a new Ministry, but declined the task. He remarks that the President never alluded before him to a Napoleonic ambition or hope, but even one day said to him, "Show me the House of Bourbon reunited, and you will then find me quite ready to take up my hat and stick." In September, 1849, M. de Falloux, by threatening to resign because the President had published a letter to Colonel Ney which he had promised not to publish, compelled the President to eat humble pie by a public retraction. In October, M. de Falloux finally left the Ministry.

The death of Louis Philippe in August, 1850, encouraged the Royalists to hope for a fusion of the two branches of the royal family, but these were dashed by the circular issued from Wiesbaden in the name of the Comte de Chambord, which had the effect of chilling the ardor of most of his adherents. In this circular a committee of five was appointed to take charge of the Pretender's interests, but additions were shortly made to this number, and, among others, M. de Falloux was requested to join. In the meantime the Bonapartist movement assumed more audacity. The Ministry of October, 1849, containing Rouher and Achille Fould, was the first step in the new departure, and was logically followed by the removal of General Changarnier in January, 1851. A new Cabinet, formed in October, 1851, was not only chosen outside of Parliament, but was composed of obscure men without ability. The most important person in it was Saint-Arnaud, who was brought from Algiers and made Minister of War. The 2d of December, being the anniversary of the battle of Austerlitz, was chosen for the execution of the Coup d'État. Among other deeds was the imprisonment of over three hundred deputies at Mont Valérien. M. de Falloux was among the number, and relates several incidents of the occasion. The confinement lasted only three days, after which most of the deputies were liberated, but, as some exceptions were made, the others refused to accept their liberty as a privilege. As they declined to enter the omnibuses that were waiting for them in the yard, the police collared them and made them get in. The omnibuses were driven to the Place Louis XV., and the passengers were told to alight, but refused to do so, unless by force and under restraint as they had entered. The horses were thereupon taken out, and the omnibuses left standing in the street, so that their occupants had to get out and go home.

Although the Coup d'État was sanctioned by six million votes, the Royalist party consoled themselves with the reflection that the Man of December, intoxicated by success, would embark on some mad enterprise that would lead him to destruction, but they did not expect to wait twenty years for their prophecies to come true. The President, however, was more cautious than his opponents gave him credit for. Still, according to M. de Falloux, "he wrote on his desk a decree annexing Belgium after the Napoleonic manner; but the patriotic despair of M. Sauvo, editor of the *Moniteur*, sufficed to soften him and stop it."

The Royalist party continued, as before, to be split into two factions, the impracticables and the moderates. The former, with the approval of the Comte de Chambord, prescribed total abstention from politics, while the latter considered that they had duties to the country as well as to their exiled monarch. This was the view taken by Falloux; but, for personal reasons, partly connected with his health, he took no active part in politics, and withdrew to his estate, where he indulged his taste for rural life and for literature. His cattle took prizes at agricultural shows, although these things were regulated by politics under the Empire, and no one was expected to carry off a prize who was not an adherent of the Emperor. M. Rouher, Minister of Agriculture, in congratulating Falloux on gaining his first *prix d'honneur*, informed him that when the judges learned that the winning ox belonged to him, they thought they had better give the prize to another breeder; so they looked again at another ox which they had liked, and discovered that this was better than the first one, but as it turned out that the second ox also belonged to Falloux they had to award him the prize after all.

In April, 1856, Falloux was elected to the French Academy in the place of Count Molé. One of his supporters was M. Guizot, who, when some one said to him, "Read the 'History of Saint Pius V.,' and see if a Protestant can vote for M. de Falloux," replied, "As I have made up my mind to vote for him, I am not going to read his books," and, adds M. Falloux, he kept his double pledge. He also says that the declared support of Guizot was enough to alienate Thiers, who did not attend the meeting, but did not make an adverse use of his influence. On the day of his reception, the wife and daughter of M. Falloux went to the Palais Mazarin before him, and, in the excitement of the moment, forgot to send the carriage back for him.

"Time running short, I had to take a hackney carriage, and I arrived at the Institute very nervous as to the possible consequence of a delay very unlike the excessive punctuality for which I am habitually reproached. I hurried up the stairs, but on reaching the top step I perceived that I had left my speech in the carriage. I ran down the stairs quicker than I had mounted them, looking for the vehicle. It was gone, and there I was, on the pavement of the quay, in the academician's costume—a coat embroidered with green palm-leaves, a cocked-hat, and a sword—racing through the crowd in pursuit of my cab, which I finally overtook with great difficulty. My speech was lying quietly on the seat, little dreaming of the anguish it had caused me. I snatched it up, and hurried back breathlessly to join my colleagues just as the sitting was being formally opened. I knew what sorrow my wife and daughter would feel at their forgetfulness, and I kept the secret."

In 1863 and 1869 M. de Falloux was persuaded to be a candidate for the Assembly, but was defeated on both occasions. After the fall of the Empire, the Royalists again had high hopes of a restoration through the instrumentality of M. Thiers, but were disappointed, partly through the personal ambition of Thiers to remain President, and partly though the blindness and obstinacy of the Pretender, who stunned his best friends by his "white flag" manifesto of July 5, 1871. He dealt them a

similar and final blow by his Salzburg manifesto of October 27, 1873, when the Government of Marshal McMahon seemed really to promise a return of the monarchy, and a reconciliation had at last been effected with the House of Orleans. The Comte de Chambord discovered too late how great a mistake he had made, and, in order to undo the mischief, came to France incognito, went secretly to Versailles, and asked for a personal interview with Marshal McMahon. "The Marshal replied that if any danger threatened M. le Comte de Chambord he was ready to defend him at the peril of his life, but that his duty towards the Assembly and his Ministry forbade his loyalty to accept the secret interview which was demanded; and it did not take place."

We have left ourselves no room to quote any of the striking passages in which M. de Falloux describes the characteristics of the many prominent statesmen with whom he was brought into frequent and intimate contact. He is evidently animated by a sincere desire to be strictly impartial, even in speaking of his opnents. Perhaps the only person whom he mentions with any bitterness is M. Louis Veuillot, the truculent editor of *L'Univers* and *Le Monde*. Of Napoleon III. he gives a more favorable account than would have been expected. Of the genius of M. Thiers he was a warm admirer, even while at odds with his politics; of his oratory he says that "no one, perhaps, since Voltaire, has spoken the French language with as much finesse and clearness as he did." Others whom he sketches are Guizot, Berryer, Montalembert, Lacordaire, Lamartine, Cavaignac, Persigny, Odilon Barrot, Dupanloup, Lamoricière, etc., etc. Moreover, although a serious-minded man, his book does not lack the epigrammatic flavor that one naturally looks for in French memoirs.

The Book of Noodles. By W. A. Clouston. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1888.

Wit and Humor: Their Use and Abuse. By William Mathews, LL.D. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. 1888.

No one who confines his studies of humor to the jests of our forefathers will feel disposed to question Hobbe's dictum, that the cause of laughter is a "sudden glory" in ourselves at discovering some inferiority in others. The point of these jests is always the witlessness of their subjects, and it must be said that such point as they had has become somewhat blunted by the advance of civilization. We are disposed to laugh rather at the simplicity of those who could be amused at such imbecilities than at the jests themselves, and we are perhaps more likely to be overcome with pity or contempt than with laughter. There was evidently a childish period in the development of the sense of humor, and the mirth of our ancestors is often as mysterious to us as is the mirth of our children.

On this account we do not find Mr. Clouston's dainty little book very exhilarating; but it is a scholarly production. He does not attempt to trace the stories of simpletons to their original sources, but he points out the resemblances between their forms as they are found in different countries. The noodle-stories of Europe have substantially the same incidents as those found in the Buddhist and Indian books, and the tales of Iceland and Norway are repeated in Southern Italy and in the western Highlands. The 'Tales of the Men of Gotham,' an ancient chap-book, forms a convenient basis of operations for Mr. Clouston, and the noodles and boobies of numberless other lands, from Ireland to Japan, are called in to testify to the uniformity of human folly and to the meagre imagination of early humorists.

Simpletons everywhere have taken the moon reflected in water for a green cheese, and have vainly tried to rake it out—when some blundering beast has not drunk it up, with disastrous results to himself. They have everywhere tried to bottle sunshine, to raise crops of cooked food, to see how they look when they are asleep, to drown eels, and to fence in birds. The story of the Irishman who let go his hold upon the bridge in order to spit on his hands, is told even yet; but the same thing was written in Sanskrit, ages ago, and simpletons then as now sat upon branches and cut them off between themselves and the tree. A very common basis of these tales is the literalness with which stupid people follow directions, as in the case of the fool who is told to cast sheeps'-eyes at the maidens. Many of them turn upon confusions of personal identity, there having been many predecessors of the Irishman who accounted for his stupidity by his having been changed at birth. The Irish humor, indeed, is generally of a higher order than that of other peoples, and there is nothing to prevent men of all times from laughing at the story of the Irishman who was riding an ass, when the beast, in kicking at flies, got one of its hind feet into the stirrup, and the rider dismounted, exclaiming, "Faith, if you're going to get up, it's time I was getting down."

Mr. Mathews's book is of a very different character from Mr. Clouston's. The specimens of wit and humor with which it is filled are of modern origin and of modern style, while the object of the author seems to be didactic. We will not turn his quotations against him, and cite Jean Paul on the Germans—"They rig out an epigram with a preface, and a madrigal with a table of contents"—but he has really made so good a collection of *jeux d'esprit* that we fear that most readers will pay little attention to his comments. He discusses the theories of wit and humor, epigrams, puns, parody, and repartee, with many apt illustrations and with appropriate cheerfulness. His observations are generally judicious, and he introduces his stories with a good deal of cleverness. It can hardly be said that he contributes much of his own to our inheritance of witticisms, but lovers of good things will be grateful to him for the result of his pleasant labors; they will, perhaps, find his book less cloying than it would have been had he made it a mere compilation. The wit is more digestible for an admixture of grave matter.

The Law of Equivalents in its Relation to Political and Social Ethics. By Edward Payson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888. 8vo, pp. 306.

THE Law of Equivalents is a new and fanciful name for the principle of the uniformity of nature, or for the statement that every event must have a cause. It is a curiosity of literature to come upon a book which does not belong to the domain of abstract logic, and which is yet devoted, with a great deal of energy and fire, to proving that events are preceded by their causes. No serious-minded critic could take exception to the soundness of this doctrine; and if there are people who have not yet been convinced of its truth, they will doubtless find a great deal to interest and instruct them in Mr. Payson's pages. It is plain that there is no subject under heaven which might not be used to enforce and illustrate this general thesis, and we are therefore prepared to find that there are few subjects under heaven which our author has not touched upon. All his own views in regard to society and politics are easily defended by saying that the means which he recommends for attaining to virtue and happiness are equivalents, and by denying that sacred name to the means recommended by his opponents. When hard pushed, he even goes so far as to say that those who oppose him reject the Law of Equivalents itself. Of Carlyle he says: "The Scotchman evidently does not believe in the Law of Equivalents." And again: "I suspect Mr. Macaulay did believe in the law." The value of his own views in regard to questions of any intricacy may be gathered from this specimen of his political economy:

"Society depends upon and flourishes by the luxurious and extravagant, and even vicious, habits and indulgences of its members. . . . By far the greater part of the revenues of the three most civilized nations now living are drawn from tobacco and spirituous liquors. . . . So, too, the more innocent luxuries of life for the gratification of appetite and costly apparel . . . furnish employment for myriads of idle hands, and assist in the distribution of that wealth which ever tends to great centres."

This, our author says, is trite enough, but he neglects to say that it is untrue.

After noting (p. 241) the regard in which the author holds superstition even, in preference to a cheerless no-faith, one is not surprised to find that he has a great distaste for woman suffrage, and that he considers all its advocates to be very poor creatures. A large part of the book is taken up with proving that women are so pure and good that it is not fitting for them to take a part in the government of their country. He believes that woman is an interpreter to man of vast stores of wisdom which, but for her, would forever remain undisclosed; that there is no substitute for woman's instinct; that instinct is better than the highest reason in that it never misleads its followers. What, then, will he say to the fact that the Woman's Christian Temperance Union of Maryland, a very saintly and a very feminine body of women, has lately declared itself to be in favor of woman suffrage? There seems to be nothing for him to do but to yield to the clear instincts of these admirable women.

Orient and Occident: A Journey East from Lahore to Liverpool. By Maj.-Gen. R. C. W. R. Mitford. With illustrations. London: W. H. Allen & Co. 1888. Map. Pp. iv, 359. 8vo.

GEN. MITFORD chose to return to England from India by the way of Japan and the United States, instead of the Suez Canal, and accordingly feels qualified to write a book. He saw nothing which had not been described equally well hundreds of times before, and the only value his book has is that it gives, in a readable way, the impressions which certain parts of two rapidly changing countries made on a traveller in the year 1886. The reader will be disappointed if he expects to find in it the intelligent and profitable criticism of a keen and well-informed observer, especially where our own country is concerned. The author's irrepressible insular prejudices give a spice, not of novelty, but of personality to his account. In Japan he is struck with the preponderance of German influence. Many of the Yokohama shops "had their Japanese signs translated into German only, while in all notices which appeared in foreign languages, German held the first place. Next in frequency, and not far behind, came Russian. English and French followed after a long interval," and Portuguese brought up the rear. He also notes that which distinguishes this part of Japan from every

other country, the absence of pastures, and consequently of cattle and flocks. "Milk, butter, cheese, and mutton are unknown, except as importations—the first three in a condensed and tinned shape from Europe, the last from the Korea." An attempt was being made to start a dairy and a "mutton-club," which it was feared would fail from want of pasture. "Not only is every available scrap of land near the town under cultivation, but the indigenous grasses are quite unfit for sheep pasture." This is not true, however (as the author seems to think), of other districts, where cattle and goats are raised in considerable numbers. Gen. Mitford's experiences in the United States were of the ordinary character, and do not call for especial notice, unless we except this remark, that in his opinion the best shops in New York are "about on a par with those of Brighton or Scarborough." A delicious illustration of the manner in which the average Englishman manages to take from an American story all its characteristic humor, is given in the author's attempt to tell what the New York Alderman said on the proposition to put a gondola in Central Park. The worthy city father's terse "Why not put in two and let 'em breed?" becomes, in Gen. Mitford's version, "A pair of gondōlas should be got till we see how the climate of our great country suits them." Of the illustrations, which are "from sketches by the author," we can only say that his style and skill are much better suited to portray Bunker Hill Monument than the Yosemite or Niagara.

Power and Liberty. By Count Leo Tolstoi. Translated from the French by Huntington Smith. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., 13 Astor Place.

THIS work of Count Tolstoi's, we are informed by the translator, has never appeared in Russia. It is difficult to imagine why it should not. A more harmless book it would be difficult to conceive of, or one more remote from any popular interest or revolutionary tendency. It is only a more abstract and impersonal rendering of the same ideas that appeared in the author's 'Napoleon and the Russian Campaign,' in which the pendulum of speculation swung to the furthest possible point opposed to Carlyle's great-man theory of history. Our criticisms upon that book will make any criticism upon this superfluous for readers who have the first in mind. As the contention there was that Napoleon had nothing to do with the Russian campaign, so it is here that the great man in general is a figment of historical imagination. So radical is the Count that, between Buckle, who has been considered heretofore as the grand opponent of the great-man theory, and Gibbon, he has nothing to choose. Buckle turns out to be another "great man" theorist, only his great men are orators, men of science, philosophers, and poets, where Gibbon's are monarchs, generals, and statesmen. Equally objectionable to Count Tolstoi is the theory that the real power in history is the popular will, and that this expresses itself in great men. He cannot make out the connection between the popular will and its supposed exponents. Some of his pages on the contradictions of historians are bright enough, but they are for the most part based on travesties of actual histories.

In the discussion of free will and necessity, it is not unlikely that the reader is embarrassed by the transmission of the author's thought through a foreign language. There is much that is obscure, and some things that are plainly contradictory. The subjective aspect of all actions is liberty, the objective aspect is necessity. The idea that actions are subject exclusively to the law of necessity is, we are assured, as untenable as the idea that man's acts are absolutely free. But liberty is for the metaphysician, necessity for the historian. "In history, what we know we call necessity; what we do not know, we conceal under the name of liberty. In history, liberty is what we do not know about the life of humanity." History, following the example of the other sciences, must give up the search for causes, and seek only for laws. Just as astronomy found it difficult to give up its belief in the immobility of the earth, so history finds it difficult to give up the idea of personal independence, and to acknowledge that man is subject to the laws of time, space, causality. But as the astronomer was landed in an absurdity by the earth's immobility, so is the historian by his idea of independence; each must give up an apparent reality for something imperceptible which enables them to establish laws. This is the conclusion of the whole matter.

The book is written in a series of disjointed propositions, whose perpetual *staccato* is extremely disagreeable and almost paralyzing to the mind. As a plea for a broader treatment of history than we have generally had of late, the book may have some value; it would have much more if it were not so negative. It finds fault with all other methods: it gives us no example of its own. When Count Tolstoi has written a history according to the canons here laid down, it will be interesting to compare it with Gibbon and Freeman and Buckle, and some others, and see which we prefer. Our impression is that Count Tolstoi's will seem very thin and cold and bloodless in the comparison.

The translator of 'Power and Liberty' finds in it, as in 'Napoleon and the Russian Campaign,' the "ground-swell of humanity and the aspiration for freedom." There is more charity than truth in this. The majority will find in it little more than cold and windy speculation, and a new reason for wishing that Count Tolstoi would return to novel-writing at no distant day, not merely that he may give us greater pleasure, but also that he may do us greater good.

Incidents in the History of the Honourable Artillery Company. Being an Abridged Version of Major Raike's History of the Company from its Incorporation in 1537 to the Present Time (1887), and including also a Brief History of the American Branch of the Regiment, Founded in 1638, and known as the Ancient and Honourable Company of Boston, Mass., U. S. A. By Captain Woolmer-Williams. London: Richard Bentley & Son. 1888. Pp. 203.

CONSIDERING that the Artillery Company of London and its Boston offshoot have never been in action officially, and that the history by Major Raikes had covered all the interesting matters of this civic body occurring prior to 1878, it will be sufficient to say that the interest in the above-cited pretty volume is confined to its American portion. Various civilities have passed between the London and Boston bodies. In 1887 the commander of the Boston company, Colonel Henry Walker, with several other members, attended by invitation the 350th anniversary at London of the formation of the corps. In return, in May, 1888, Captain Woolmer-Williams and some associates formed a prominent feature in the interesting ceremonies at Boston, attending the 250th anniversary of the establishment of the American branch.

Although, as we have said, neither body as such has any military record, they have not been composed of "carpet-knights." In Boston the Artillery Company was founded as a school for officers, and, for most of its term of existence, membership was confined to them. Of course, also, the members for the first two hundred years consisted of men who had taken part in the unceasing frontier wars. Since the great Rebellion, many veterans have figured on its rolls; and, in fact, the roll of services of its various members throughout would compare favorably with that of many regiments of regular troops in England. The present book is a very satisfactory testimony to the cordial relations existing between the two bodies. Its illustrations are interesting and appropriate, and the historical sketch contains enough to satisfy the ordinary reader.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alden, Mrs. G. R. Pansies for Thoughts. Compiled by Grace Livingston. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 75 cents.
Arnold, Sir E. With Sa'di in the Garden; or, the Book of Love. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Bates, J. L. Alfred Kelley: His Life and Work. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.
Eaton, Frances. A Queer Little Princess and her Friends. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Evans, Dr. G. A. Handbook of Historical and Geographical Phthisiology. With special reference to the Distribution of Consumption in the United States. D. Appleton & Co. $2.
Fairfield, Abbie H. Flowers and Fruit from the Writings of Harriet Beecher Stowe. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Fothergill, Jessie. From Moon Isles. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Frank Leslie's Christmas Book. 1888. Mrs. Frank Leslie.
Garnett, R. The Twilight of the Gods, and Other Tales. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Gautier—Féval—Sardou. Jettatura. A Noble Sacrifice. The Black Pearl. Brentano's. 50 cents.
Greely, Gen. A. W. American Weather: A Popular Exposition of the Phenomena of the Weather, including Chapters on Hot and Cold Waves, Blizzards, Hail-Storms, and Tornadoes. Illustrated. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.50.
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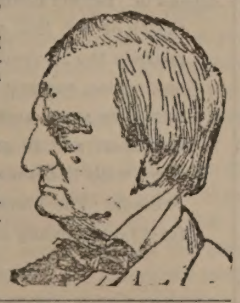

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The Week.

THE talk of some of the Democratic organs, when their tongues were loosened after the election, shows how much President Cleveland, with all his faults, as long as he was supposed to be a power, did to keep down the baser element in his party and raise the party aims. One of the most ruffianly of them, which pretended to support him during the canvass, no sooner was assured of his defeat than it poured on him a flood of blackguard personalities which would have disgraced a Sixth Ward pothouse. Others began to ridicule his attempts to reform the civil service or the tariff, and to abuse the Mugwumps for supporting him in his attempts to give the party a creed, or indeed furnish it with a reason for existing — something which before Cleveland's day it was a little difficult to discover. Hill they admire as an ideal politician, and towards him they have the kind of tenderness which mothers have for cripples and idiots. They love him for his defects and his vices.

There are two little amusements in which the more childish orators and editors of the victorious party are now apt to indulge in after a Presidential election. One is abuse of the Mugwumps, and announcements that they will be heard of no more ; the other is the "presentation of names" for "Cabinet positions." The first is simply silly, but the last has a touch of pathos about it which makes one unwilling to laugh at it. Nearly every country town has a man of some local note—a lawyer, or judge, or business man who dabbles in politics, or an editor or professor with some reputation for scholarship or for habits of reading or reflection—who has for some reason failed, to the great surprise of his fellow-townsmen, to make his name known outside the district, and to whom political managers pay little or no deference. He is nearly always, too, a modest man, who does not blow his own trumpet, so that the guardianship of his fame is left wholly to his immediate neighbors. Occasions for paying tributes to his worth are, of course, rare ; and when his party wins the Presidency, the presentation of his name to the President-elect and to the public for a "Cabinet position" becomes a sort of sacred duty. It is discharged sometimes simply by an article or letter in the local paper, showing what a master stroke of policy it would be to put our distinguished fellow-townsman at the head of the State Department or the Treasury; more rarely by the despatch of a delegation to see the new President in person, and "urge his claims." Probably nobody who takes part in this touching ceremony has the smallest expectation of seeing the enterprise succeed. Everybody knows that the President is, and ought to be, absolute master of the situation, and makes his own selections for the Cabinet. But for two or three months there is, for this particular purpose, a sort of poetic suspension of the Constitution, and the business of making up a Cabinet is transferred to the region of romance ; the horns of Elfland blow, and there is a grand parade of modest merit, and we all see for once what Cabinets would be in an ideal State, where talent and virtue alone obtained "recognition."

That the cause of civil-service reform in the Federal service has little to fear and much to hope from General Harrison, might fairly be inferred from the news from Indianapolis touching the pressure of the office - seekers, already begun, even if his character and promises gave no guarantee on the subject. He will be compelled, for self - protection, if for no other reason, to enforce the letter of the law with regard to the classified service, and apply it, in spirit at least, to the unclassified. The eagerness for places displayed by the victors is already so great that the Republican organs are calling on them for the exercise of patience and self - restraint. When their appetite is so sharp after four years' exclusion, we may guess what it would be after twenty - five years' exclusion, such as the poor Democrats had suffered in 1884. We suspect that, by the 1st of April next, both President Cleveland and his party will stand higher in Gen. Harrison's estimation then they do now. Good Republicans who found fault with them for not living up to their professions about patronage, did not know what it was to deal with 200,000 or 300,000 ravenous office-seekers, and no Republican President since Lincoln has had any experience of it. As the country grows in wealth and population, these predatory hordes increase in number and violence, and any President who means to retain a shred of conscience or self-respect must bar the doors against them.

Wherever a test is made for traces of the "cyclone of fear" among wage-workers, they are not to be found. No matter whether the area of whole States be chosen, like New Jersey and Connecticut, or separate portions of large or small towns, the result is the same: the workingmen were not frightened and the employers were. A private letter from Piqua, Ohio, says: "The free-trade scare did not lose us votes in the 'laborers' wards,' but did somewhat in the business and residence portions. At least 1,000 of our population, which is 10,000, are employed in shops, and their employers did work hard—especially the owners of the linseed-oil mills, of which there are four in the city—to influence them." When the farmers shall get as wide awake as the operatives are, the shares in the Trust will lose more than the considerable advance which they have made since the result of the election was known. On the other hand, equally persistent are the evidences of unusual corruption of voters, especially in the rural districts. We have note of one little New York town where $350 was spent, and forty votes were bought, the greater number of which belonged naturally to the Democratic party. It was all very open: one of the buyers showed a list of twenty-one votes which he purchased on election day. The same thing was done in the two neighboring towns; in one of them—a farming town—sixty votes were known to be bought, and the town, which is generally "doubtful," gave Gen. Harrison 130 majority. Our advices show that this state of facts existed generally throughout the central portion of this State.

It is useless to deny or evade the fact that the vote has shown that the farmers, on whom the tariff-reformers relied with some confidence, and from whom the Republicans expected but little, are at present either opposed to or indifferent to changes in the tariff, and that no serious change can be made until they are won over. Winning them over is a much more difficult matter than the winning over of the "wage-workers." Of all classes of civilized men, the farmer has from the earliest ages been hardest to persuade. His mind, like the mind of every man who lives in the country, is apt to get stiffened by want of contact with his fellows, by hard work, often solitary work, in the open air, by inability to find much time or wakefulness for reading, and by the monotony of his calling, all the phenomena of which recur with almost unbroken regularity. There is no class on which habit lies more heavily, to which the old ways seem safer, to which novelties, including new ideas, seem so suspicious, and which is so loath to hear more than one side of a debatable question. These difficulties might be overcome, however, by tact and persistence. The farmer is hard to persuade, but he is not unpersuadable. All farmers are not like the English farmer who, during the Anti-Corn Law agitation, "thanked God he was not open to conviction."

But there is, in addition to these difficulties, the very great one that the American farmers cannot be reached easily with speeches or documents. To get up a meeting of operatives or mechanics in a manufacturing centre is an easy matter ; they are all on the spot, and eager to gather and listen in the evening to any one who has anything to say to them. Farmers live far apart, and have to travel miles over bad roads to attend meetings. The evening, when they are tired and reluctant to leave home or use their horses, is their only leisure time. Moreover, they are not eager readers of more than one newspaper, which, in this State, among Republican farmers, is apt to be the *Tribune*, which most of them suppose to be the same kind of paper as when Horace Greeley edited it. They take its humbug and its cant with the same guileless

simplicity with which they took Greeley's fervor and enthusiasm, and swallow without suspicion a thousand bits of imposture which a dweller in cities detects at a glance. To describe the situation fully, we must add that it is among the farmers mainly that the passions of the war and suspicions of the South still linger, and that the cause of reform was therefore weighted among them by the fact that the Mills bill was framed by and found its ablest defenders among Southerners. It had, therefore, in the rural districts to contend, not only with the farmer's ordinary fear of change, but his fear of change proffered by hands which he cannot help still considering hostile. These are assuredly not insuperable difficulties, but they cannot be attacked too soon. The task of reformers during the coming winter should be to win over the rural districts by appropriate missionary work. If the farmer will not come to the missionary, the missionary must seek him out during his least busy season, and if he will not buy tariff literature, see that he finds plenty of it to his hand for nothing.

The Young Men's Democratic Club of Massachusetts has published the report of its treasurer of the receipts and expenditures of the club during the recent campaign. The receipts consisted of three items: $1,820 from entrance fees and assessments of 364 members, $8,501 from contributions of 131 persons, and $181.38 from sale of documents outside the State and to the Tariff Reform League, and from other sources. The expenditures are given under thirty different heads, the largest single item being $2,173.12 for printing 1,403,500 documents, and specifications are given as to the cost of distributing those documents; while other items cover the expenses of headquarters, the cost of printing Russell and Corcoran "stickers" for distribution by the State Committee, etc.; only $49.76 being left for the final entry of "other miscellaneous expenses."

Such a report as this is now an anomaly, but we live in hope of seeing the day when it will be, not only common, but also inevitable; when the law will require an itemized statement under oath by the treasurer of every campaign committee of its receipts and expenditures. Contrast the record of the Young Men's Democratic Club of Massachusetts with the record, or rather the lack of record, of the National Committees of the two great parties. The campaign was no sooner ended than it was announced that the Republican managers had made a bonfire of all the written matter which had accumulated in their headquarters, care being taken to see that no scrap of paper escaped the flames. Nobody wonders at this, considering that the Chairman of the Committee was a man whom the leading organ of his own party only a few years ago charged with being guilty of the most insolent defiance of public sentiment seen since Tweed's day, and the Treasurer a man who wrote a letter giving instructions, which were followed, how to carry Indiana for his party by buying "floaters."

Quay and Dudley are apparently going to set up a permanent bureau of corruption in Washington. This, at least, is the inference we draw from the announcement, which we find copied into the *Tribune*, that they are to keep the National Committee in constant session, and that Quay is going to "hold what he has won with a mailed hand." It is further announced that he is already beginning to distribute the spoils, and that he has an agreement with Gen. Harrison that he (Quay) is to be allowed to treat the election as an old-fashioned spoils victory, and that he and his camp-fellows are to be allowed to "loot" the public service at their pleasure. We have no doubt that this is an old-fashioned lie, and that Quay has no understanding with Gen. Harrison (or with anybody but Satan) that he is to be allowed to continue with impunity to practise any species of rascality. As to that precious scamp, Dudley the Treasurer, his letter about "the floaters in blocks of five" is, we believe, at this moment in the hands of the Grand Jury at Indianapolis, with a fair chance of getting him indicted in December; though, of course, "politics" is very powerful even with grand juries in that State. If he can be caught and convicted, a term in the State Prison would do him a world of good, some of which might even reach Quay vicariously.

Although Mr. Miller's canvass for the Governorship on a high-license platform did not result in his own success, it seems clear that it was a chief element in carrying the State of New York for Harrison. The Prohibitionists steadily increased their vote in New York from 1884 until it reached nearly 42,000 last November, and a few months ago they counted upon 50,000 this year at the very least, while the more sanguine predicted a total of 60,000, and some even put their estimates as high as 75,000. Apparently they did not poll 30,000, and it is obvious that the main reason was Mr. Miller's fight against the saloons. The difference between the actual Prohibition vote and the Third-Party vote which was reasonably to have been expected if the Republican candidate for Governor had not made a straightforward fight on the temperance issue, is more than the amount of Harrison's plurality over Cleveland; so that Mr. Miller may fairly claim to have carried New York for Harrison, if not for himself. That this is the correct view, appears the more clearly by comparing the result in New York with that in Connecticut. In the latter State the Republicans nominated a saloon candidate for Governor, and the result was a decided increase in the Prohibition vote. Despite Cleveland's gains over 1884 among the workingmen in the manufacturing cities and towns, he would have lost the State by reason of Harrison's gains among the farmers, except for the fact that the nomination of Bulkeley for Governor by the Republicans drove Republicans into the Prohibition party, as in this State the nomination of Miller for Governor won Prohibitionists back into the Republican party.

Pretty much everything else about the recent election in West Virginia is involved in doubt, but one question which came up was decisively settled. A prohibition amendment to the Constitution was submitted to popular vote, and it was buried under an adverse majority estimated as high as 40,000. The movement to incorporate prohibition in the fundamental law has met one unbroken series of defeats ever since such an amendment was defeated by a narrow margin in Michigan a year ago last spring; Oregon, Texas, Tennessee, and now West Virginia, having decided against it.

The woman-suffrage question has just come before the Legislature of another State, a vote having been taken in the Vermont House on Thursday. The matter was presented in the shape of a bill giving women the right to vote in municipal elections, and the measure was strongly supported before the Committee. The analogy of Kansas was invoked—a State which, like Vermont, is overwhelmingly Republican, and which introduced municipal suffrage for women two years ago. Altogether the advocates of the change were exceedingly hopeful of victory, and apprehended defeat, if at all, only by a narrow majority. The result, however, showed that they had entirely misjudged the temper of the law-makers, the bill being defeated by a vote of 192 to 37, or more than five to one.

The Knights of Labor have been holding what may be their last National General Assembly. Their annual report shows that they have lost in membership during the past year no less than 300,000, and that their expenditures have so far exceeded receipts that the order is bankrupt. Their receipts for the year were $265,500, and their expenditures exceeded this amount by nearly $4,000. Of the expenditure $50,000 was for salaries, and $32,000 for hotel, mileage, and travelling expenses of the officials. Printing, paper, and postage amounted to $41,000 more, and $75,000 were "donated" to various district assemblies. The "Strike Defence Fund" is all gone, and the "Educational Fund" also; there is a heavy mortgage upon the palatial headquarters of the order in Philadelphia; there is a large collection of doubtful investments in a coal mine, a wagon factory, and a lithograph company; and the air is filled with charges of fraud against the officials of the order.

The great Powderly is still talking as glibly as ever, if we may judge from the annual address which he printed in the official organ of the order before starting for the Convention. He says in it:

"I do not blame men for striking: I blame them for making fools of themselves in not knowing how to strike. They always strike at the top leaf on the tree, because it appears plainest to the vision; but they always leave the root undisturbed to grow other and more powerful shoots. On many an occasion I have almost lost patience with prominent men in the labor movement—men who have lived in the past so long that they cannot see that the agencies of this generation are entirely different from those of any other, and from their point of view the strike has the same power as of old. We must teach men what it is that creates a

necessity for a strike. They must be taught how to strike effectively against the system which permits gambling in money, in land, in railways, and in the very food which is withheld from the mouths of millions at the sound of the stockbroker's ticker. Our Lecturers and Educators should be kept in the field, and instructed to keep these questions always before the people."

The meaning of this is somewhat obscure, but, as we make it out, it seems to claim that the true solution of the Labor Problem can only be reached by continuing Powderly's $5,000 salary and sending him abroad as a Lecturer and an Educator.

One of the drollest books of the season, and one which deals liberally with the affairs of the United States, is a London publication entitled 'The Economic Crisis,' by Sir Moreton Frewen. We know what a commercial crisis is and what a financial crisis is, but having never heard of an economic crisis which was neither commercial nor financial, we looked with curiosity into Sir Moreton's pages to find out what it might be. It appears to be, in this case, a shortage of money in Europe, consequent upon the demonetization of silver. The flattering situation of America, where silver has been remonetized, and where "Gresham's law"—which requires that inferior money should, in all cases, drive out the superior—has been proved to be a humbug, is admirably contrasted with the harrowing condition of things in Europe. We must remind Sir Moreton that there is not as yet any inferior money in the United States, and consequently no superior money to be driven out, our law being such that nobody except the Government can get a silver dollar without paying 100 cents in gold value for it. This is only one of a multitude of grotesque errors into which the author of 'The Economic Crisis' has fallen in dealing with the fiscal affairs of this country. He revives, for example, the oft-exploded falsehood that our act of 1873, in which the silver dollar was dropped from the coinage, was passed by stealth and for a secret and dishonest purpose. "The bondholders and other gold owners," he tells us, "meant that specie payments should be resumed through the intermediary of *gold alone*, and, keeping this in view, the full significance of the act of 1873 was once apparent." What "parlous stuff" this is will be understood by all who remember that in 1873, when the act was passed, the silver dollar was worth three cents more than the gold dollar—a fact that was cited in public debate in Congress. From this it follows that if the bondholders had desired to improve their position, they would have done exactly the opposite of what is here charged against them.

By way of offset to the alleged contract for 5,000 tons of iron castings awarded to an English firm by the Denver Cable Railway Company, which so powerfully affected the imaginations of some people in the recent campaign, we read in the *Railroad Gazette* that "the Westinghouse Electric Company of Pittsburgh, Pa., has been awarded the contract for a central station plant in London, England, for 25,000 incandescent lamps." Yet John Bull appears to be no way seriously alarmed by this "invasion." The proper thing for him to do at the next general election would be to display the Union Jack surmounted by the Stars and Stripes, and to ask all sturdy Britons whether they want the Yankees to light the houses of London and take the bread out of the mouths of British workmen. But John has passed the infantile stage of existence, and is satisfied to get the best thing that is to be had for his money.

Mr. Joseph Chamberlain and his bride must be glad that it is over. Getting married in this country, if you are a person of distinction, is much like taking a bath in ice-water. You see the newspapers getting ready for you, and as the happy day approaches the more miserable you become. A shuddering sensation passes up and down your spinal column, and you wonder whether it is true, as your encouraging friends tell you, that after the first plunge you will not feel the chill at all, and that the reaction will be wholesome and exhilarating. Mr. and Mrs. Chamberlain have borne themselves with fortitude in these trying moments, and it must be said that they have suffered much less at the hands of the editors than Mr. and Mrs. Cleveland had to endure on a like occasion.

The London *Spectator's* explanation of Mr. Cleveland's defeat is, that he had disappointed the Mugwumps on account of his "vacillating and injudicious foreign policy," which is an entirely new view. It also flatters itself "that the Irish vote is now powerless for three years," and within that period "reasonable negotiations will be possible." It admits that Irish influence in the Union is an "ugly fact for Americans to consider," but consoles itself with the thought "that it is not nearly so bad as it would be were home rule conceded." There is hardly any unpleasant thing an English Liberal-Unionist now thinks of which would not be aggravated by home rule. He reminds one of the Southern negro who said to a traveller enjoying the moonlight: "You should a' seen dat moon befo' de wah."

Lord Ashbourne's Act, on the extension of which Mr. Gladstone has locked horns with the Ministry, authorizes the Government to lend money at 4½ per cent. to the tenant to enable him to buy his farm when the landlord is willing to sell, at a fair price based on the rental. The Government pays 3 per cent. on this sum, and the difference of one and a-half per cent. is credited to the tenant, and goes towards the reduction of the principal, which it is to extinguish in about forty-nine years. The act has been in operation three years, and according to the Ministry has been a great success. As the first instalment of money voted to carry it out has been exhausted, or nearly so, another £5,000,000 is accordingly asked for. The main objection of the Gladstonians to it is that it pledges the credit of the Government for the benefit of the Irish landlords, who are very eager to sell but could not find purchasers if the Government did not help them; and that it would really make the State the landlord of the whole country, and expose the Government to all the odium attaching to that character if bad times came and the tenants were unwilling to pay, and perhaps make the repudiation of the debt due by the tenants a political issue. Another and a minor one is that the proposal to extend the Act is an attempt to divert attention from the question of arrears, which is depriving a large proportion of the tenants of the benefit of the Land Act of 1881. The Land Commissioners cut down their rents, but have no power to touch the arrears of rents which they have pronounced excessive, and for which tenants are being evicted by the thousand. Like most other things done or attempted for Ireland, however, there is an immense amount of English "politics" in it. The present proposal is more or less due to the Cabinet's fear of going on for another session with nothing in the Irish programme but coercion, and it is more or less discredited by the way in which Mr. Balfour frequently, and Lord Salisbury now and then, describes the bulk of the Irish people, to whom it is proposed to lend the money, as persons bent on robbery. In fact, if one judged from their descriptions, it would be the height of folly to lend money to such a community. Therefore the Liberals say, with some plausibility, "You do not really expect ever to get this money back, but the loan will answer your purpose, as it will deliver your friends, the landlords, from their present plight."

What progress the Government is making in the pacification of Ireland is hard to make out. Mr. Balfour keeps up a very active warfare on the stump with the Gladstonians, and maintains that he is doing splendidly with his Coercion Act, and has all but put an end to boycotting and outrages. To this the Gladstonians reply that outrages have indeed diminished, but the reason is that the Irish people now hope something from the constitutional agitation carried on in their behalf in England, and therefore rely less on outrages; hence, there is no sign of real reconciliation or submission. The discussion between him and them, however, mainly consists of recrimination. When they reproach him with his imprisonments and arrests, and so forth, he says they did the same thing when they were in power; and when they reply that they now see the error of their ways, and are sorry for it, he rejoins that they are liars and hypocrites. He is the liveliest man with his tongue who has ever held the office of Irish Secretary, and accordingly gives great satisfaction to the old Tories, who like to see Gladstone handled without gloves. He has got much satisfaction lately from an address against home rule signed by nearly all the Irish Nonconformist Ministers, which furnishes some set-off to the home-rule tendencies of the English Nonconformists; but the Irish Nonconformists, if Presbyterians are taken out, are hardly worth consideration from the political standpoint.

THE REALLY SERIOUS MATTER.

THE fortnight which has elapsed since the election has been devoted very largely, by those who care anything about politics, to speculation as to the cause of the Democratic defeat. Of course, the conclusions reached on this subject are numerous and varied, and not one of them would probably meet with anything like general acceptance. But with regard to two important phenomena of the contest, there is, we think, an almost general agreement. One is, that the Republican victory did not come from the quarter from which it was generally expected—the operatives and mechanics of the great manufacturing centres: their alarm over the effect of a reduction of the tariff on wages did not influence the result. The other is, that money was used in this election with a profusion never before known on American soil. Some of the estimates place the Republican outlay at $3,000,000, none put it lower than $1,000,000. The former estimate derives much support from the fact that the Committee demanded $400,000 in the last week of the campaign. When this sum was needed to finish up the work, we are warranted in inferring that $2,500,000, at least, was needed to carry it on during the preceding three months.

How much the Democrats used we cannot say. We are not raising this discussion in their interest or for their vindication. But they undoubtedly were able to get very much less than the Republicans, because they had no wealthy class to call on which had, or thought it had, an immense pecuniary interest in the result. The Democrats, perhaps, did as well as they could in the same line, but their best was comparatively feeble; for it must be said, to the credit of the Administration, that assessments were not extorted from the Government officers, and although the President set a very bad example by a large contribution, voluntary offerings were, as usual, small and rare. We are not, therefore, attempting to compare the morality of the two parties. We are simply calling the attention of patriotic Americans to the fact that enormous sums of money, greater than ever before, were at this last election put into the hands of men noted for their unscrupulousness about means, and were used for the purpose, in some way or other, of deciding who should be the next President of the United States. It is no exaggeration to say that the election came nearer than any which has preceded it to being the sale of the Government at public auction to the party able to "put up" most money. Nor is it an exaggeration to say that all the tendencies of the day are in this direction—that in politics, as in morals, the first foe in the field is the belief or disposition to believe that a rich man ought to have his way. It was thought a "big thing" when Jay Gould gave $50,000 to "Johnny" O'Brien in aid of Blaine in 1884. We believe a gift of a similar amount in the late canvass would have been considered a comparative trifle. The world marches on every side towards heavier expenditure. In a village near New York there are seventy-five colored voters who have always hitherto disposed of their votes for two dollars apiece: this year they insisted on five dollars apiece, and, we believe, got it. They felt the buoyancy in the market almost as soon as the canvass opened.

There is nothing particularly new about all this. In the politics of all countries, under a popular government, rich men buy votes and poor men sell them, if the law permits it to be done secretly and with impunity. There is not a single modern State the government of which would not be periodically sold to the highest bidder, as the Roman Empire was occasionally, if there were no legal difficulties in the way of such transactions. In England the traffic in votes, and even in seats in Parliament, was, before the Reform Bill was passed, almost as open as the traffic in cattle; and the practice of purchasing closely divided constituencies, or "doubtful States," as we call them, continued with more or less activity down to the passage of the Parliamentary Elections Act in 1883. It was checked somewhat by the transfer of the trial of contested seats from the Committee of the House of Commons to the judges of the law courts, but it was not finally stopped until all candidates, and all committees or agents acting in their behalf, were compelled to publish a full and sworn account, with vouchers, of their receipts and expenditures. The law prescribes exactly what the legitimate expenses of a canvass are, and provides the voter, not only with the ballot, but with absolute secrecy in casting it.

These precautions are called for, not by anything peculiar in the condition either of England or America: they are called for by human nature itself, as it is known to us in every country, and will continue to be called for in every country which has not deliberately decided to be governed by a plutocracy. Whenever that determination is reached, however, the machinery of elections will be unnecessary. When the legal term of the party in power has expired, all that will be necessary will be to call for sealed proposals for the possession of the Government during the next term, to be opened on a prescribed day, and the Administration to be handed over to the candidate offering most money. This would be moral and decent compared to our present system of hole-and-corner bribery and corruption.

In the meantime, we would warn those who believe in the old-fashioned American plain of carrying elections by persuasion, by lectures, by speeches, by articles, by appeals to the reason, or even to the passions and prejudices of men, through voice and pen; who look back with tenderness to the days when the only great men in politics were orators and statesmen, and find it hard to accept the dispensers of funds as the real heroes of a Presidential canvass, that an evil of this sort is one which grows with wonderful rapidity, and that as it grows it weakens the public sentiment on which, in the last resort, we must rely for its cure. As long as no active measures are taken to check it, the distributers of "soap" will smile more and more at the activity of the distributers of documents.

THE REMEDY FOR VOTE-BUYING.

THE theory that a secret ballot is the surest as well as the simplest remedy for bribery at the polls, is strongly sustained by all the many accounts which have been published concerning the methods by which both political parties bought votes in the recent national election. In every instance, the chief concern of the briber was to keep a close watch upon the man whom he had bribed until his ballot was deposited. Colonel Dudley was most emphatic upon this point in his famous letter: "Divide the floaters into blocks of five, and put a trusted man with necessary funds in charge of these five, and make him responsible that none get away and that all vote our ticket." The limit of five was put because that was the largest number one man could hold under such constant surveillance that no change of ballots could be made without detection. Another Indiana plan which has been described by a county committeeman was even more careful than this: "When we had secured a voter, we took him to the polls and sent him to our worker, who stood at the window. The worker handed the voter a ticket, and *saw him* give it to the judge of election." It was only after this that the money was paid over.

In New York city it has for many years been the custom of the bribers to require the man whose vote has been bought, to walk to the polls with the folded ballots which have been given to him held erect in the air, with the hand about shoulder-high, where they can be seen every moment by the watcher until they are deposited in the boxes. It is not an unusual thing in many of the worst districts of the city to see squads of men, ranging from five to ten in number, marching to the polls with their ballots thus held in view. In all the accounts of bribery which come from the New England States and from the interior and other portions of New York State, there is the same testimony on this point—the briber never allows the bribed voter to be a moment out of his sight after he has received his ballot and has started for the polls. The "bull-fence" device in some parts of Indiana is evidence on the same point. As described by one of its inventors, in the account published in the *Evening Post* of Monday, it "is a curved chute made of a high fence that leads up to the polls on one side and away from them on the other," and its object is to "give our men a chance to change their ballots on the way to the polls and not get caught at it"—that is, one party buys a number of the other party's voters, furnishes them with ballots, takes them to the polls, and starts them into the chute towards the ballot-boxes. "But," says the narrator, "at the moment when they are out of sight in the chute they slip that ballot into their pockets, slip out the ballot of their own party, and hand it to the election officers without any one having seen the change made."

All this furnishes conclusive evidence that if the act of voting were performed in secret no bribed voter could or would be trusted to

carry out his bargain when left to himself, without possibility of detection at the polls. This has been found to be the case in Australia and England, and, in fact, wherever the secret ballot has been put into practice. It is the unanimous testimony of all English authorities that it is the secrecy provision, rather than the rigorous provisions of the law against bribery of all kinds, which has abolished bribery at the polls in Great Britain. Speaking on this point when he was in this country last year, Mr. Joseph Chamberlain said:

"In my opinion there is at the present moment exceedingly little electoral bribery and corruption in the United Kingdom. The elections are singularly pure, and are daily, if it were possible, improving in that respect. Corruption, indeed, is almost an impossibility, owing to the fact that the briber is absolutely dependent upon the bribe-taker's observance of the motto, 'Honor among thieves,' for the briber has no means of ascertaining how the latter votes. This is due to the secrecy in which the ballots are cast, so very different from here, where the voter practically casts his vote in public."

Yet before the English law requiring a secret ballot went into effect, bribery had reached proportions there far in excess of what we have ever witnessed here, even in the late election. The secrecy requirement abolished it completely; for while, under the former system, there had been enormous expenditures of money, and charges of bribery sometimes affecting nearly one hundred seats, in every Parliamentary election, at the first election under the new law the expenditures dropped from $15,000,000 to less than $4,000,000, and there were only two charges of bribery made, and at the second election under it the expenditures fell off still more, and there was not a single charge of corrupt or illegal practice.

Sooner or later we must have in every State a reform in our election laws based upon secrecy in voting as the fundamental principle. It exists now in the Wisconsin law which went into operation in the city of Milwaukee last spring, and has worked with great success there; but it applies nowhere else in the State. It exists also in the new Massachusetts law which will go into effect next January, and will apply to the whole State. Experience has shown that secrecy is as imperative in the rural districts as in the cities, for the growth of bribery at the polls has been quite as alarming in the former as in the latter. There are signs of a greatly increased public sentiment in favor of the reform; and whether it is strong enough to compel the politicians to grant it this year or next, it is certain to become so before many years have passed.

THE SALOON IN POLITICS.

The candidacy of David B. Hill for Governor of New York as the champion of the saloons was so open and flagrant an exhibition of subservience to the liquor interest, and its effect upon the national election was so obvious, that the public is in danger of overlooking some other manifestations of the same influence in politics which are hardly less important. This tendency is strengthened by the fact that Republicans find party advantage in fixing attention upon the discredit which the Democrats of this State brought upon their organization throughout the country by yielding to the demand of the saloons for Gov. Hill's renomination, and thus claiming that the Democratic party is always and everywhere the liquor party.

But the idea that the saloons are Democratic any more than Republican in politics, or that the liquor interest cares anything for politics at all, except as it can make either party serve its ends, is altogether wrong, as has been proved by elections held in other States. We have more than once referred to the fact that, while the Republicans of New York were inveighing against the Democrat, David B. Hill, as the friend of the saloons, the Republicans of Connecticut were trying to elect to the Governorship of that State Morgan G. Bulkeley, who has long been equally notorious among his neighbors as the friend of the saloons. The saloons of Connecticut, without regard to party, were as stoutly opposed to the Democratic candidate for Governor of that State as the saloons of New York were to the Republican candidate for Governor of this State.

Still more striking was the influence of the saloon in the politics of Missouri. This is a State long controlled by the Democrats, and where, according to the theory of New York Republicans, one would expect to find the liquor interest controlling the Government through the Democratic party. On the contrary, Missouri was one of the first States to accept the doctrine of high license, a law of that sort having passed the Legislature several years ago and been maintained against all attempts to weaken it. In the chief city of the State a Democratic Mayor, David R. Francis, has enforced the Sunday Closing Law, and secured St. Louis the quietest Sundays it has ever known. In short, Democracy has given Missouri, and particularly its metropolis, a severer restriction of the liquor evil than Republicanism has brought about in Ohio, and especially in Cincinnati, where a Republican Mayor obstinately refused to enforce the Sunday Law passed by the last Legislature.

With the same impartiality in the matter of parties as was exhibited in New York and Connecticut, the saloons in Missouri waged war upon their enemy. Mr. Francis having been nominated for Governor by the Democrats, the saloons of St. Louis, which are chiefly beer-saloons, threw their whole influence against him, and carried the city for the Republicans by a large majority. The *Republic*, the chief Democratic newspaper, says that "they polled at least 8,000 votes, and polled them as a unit, demonstrating the power of the beer saloon in politics as it has never been demonstrated before until this election, when we have similar evidence of it in the vote for Hill in New York."

The saloon showed equal impartiality in national politics. Mr. Gallus Thomann, the head of the Literary Bureau of the United States Brewers' Association, tells a reporter that "the Republicans were beaten in 1884 because they nominated a man for President from the great prohibition State of Maine, whose record on the prohibition question did not suit the Germans. I know what I am talking about," he added, "for I myself made the investigation of his record. I found that Mr. Blaine, while a drinker himself, had been hypocritical enough to be an ardent advocate of the Maine law in his own State. That lost him the German vote, and cost the Republican party the election." But the Republican managers changed front this year, and so won back the German vote and carried the election. "They found out their mistake," Mr. Thomann went on, "and in 1888 they nominated a man who had no objectionable prohibition record, gave the Prohibitionists the cold shoulder, and adopted a resolution copied after the utterance of the National Liquor-Dealers' Association. The consequence was that the Germans came back to the party and Harrison is elected."

The moral of all this is plain. The saloon is in politics only for the saloon. If in one State it throws its weight for the Democrats, it is not because it loves the Democratic party, but because that party in that State is on its side; and it is equally ready at the same time in another State to cast its vote for the Republican party if the latter party in that State makes the higher bid. In like manner it will oppose the Republican candidate for President in one election if it suspects him of affiliation with prohibition, and support the Republican candidate four years later if convinced that the saloon has nothing to fear from him.

The great advantage which the saloon has in all these controversies is the fact that its favorite, when once nominated by one of the great parties, is sure to be supported by a large percentage of the opponents of the saloon, simply because he is the regular candidate. Most of the Democrats in this State who deplore the power of the drink evil voted for Hill as the Democratic nominee, just as most Republicans of the like mind in Connecticut voted for Bulkeley as the Republican nominee. In other words, so long as the saloon can nominate its man in a close State, it can rely upon a large share of the churches to help elect him.

THE SUPINENESS OF RAILROAD STOCKHOLDERS.

The present state of some of our great railroads in the West is certainly amazing. We hear much said of the timidity of capital, and many bugbears in the shape of organized labor, State interference, and even anarchy, have in recent years been paraded before frightened property-holders; but it appears after all that their foes are of their own household. A really "smart" president or general manager, such as stockholders apparently delight to select, can do more harm to his own railroad, as well as others, than State Legislatures or Knights of Labor are likely to effect, and the success of these men of late has been phenomenal. The stockholders submit to the loss of their property with the apathy of the subjects of an

Asiatic despotism, while their servants exult in irresponsibility, and fight the most desperate financial contests with the pleasant consciousness that, whoever may wince, their withers are unwrung. They are deaf to the startling admonitions of Judge Cooley, to the benevolent suggestions of the Commerce Commission, and to the warnings of experts upon the railroad question, and they are blind to the threatening attitude of the State Legislatures. They are willing to be as lavish with their stockholders' money as Artemus Ward was with the blood of his wife's relatives, and plunge them into a railroad war with as light a heart as M. Ollivier's over the declaration of war in 1870.

We are accustomed to smile at the folly of the Hindus, who, when unable to obtain justice, starve themselves to death upon the doorsteps of their oppressors; but our railroad directors seem to think that this policy is dictated by the profoundest sagacity. Whenever a railroad attempts to do business at a loss, its rivals are excited to the most frantic emulation. They proceed to punish the offender by showing it how much more severely they can injure themselves than any one else can injure them, and they have kept this up until several fine properties have been brought to the brink of ruin. During the intervals when they are not employed in cutting rates, they devote themselves to building parallel roads as a preparation for renewed rate-wars on their completion. Their methods have a curious resemblance to those of the territorial magnates of Europe during the Middle Ages, when the chief business of rulers was to enlarge their possessions regardless of the sufferings of their subjects. To do them justice, it must be said that they have the same excuse, the temptation to seize on a rich province being as great to a railroad man as to a prince; but some regard ought to be paid to the lessons of history.

Speaking broadly, the lesson of European history is that wars of conquest have seldom been very successful. Territory acquired in this way is generally held by an uncertain tenure. It may be held for a long time, as Alsace and Lorraine were held by France; but so long as there are other Powers which feel that it is wrongfully held, there is always danger of retaliation. No considerable Power can placidly behold the advance of another into provinces that are naturally connected with the former—provinces which, if not actually tributary, are at least in the possession of friendly Powers of moderate strength and circumscribed ambition. It was a great mistake for France to extend her control to Tunis. She gained little or nothing, but she incurred the lasting enmity of Italy, and converted a friendly and grateful nation into a dangerous foe. It is by no means impossible that she may eventually lose Nice and Savoy as a punishment for her disregard of those feelings of *quasi*-proprietorship which Italy naturally has in African territory so closely approaching her own. Geographical and racial distinctions cannot be arrogantly overridden. In the acquisition of territory, compromise is almost invariably more profitable to all parties than competition.

Our railroads, it is true, need pay no attention to distinctions of race, but they cannot ignore geography. Every great road regards certain territory as naturally belonging or tributary to it: it is territory which already it fully supplies with transportation, or which it can reach, by extending its branches, with greater facility than other roads. If a rival road undertakes to build in this territory, it is sure to excite retaliation, and it will probably lose more by arousing this competition than it can gain by attempting to annex territory to which there are existing claims. The consequences are frequently disadvantageous to the communities that suppose themselves to be benefited by the competition. Unless the amount of transportation is very large, it can be done at less expense by one road than by two, and in the long run increased expense must fall upon those who use the road. Railroads may be built by foreign capital, but they must always be operated with their own earnings, and the greater the expense of transportation, the higher the charges.

To determine what territory naturally belongs to a certain road is often, of course, a matter of difficulty; but to fight over the question is not the only way of determining it. Men in charge of great trusts ought to be able in most cases to come to some agreement or compromise, and when they cannot, they ought to seek the help of arbitration. What stockholders need is some advisory board to which they can apply when they become convinced that their property is mismanaged. As it is, they are the victims of their tyrannical rulers. They elect them, it is true, but they are incompetent to displace them, or even to criticise them; they have not the necessary knowledge, and they are disunited. They know that their property suffers, but they seldom know just why, and they cannot tell what to do about it. It should be the duty of such a board to inform itself as to the merits of railroad disputes, and, if its advice was not followed, to point out to stockholders the errors of their rulers, thus enabling them, if they chose, to insist upon their correction. It would not be necessary to confer upon this body power to dictate policies or to compel action, and it would be undesirable, even if it were practicable, to have it established by Government. The railroad president who persisted in fighting after a properly constituted board had proposed reasonable terms of peace, would probably soon find that his resignation would be acceptable.

The prohibition of pooling by the Commerce Act is probably unwise, but no one believes that it would really prevent the railroads from maintaining fair rates if they were all managed by honest and reasonable men. The trouble is, that some managers have a very low conception of their powers and responsibilities. Their views as to obtaining business seem to be those of the ordinary commercial traveller, and they have not sufficient breadth of mind to appreciate the advantages of honorable management. They make rates for the public and grant rebates in private; they connive at the cutting of rates by their agents when they have entered into agreements to maintain them; and they have created a dangerous public prejudice against railroads by their duplicity and arrogance. Most men do not demand special privileges and rebates on their own account, but because they are afraid that other people are getting them. Most railroads grant them, not because they prefer to, but because they are afraid that other roads will grant them. The prohibition of pooling makes it harder to remove these suspicions, but it does not necessitate the present reckless competition. The example of the coal companies shows that fairly satisfactory results can be obtained by a tacit understanding that is apparently not obnoxious to the statute.

The settlement of our Eastern railroad wars by the agency of a leading firm of bankers shows that the plan which has been suggested is not an impracticable one. If men of this standing could be induced, by the action of railroad stockholders as a class, to serve as disinterested advisers and peacemakers, doubtless railroad directors as a class would be glad in most cases to appeal to them. Certainly the stockholders in the Western roads have suffered enough, owing to the causes which we have indicated, to lead them to take measures for self-preservation. When a road has been ruined, the bondholders generally unite and appoint a committee to protect their interests. There is no conclusive reason why stockholders should not unite for a like purpose before their roads have been ruined. Unless they can bring themselves to adopt some such means of checking the follies of their trustees, they are likely to suffer quite as severely in the future as in the past.

COMPETITIVE EXAMINATIONS.

THE protest against the abuse of examinations in England, to which we referred last week, touches indirectly on the effect of competitive examinations for admission to the public service; and Prof. Max Müller doubts whether they have not been injurious to the Government service in India, where he was one of the most strenuous advocates of their introduction, and Mr. Frederic Harrison makes the somewhat foolish remark that, under them, "Arthur Wellesley would not have got into the army and Burke would have received low marks." The protestants suggest no substitute for the competitive system, but mention, in a faint-hearted way, that somebody else has suggested a pass examination, to be followed by a term of probation, which, as the *Economist* points out, would result in practice in the restoration of the old system of favoritism under a very thin disguise.

The fact is, that the competitive system in England is what its enemies in this country used to say ours was—an examination in a variety of subjects, with no direct bearing on the work the successful candidates were to do, and which only college graduates could pass. In England these examinations are so severe, and cover so much ground, literary, historical, and scientific, that not only are college graduates as such unable to pass

them, but every college graduate who wants to get into the army or the civil service, in all but the lowest grades, has to be prepared by an elaborate system of cramming, which takes from six months to a year of time, and costs a good deal of money. The "coaches" or crammers who prepare men for the examinations are now a large and influential body, some members of which, who make a reputation by the success of their pupils, earn as large incomes as all but the leading lawyers.

Of course, the influence of this is greatly felt in all the schools and colleges, and under it, naturally enough, the state of things has arisen of which the protestants complain, and in which both teachers and pupils, professors and students, all over the country, have come to look on education as simply preparation for some examination through which they will get a salary and entrance on a career. The more vigorously the candidates get themselves up on subjects, of course the higher the tests have to be; so that for some years back a sort of competition has been going on between the examiners and the crammers very like that which has been going on between the makers of guns and of armor plating. Every time the gun-makers increase the power of the projectile, the shipbuilders have to thicken or harden the plating. So, also, the more thoroughly prepared the crammers make the candidates, the more rigorous the requirements of the examiners become. The remedy would seem to be to cut down greatly the literary and scientific exactions, and give a good deal more weight to character, physical condition, and knowledge bearing directly on the duties to be performed; or, in other words, to assimilate the examinations more nearly to those in use in this country. The notion that there is any choice between competitive examinations and the old system of patronage finds no acceptance anywhere. It may be true that Wellington could not have got into the army under the present system; but who can tell how many Wellingtons were kept out of the army by want of influence or aristocratic connections? Wellingtons did not abound in the British service in Wellington's day. His immediate predecessor in the Peninsula, whom he had great difficulty in superseding, was a wretched dolt.

The weakness of the protestants' position, in so far as their animadversions are directed against the use of examinations as tests of proficiency on the part of teachers and pupils in schools, is that their remedy —in so far as they suggest a remedy—calls for a very large body of teachers of a kind which does not exist, or exists only in very small numbers. In this they remind us a little of the Socialists, all whose plans for reorganizing society always assume the existence of an immense and now unemployed stock of administrative talent, which can be readily called into play. Where this talent is, nobody knows. All employers, all corporations, all governments are hunting for it night and day, and tempting it by high pay and great honor; but they do not get it. So also the enemies of examinations as tests of the teacher's capacity and the pupil's progress seem to assume the existence of an immense body of teaching talent, which will develop the minds and morals of children by mere force of character and example, so that there will be no need to test their work by mechanical processes like inspectorial questioning. We hope there is such a body of teaching talent somewhere, but there are as yet very few signs of its existence. As far as one can see at present, the number of born teachers—that is, of men or women who possess in a marked degree the teaching talent, and are capable of becoming a dominating influence to a roomful of children or youths, and of carrying on their work for years without loss of vigor, freshness, or interest—is exceedingly small. In fact, we should say that such teachers were almost as scarce as great generals or great statesmen. The great bulk of teachers, as the world is now constituted, will and must be people who teach from necessity and not from choice, who find the occupation monotonous and wearing to the nerves, and whose work would infallibly fall off if it were not constantly tested by the simple and, we admit, commonplace process of question and answer.

THE COLONIAL POLICY OF FRANCE.

When the philosophical historian comes to write the definitive account of the passion for colonization which possesses all the leading countries of Europe, he will undoubtedly rank it as one of the incidents of the modern industrial development and competition. Colonies are planted and civilization is engrafted on barbarism in order that the home market may be eased of its glut. That is the main motive, and the subsidiary ones are but grouped about it. In the case of France, the traditional thirst of Frenchmen for *gloire* probably enters into her schemes for extending her colonial possessions next in importance after the commercial reason. Certain it is that since 1870, as formerly after 1815, France has sought in Algeria and China that military glory which was denied her on European battlefields.

The modern colonial policy of France has been subjected to thorough criticism by M. de Lanessan, in a series of articles in the *Revue Scientifique*. He maintains that the experience of a hundred years has established three main rules for the planting of colonies among barbarous peoples. The first rule is to respect native religious practices; the second, to regard native social institutions; the third, to make use of the existing system of local administration as far as possible. All these rules, says M. de Lanessan, are steadily violated by France.

Taking up the last specification first, the French administration of the affairs of Cochin China appears to have been badly directed for the past seven years. For nearly a score of years before 1881, Cochin China escaped a rigorous application of the French administrative system. It was a period of general prosperity. Natural resources were steadily developed, the revenues increased easily even with light taxes, and great public works were entered upon. But in 1881 the country was put under the "régime civil." Essentially the same prefectoral machinery as that of France was introduced; the number of French officials was quadrupled; naturally enough, taxes were doubled. Costly buildings for the public service now absorb the funds before devoted to improving the means of communication and transport. A pronounced dissatisfaction with French rule has sprung up where before there was, at the worst, indifference to it.

"I cannot insist too much," says M. de Lanessan, "upon the mistake we have made in forcing our civil code upon the natives of Cochin China." As it is easy to see, this flies in the face of all native ideas of the family, of inheritance, rights of husband and wife, parents and child, etc. To endeavor to set aside completely and at a stroke conceptions passed on by tradition for thousands of years, seems indeed the height of folly. How the natives regard the French code may be inferred from a recent occurrence in Algeria. It was proposed to the Mussulmans of a certain district that they should become "naturalized." Their leaders deliberated over the question, perceiving the political advantages which would come to them by acquiescing, but finally returned answer that the thing was impossible, that it would involve a complete social revolution, the consequences of which they could not pretend to foresee.

The articles to which we refer lay much stress upon the way in which the French colonial authorities ride rough-shod over the religious prejudices of the natives under their rule. "Everywhere in Anam and Tonkin," says the writer, "I have seen pagodas occupied, often needlessly, by our troops, to the great scandal of the inhabitants; our soldiers looting the most sacred and venerated objects, and, too often, the civil authorities shutting their ears to the just complaints made on this account by the natives. . . . To a considerable degree, the characteristic of our present colonial policy is the offensive tendency of our colonial officials to favor openly and officially the propaganda, often more zealous than prudent, of the missionaries."

In the last sentence a matter is touched upon which is deserving of special notice. It is highly curious and instructive to see how France, while becoming more intensely anticlerical in her domestic policy, poses as the great champion and protector of Catholic missions abroad. In fact, the Association for the Propagation of the Faith is largely a French society; its two councils sit, the one at Lyons, the other at Paris. The diplomatic, often the military, activity of France in China has taken directions which can never be understood until its Catholic coloring, and the reason for it, have been observed. As long ago as 1862 the French Minister of State, M. Billault, declared in the Senate, in regard to the then recent expedition to China: "We went into the far East, and shed the blood of France there, to represent the spirit of re-

ligion, and plant that cross which is the symbol of the Empire and civilization."

The explanation of the matter is this. The Jesuits, at the time of their expulsion from China in 1722, were in possession of considerable lands and houses. These have been eyed longingly ever since, and the power of France has been used to get them back, in part at least. By the Treaty of Nankin, in 1846, it was provided that "all the ancient houses through the provinces which were built in the reign of Kanghi, and have been preserved to the present time, and which, on examination by the proper authorities, are clearly found to have been the bona-fide possessions of the professors of the Roman religion, are to be restored to them, except only those which have been converted into temples or dwelling-houses for the people." Under the terms of this concession, the efforts of the French ambassadors have been vigorously and persistently made in aid of the Catholic missionaries. Indeed, little by little, France took the position of protector, not only of French missionaries, but of the Catholic missionaries in China of all nationalities. In one case, not long after the Franco-German war, a German missionary in China was found appealing to France for protection. Not only so, but finally France put forth the pretence of being the protector of all native Catholics.

But Chinese diplomacy, if slow, can see through a ladder. By a well-considered counter-move it set up the Pope as the head of Roman missions in China, and proposed to leave the religious aspects of the matter entirely with him; meanwhile it required all missionaries needing diplomatic support and protection to use the consuls and ambassadors of their own nation. The result was, according to a recent letter in the *Times*, to make the "French protectorate over the Catholic faith in China a thing of the past. In the strongest possible manner, the Viceroy of Canton has repudiated the right of the French consuls to make representations to him on behalf of native Christians in his province, and his policy has now been adopted and extended by the central Government." France has not yet accepted the situation, and the Pope, owing, it is believed, to French representations, has not yet sent an envoy to China nor received the Chinese ambassador at Rome; but those steps must soon be taken, apparently. In any case, the influence of France in China has been greatly impaired. It would certainly be a good thing, both for her and for China, if all this missionary matter could be taken out of the negotiations between them; it has been a constant source of friction, if not of actual war. It seems certain that Rome will have to try conclusions with China at first hand, the support of France now proving a broken reed, as did that of Portugal before.

SWISS AFFAIRS.

GENEVA, November 2.

THE laurels culled by Germany in instituting a system of obligatory insurance do not seem to allow the Swiss governments to sleep. Few questions attract attention to the same degree, and we are only at the commencement. The *Nation's* readers have from time to time been informed of the progress of this great enterprise, in letters which have been read with interest even here. They know that the old Emperor and Prince Bismarck, in consequence of attempts on the life of the former, and of other threatening symptoms, felt the need of acting against the Socialists; at the same time, however, as an offset to measures of exceptional severity, they resolved to introduce a vast system of insurance which should show their interest in the amelioration of the lot of the working classes. On the 15th of June, 1883, the Reichstag passed the law of insurance against sickness. On the 6th of July, 1884, the law of insurance against accidents was enacted in its turn. The edifice is not yet finished, but it is to be completed by a third branch of insurance—against infirmity and old age—which is at present under consideration and will be presented in due time. At the risk of repeating what is well known, let me say that the expenses connected with the first two branches of insurance are borne entirely by the workmen and their employers, and that the State is to give financial support only in the third branch. According to the last project prepared for presentation to the Reichstag, the imperial treasury is to hand over about twelve million dollars a year for this service.

In our country the Socialists enjoy perfect liberty, within the limits of general laws. So the governments have nothing to ask pardon for; and if the question of obligatory insurance has been brought forward, it is solely from a sentiment of philanthropy, and to do justice to a desire expressed at different periods by the political groups of workingmen. Switzerland consists of twenty-two cantons, of which three are subdivided into two demi-cantons, making in all twenty-five little republics—twenty-five "sovereign States," as the Federal Constitution calls them. What conditions could be more favorable for making political experiments than this multiplicity of little organisms? It was the demi-canton of Bâle-Ville that was the first to enter on the path of compulsory insurance. Last year the local legislature voted a law of insurance against sickness, the principal points of which I have elsewhere outlined as follows:

"Each workman or apprentice, irrespective of sex, is obliged to insure against sickness in an authorized relief bank, offering, for a period of ninety days, either medicines and medical treatment free, or a subsidy of at least 24 cents a day. The employer, subject to severe penalties, is to see that his workmen are insured. He is to pay the third of their assessment out of his own pocket, or a maximum of 80 cents for each per annum. A maximum sum of $6,000 is added annually to the budget to subsidize the savings banks of the first category giving medicines and medical attendance gratis, and to enable them to lower their premiums. If the need of it is felt, a general relief savings-banks (*caisse de secours générale*) is to be organized by the State."*

This bill, however, had to be ratified by the people before it could become law, and so was lost at the polls. It was opposed chiefly by the extreme groups, Conservatives and Radicals, as well as by members of private mutual-insurance companies. But this first check did not lead to the abandonment of the idea: it has been taken up once more, and a new bill will soon be presented.

After Bâle-Ville, it was Geneva's turn. The Grand Conseil has been discussing a motion made by one of the leaders of the Radical party now in power, which, as will be noticed, not merely includes the working classes, but is much bolder and more ambitious. It may be outlined as follows: Insurance against sickness is rendered compulsory for all natives of both sexes, whether workmen or not, from the age of eighteen. As there is a certain public that can never be made to pay their regular assessments, the State makes itself responsible and pays for them, provided that their poverty is not the result of "laziness" or "misconduct." Besides, it is understood (although this point was not formally stipulated and could not be made the object of an obligation) that the insured who are in easy circumstances—estimated at about one-half of the whole—should of their own accord give up the advantages of the undertaking and, with patriotic devotion, be satisfied with bearing their share of the expenses. The State subsidy is fixed at a maximum of $30,000, or about thirty cents per head of the population; an insurance service is also instituted for persons not belonging to any mutual insurance company. By this combination all persons falling sick have a right to assistance. They are guaranteed the expenses of treatment during illness, and a "temporary" indemnity, the duration and amount of which are not indicated, when out of employment.

The opponents of this measure reproach it with instituting, not insurance but compulsory assistance, thus aggravating the plague of legal charity against which the "progressists" of all countries war incessantly. Again, they fear the distribution of citizens, through this insurance, into different categories—some doing nothing but give, the others doing nothing but receive; and between these two the real insurers, paying their premiums and enjoying their privileges. They also ask whether the law would not lead to arbitrary interpretations, and how poor but deserving citizens are to be distinguished from the others. In short, it is impossible from the text of the law to determine the financial bearing of the project.

So much for criticism. When it was asked what could be substituted for a measure so much found fault with, its adversaries rallied in general round the idea of a great cantonal insurance company, subsidized by the State. The delicate point was to know whether compulsion would be admitted for a certain class of citizens for whom insurance is most needed, and who are the most difficult to get into it under a régime of liberty. On this head opinions were divided. Finally, on the third of October, the question was sent back to the Conseil d'État for reconsideration, which was without doubt the wisest plan. At this point matters stand; and it will give a more complete idea of the situation if I add that in the canton of Aargau they are also busy organizing a system of compulsory insurance against sickness, while in the canton of Neuchâtel they are thinking of a system of life insurance. Finally, the Federal Government is occupied with the means of establishing a workmen's insurance against accident, which is to apply to the whole of the Swiss Confederation.

Last Friday I was present at a very touching fête held in the parlors of the Hôtel des Bergues, opposite the little island where the statue of Jean Jacques Rousseau rises, and where the Rhone escapes from the Lake of Geneva. The International Committee of the Red Cross had invited its friends, the authorities, and the consular representatives to celebrate by a banquet and appropriate manifestations the twenty-fifth anniversary of the foundation of this great philanthropic institution. It was, in fact, on this day, a quarter of a century ago, that Geneva united within its walls delegates from the principal Powers, convoked in order

* 'L'Assurance obligatoire en Allemagne,' p. 63.

to organize in time of peace a free society, having its ramifications everywhere, and which in time of war might relieve the wounded on the field of battle. This project had been conceived by a local society little known abroad, the Genevan Society of Public Utility, which gave it its first practical form. When the conference opened, grave doubts were entertained of the possibility of coming to an understanding, which was, nevertheless, reached. An international society was formed having as its emblem a red cross on a white ground—the Swiss colors being a white cross on a red ground—which was to have a character of neutrality recognized by all the Powers who undertook to protect it in its humanitarian work.

The fête of Friday last was presided over by Mr. Gustave Moynier, who had presided over the meeting for organization twenty-five years ago, and who has been without interruption the central president and the soul of the association. He had at his side Dr. Appia, the second and last of the members who had founded the Red Cross. A perfect avalanche of telegrams of sympathy from all quarters of the horizon gave to this fête a most delightful cosmopolitan character. In particular, a cablegram from Washington was read, and a message from Miss Clara Barton, who is well known here, and who had sent one of the bouquets adorning the table around which we were assembled. There are few works in which we are happier than this of the Red Cross, which has helped to make Switzerland loved, and has consecrated a great victory of the Christian spirit over the barbarity of times of war.

Next year the Parisians are going to have their exposition, and we in Switzerland shall have a festival that attracts a great number of amateurs every time it takes place. Vevey, a little town of the canton of Vaud, on the shores of the Lake of Geneva, has preserved a brotherhood that dates from the Middle Ages—a brotherhood of vine-dressers. This corporation has inherited from its predecessors the custom of celebrating, at certain dates quite distant from one another, a kind of open-air theatrical performance, for which they prepare months ahead, and in which ancient mythology—Pales, Ceres, Bacchus—is joined to modern art. Admirable music is given in a grand representation, which is a sort of Oberammergau Passion-Play, but in a full pagan setting. The latest fêtes of the vine-dressers date from 1797, 1819, 1833, 1851, and finally the 26th and 27th of July, 1865. Vevey is reached in a few hours from Geneva by a splendid fleet of steamers constantly plowing the blue waters of the lake. The date of the celebration has yet to be fixed. Mr. Paul Ceresole of Vevey, President of the Swiss Confederation, will preside on this occasion.

Louis Wuarin.

IMPERIAL FEDERATION.

Edinburgh, October 26, 1888.

I spoke in my last letter of the rapidity with which the Imperial Federation idea had gained ground, both in Britain itself and in the outlying parts of the Empire, within the last few years. During the few weeks since I last wrote, the subject has received an unusual proportion of notice on the platform and in the press, and the places in which it has come up for discussion are significant of the new phase through which the idea is passing.

Yesterday I attended, in the Merchants' Hall at Glasgow, a crowded meeting of business men who had come together to hear an address upon the subject from Lord Brassey. The meeting seemed to me thoroughly representative of the clear-headed Scotchmen who have made the business enterprise and success of Glasgow felt throughout the world. The chairman's introduction of Lord Brassey is worth quoting as illustrating the spirit in which the subject was considered.

"We are perpetually told," he said, "that Imperial Federation is a noble dream, but nothing more, and that it must be put in some concrete form before it can recommend itself to men of business. Now Lord Brassey is no dreamer of dreams; he is not a visionary philosopher; he is not a random rhetorician: he is a man of business, and what is more than that is this—he is probably the greatest amateur traveller in the world at this moment. Lord Brassey has travelled through the British Empire, . . . he has, so to speak, looked into every chink and crevice of the British Empire; and this man of business comes back to you and will tell you that he is convinced that Imperial Federation is a necessity for this Empire and a necessity of the near future."

Addressing itself to the consideration of the speeches made by Lord Brassey and others upon this occasion, the *Scotsman*, which is distinctly representative of the best thought of Scotland, says:

"Imperial Federation is not to be thrust aside in the future as it has been in the past. . . . The speakers said many things which deserve to be carefully considered by all who have at heart the future greatness of the Empire. The spirit in which they advocate Imperial Federation is not one of shallow and boastful imperialism. There is nothing of what the French call Chauvinism in the proposals they make. They have regard to plain and obvious facts. Our Empire is not confined within the narrow limits of the British islands. It is found in all parts of the world. British enterprise and courage have built up great communities across the Atlantic, in Africa, in the Indian Ocean, and in the far-away Pacific. These communities have grown, and are growing. Are they to remain part of our Empire, or are they to split away from us, and become, if not our enemies, our touchy and jealous friends? These questions are forced upon us by the logic of facts. . . . Shall we wrap ourselves in a mantle of selfishness, declare that our interests are only at home, and that our colonies may do as they please? Nothing could be more suicidal. Such a policy would mean certain, and probably not slow, destruction. . . . It is not a party question, and it ought never to become one in the sense in which other and less vital matters are made party questions. But Imperial Federation will become the rallying cry of a party comprising all who wish to see the greatness of our Empire maintained, and the prosperity and happiness of the people guaranteed by the best of all possible securities."

About a fortnight ago, Lord Rosebery addressed the Leeds Chamber of Commerce, on the invitation of that body. He pointed out with great force to the merchants of Leeds that the commercial interests of Britain were most intimately connected with her colonial empire; that this would be still more so in the future as the colonies grew in wealth and power; and that in no way could the Chambers of Commerce throughout the country, representing, as they did, the practical side of the national life, employ their great influence more effectively than in studying the problems of national consolidation, and educating the public mind on the bearings of the question. He closed his address with words of great significance, as coming from one of the foremost statesmen of this country.

"The cause which we call Imperial Federation, for want of a better name, is worthy not merely the attention of Chambers of Commerce, but is worthy of the individual devotion of the people of this country. . . . I can say from the bottom of my heart that it is the dominant passion of my public life. Ever since I traversed those great regions which own the sway of the British crown outside these islands, I have felt that this was a cause which merited all the enthusiasm and energy that man could give to it. It is a cause for which any one might be content to live; it is a cause for which, if needs be, any one might be content to die."

It is evident that the question has entered upon a new phase, when the attention and criticism of the business mind of the country are thus challenged by leading public men.

I have lately had the advantage of much frank conversation with Lord Rosebery upon this and kindred subjects, and it has occurred to me that some statement of his views in this connection would, in the light of recent events and public utterances, have special interest for readers of the *Nation*. It will be remembered that, when serving as Foreign Minister in Mr. Gladstone's last government, Lord Rosebery had the singular satisfaction of finding that his management of national relations met with as hearty endorsement from Lord Salisbury and the Conservative party as from his Liberal friends themselves, and probably no Minister of late years has done more to maintain the high traditions of the British Foreign Office. Himself an ardent Liberal, eager for the reform of the House of Lords, in which he sits, keeping himself in touch with advanced Liberal thought, having the political strength of Scotland almost entirely at his back, and specially indicated by Mr. Gladstone as his probable successor in the leadership of the Liberal party, there is probably no man in England to day whose views about Britain's national position have more significance. The absolute frankness and sincerity which he brings to the discussion of public questions make me confident that he would have no objection to having his views known as widely as possible.

Starting from the idea that the consolidation of an oceanic empire, which is the Federationist ideal, would be favorable to the world's peace, Lord Rosebery believes that a closer and permanent union of the various British possessions throughout the world is not only desirable but practicable, and that the tendency of things at the present time is to necessitate such a union. The democratic movement in England is bringing Britain more into harmony with colonial life, and one of the best results of federation would be to draw Britain out of the circle of merely European politics, and therefore into the broadening stream of Anglo-Saxon life throughout the world, with its enormous democratic interests.

He thinks that such a movement ought to strengthen and deepen sympathy between Britain and America. He sees no reason for constant jealousies and misunderstandings between these two great branches of our race. The great interests of each lie in peace, and it ought to be possible for each to pursue its great national aims, not only without dangerous friction, but with sincere sympathy. Americans, he thinks, ought to understand better than they do the essentially democratic character of the British system of government. He has met Americans who believed that our system is a despotism because the country is governed by a queen, while, as a matter of fact, the appeal to the will of the people on great public questions is more speedy and direct than in the United States; and so completely popular is the form of government that a distinguished English writer, Sir Henry Maine, has pointed out how conservative, in comparison, are the safeguards provided by the American Constitution against sudden popular changes. Distinct advantages in some directions in the interests of popular government may even be claimed for a system which avoids the tremendous political struggle involved in electing a head for the state every four years. Federation would, by drawing in the influence

of colonial life, emphasize the democratic side of the British Government, and so can fairly claim the sympathy of the American people, so far as this is concerned.

It is clear, again, that America has as great a political interest in a contented Irish people as Britain herself. Lord Rosebery believes that Imperial Federation would do much to solve the great Irish difficulty, by satisfying the Irish mind in Ireland; and then, from the great mass of Irish sentiment in America, we might hope for a flow of kindly Irish feeling between our two great Anglo-Saxon countries.

For good understanding between Britain and the United States, Lord Rosebery thinks that each should follow lines of natural development. If Canada, after a hundred years of loyalty to Britain and British institutions, were absorbed into the United States, it would stimulate national rancor and hostility for many years. Friendly feeling depends on equality of position. England, being gradually stripped of her colonies, would be towards the United States somewhat in the position of a toothless parent, neglected and despised in the corner of the household. Neither for Britain, America, nor the world is such a relation desirable. Much better would it be for both to be working out on grand lines and with generous rivalry what, after all, are very similar aims. The American continent would probably be all the better for having two nations thus engaged in its development, each learning from the experience of the other. Canadian character is too strong, Canadian sentiment too deeply fixed by a century's history, to be uprooted and diverted from their course in a generation. The English people believe that Canadian attachment to Britain is growing stronger rather than weakening, and therefore there has been a remarkable change within the last ten years in the position which Canada and Canadians hold in England. Their influence is now freely admitted in Imperial Councils, and the energy shown in developing the country since Confederation has immensely lifted Canadian credit and prestige in the mother land. Finally, Lord Rosebery believes that Canadian honor is too deeply pledged to British connection to make it at all likely that modifications of commercial relations between the United States and the Dominion would be allowed to affect the political situation.

I have referred before to the extreme caution which has marked Lord Rosebery's leadership of the Federation movement. A some what similar caution is perhaps necessary in trying to indicate what appears to me to be the views held by leaders of the movement in England, in respect of the practical agencies by which it is possible to accomplish a closer federal union. While they recognize the possibility that British statesmen at home and in the colonies may be within measurable distance of a decisive effort of constructive statesmanship, I think that at present they look rather to a very gradual development of centralized government on imperial lines. They understand that, while so deeply engaged as the colonies are in the difficulties of organizing new territories, they could only be expected to bear a relatively small proportion of imperial burdens. As their own interests grow wider they will be willing, as all Anglo-Saxon people are, to assume their fair share. An imperial revenue, managed by an imperial council of state, containing colonial delegations, increasing in size and influence with the increase of their contributions, would form a sufficient nucleus of organization. Such a council, consulting together for common interests, would gradually gather power and intensify the feeling of national unity. I have heard the opinion strongly expressed that, as the tendency of Parliament now is to employ itself more and more in local affairs, and as each lowering of the suffrage increases this tendency, there would be no regret felt at seeing foreign affairs gradually taken out of the hands of Parliament and intrusted to a great national council which would attract to itself the best representative ability of the Empire, and, wielding some such powers as those now possessed by the Senate of the United States, would rise to a dignity commensurate with the vastness of the questions with which it had to deal. But whatever the form in which it may be thought best to embody ultimately the unity of the British people, Lord Rosebery and others acting with him do not believe that it presents any problem superior to our statesmanship. G. R. Parkin.

Correspondence.

INDIANA "FLOATERS."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As it is doubtful whether one in fifty of your readers has the faintest conception of the open and wholesale bribery carried on by both parties in Indiana, I would call their attention to a few facts which I have collected in the interest of political science and of good government.

The number of "floaters," *i. e.*, of marketable voters, in the entire State is said to be 30,000. However that may be, I learn from what seems reliable authority that in this (Monroe) county alone there are 600, 200 of which—I will not say of *whom*, for such *Stimmvieh* are hardly to be regarded as persons—live in this town; and as the town has only 3,500 inhabitants, and therefore a voting population of about 700, the magnitude of the evil is apparent. Let us see how this "floating" vote was manipulated.

It will probably amaze the readers of this communication no less than it did the writer to learn that Dudley's injunction to let none of the floaters "get away" was almost literally an order to the Republican "workers" to seize each floater, carry him to the polls, and prevent the Democratic enemy from capturing him by force and placing their ballots in his hands. Yet such is but a slight exaggeration.

In order to get a view of practical politics with his own eyes (no matter how disgusting the sight), and to see how far, if at all, our actual political system agrees with the fine phrases of the orators who tell us that in this glorious land every citizen is a sovereign and every chair a throne, the writer spent the greater part of election day at the polls, and there witnessed a most instructive, if not edifying, spectacle. But it must not be supposed that the wily workers deferred till election day their struggle for possession of the floaters. All day Monday, on the contrary, the battle raged; and when the shades of night settled down over Bloomington, probably more than a hundred of the voting cattle had been corralled in various buildings, with sentries to guard them against surprise by the foe. Among the places that served as pens for these drunken floaters may be mentioned the office of the leading Republican paper of the county and the hall of the local G. A. R. Post. The use of this hall for such a purpose drove one of the veterans to hand in his resignation, and to declare that he would no longer be a member of such a body. Thus far, however, I have heard of *only* one who took this stand. Wagon-loads of floaters had also been transported into the surrounding country, ready to be brought back with a rush to the polls at sunrise. As Harrison carried Indiana, and Monroe County showed heavy Republican gains, it is hardly necessary to state that the majority of these wretched creatures were captured by that Grand Old Party of Great Moral Ideas which possesses a monopoly, not only of wool, wheat, pig-iron, etc., but also of virtue.

If it were not so serious a matter, it would be amusing to learn that a lady of this place, who went to purchase butter on election day, was told that there was none for sale in town, as all had been bought the day before to butter sandwiches for floaters—for it would seem that even the Hoosier floater cannot live by free whiskey alone. Yet the latter was liberally supplied, as Bloomingtonians know to their cost, since drunken floaters, penned up in a wood-shed, caused a fire in the night which destroyed half a block of buildings and threatened with destruction a large part of the town.

I was not fortunate (or unfortunate) enough to be present when the polls were opened and the first batches of floaters (in "blocks of five," more or less) were voted, but will mention a few incidents that came under my own observation during the day. Going to the polls immediately after breakfast, I saw a dense mob of men surging around the window through which the ballots were handed. A fight had just taken place for possession of a negro floater. During the campaign he had sung (perhaps for pay) in the Democratic glee club, but had been captured the night before by the Republicans. The wicked Democrats now attempted a rescue, but in vain. The Grand Old Party of Great Moral Ideas held him firmly in their clutches, and the vote of this sovereign went to swell the plurality for Gen. Harrison. Later in the day I heard a negro loudly jeering a Democratic worker: "Oh, we sing with you, but we don't vote with you!" which merry jest was greeted with vociferous and triumphant laughter by the Republican bystanders. At another precinct I saw a Republican worker drive up in a buggy, squeezed in between two filthy negroes, and deliberately place Republican ballots in their hands in full view of the assembled crowd, the negroes handing in the ballots through the window without even alighting from the buggy.

In 1880 one "crisp two dollar bill" was said to be the price of a Hoosier vote; but in 1888 the average was probably three glittering five-dollar gold-pieces. The Bloomington butchers report that, since the election, negroes have offered many of these yellow coins in payment for meat. It must not be supposed, however, that negroes are the only purchasable voters in these parts. The Hoosier floater is but too frequently neither negro nor foreigner, but your genuine free-born American sovereign.

I have related the above concrete facts in some detail because I believe that the thinking men of the country should know them, and should ponder earnestly upon a remedy, if there be one. The incubus of universal suffrage could hardly be shaken off without a bloody revolution, but undoubtedly legislation might palliate the evil. There are some objections to the abolition of the electoral system and the substitution for it of direct popular vote for President; but it would at least render useless the concentration of enormous sums of money upon doubtful States. Even Matt. Quay would find it difficult to purchase the entire country. But much could be done by the passage of such election laws as would prohibit more than one voter from approaching the polls at a time, and would thus render the ballot really secret.

R. H. Dabney.

Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.,
November 17, 1888.

THE COLORED VOTE IN THE NORTHERN STATES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The statistics of the immense colored vote in the old slave States are common knowledge everywhere, but few persons probably have investigated the numbers and influence of the colored vote in the North, or are prepared to estimate its significance in the election just held.

The census of 1880 shows the number of white and colored males over twenty-one years of age in the States named below to have been as follows:

States.	White.	Colored
Connecticut	163,739	3,532
Rhode Island	75,012	1,886
New York	1,388,692	20,059
New Jersey	280,965	10,670
Ohio	804,871	21,706
Indiana	487,718	10,739
Illinois	733,161	13,686
Michigan	461,557	6,130
Nevada	25,633	5,622
California	262,583	66,809

It is a fair presumption that the number of colored males over twenty-one years in these States is at least as great now as in 1880, since, in addition to natural increase, there has been a considerable emigration from the Southern States; and as there are few, if any, foreign-born negroes, it is also fair to presume that they are all voters, and that nine-tenths of them vote with the Republican party, having none of the associations and traditions which in the South still connect many of them with their former masters and have led to business relations and political alliances.

Of the States named above, only Connecticut and New Jersey gave their electoral vote to Cleveland, all the others voting for Harrison, and their respective majorities being unofficially given by the Republican press as follows:

Rhode Island	4,427
New York	10,000 to 11,000
Ohio	20,000 to 25,000
Indiana	2,438
Illinois	15,000 to 18,000
Michigan	15,000 to 20,000
Nevada	1,500 to 2,000
California	5,000 to 8,000

It will be seen that Harrison's majorities, as estimated above, are, in the States of New York, Indiana, Nevada, and California, less than their respective colored votes; and if these estimates should be sustained by the official figures, it will be apparent that Harrison's success in those States is due to the colored vote, and that if it were eliminated Cleveland would have received their 62 electoral votes, which, added to the 168 votes he did receive, would give a total of 230 out of 401.

Or, confining the analysis to the State of New York alone, in which there can be no possible question of the correctness of the argument, her 36 votes would have given Cleveland 204, thus insuring his election.

Here is presented the singular spectacle of 20,000 colored voters in the Empire State of the North determining the result of a Presidential election for eight millions of white voters in 38 States; and not only so, but also determining, certainly *for four years*, and possibly for an indefinite period, the course of the Government upon the gravest question of public policy ever presented to the intelligence of the American people.

This letter has no purpose to present an argument against negro suffrage, which is one of the inevitable evils of our system of government to-day; but its purpose is, if possible, to aid the white voters of the country to realize the vital importance of the intelligent and conscientious exercise of their own right of suffrage. Yours respectfully,

James A. Pearce.

Chestertown, Md., November 12, 1888.

THE SECTIONAL BREAK-UP.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: To a thinking man of either party, one of the most important and most welcome incidents of the late election is the fact that the Republicans carried West Virginia. Still more pleased would all patriots have been had the great northwestern States of Illinois and Minnesota given Democratic majorities, and old Virginia and Tennessee, on the other hand, come into the Republican ranks, which positions these last four States would apparently occupy did their citizens actually vote on the "tariff" as the paramount question. So long as the idea of a "solid South" lingers as a possibility, even, in the minds of our people, it appears impossible to obtain their votes on an economic question. In Kentucky, for example, notwithstanding the *Courier-Journal*, the protection idea has unfortunately obtained a strong foothold; yet, in the result at the polls, this fact is barely visible: men talk protection, but vote the straight Democratic ticket. The natural consequence of this is, that in Minnesota men talk free trade and vote the Republican ticket.

The Democratic party has not gone far enough. Their platform calls for tariff reform, but they still shelter under their banner Randall and his following. The Mills Bill and the President's letter both presented the question strongly to the people; but the party organs, in great part, emphasized most strongly—in one the phrase, "We are entering on no crusade of free trade"; in the other, the fact that the average reduction of duties was *only* five per cent. While Democratic leaders continue to apologize for raising the only issue which is before the country, that issue cannot constitute the dividing line; the party still remains an association of men who cling together because they have voted on the same side since the times of Buchanan, and their fathers, perhaps, before them voted for Jackson and Van Buren. In this company Republican reformers do not feel at home, and can very rarely be persuaded to remain. The best chance for the party is to make a bold stand for free trade without disguise, and trust to the sense of the people, irrespective of the latitude of their homes.

Lincoln D.

Louisville, November 12, 1888.

UNITY IN TARIFF REFORM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of November 15 you say: "The recent election has shown *where* the tariff-reform clubs can put in their most effective work, namely, among the workingmen of the large cities."

If I may be allowed to add a few suggestions, based upon an experience gained in both public and private discussion of the subject, as to *how* the work of tariff-reform clubs and tariff reformers can be put in most effectively, I would say, to begin with, that I think they should first agree *to work together for a specific purpose*. As it now is, some of the friends of "tariff reform" advocate "free trade," and others "tariff reduction" simply, a "tariff for revenue only," or a "tariff for revenue with incidental protection," etc., etc.; and thus the advantage of concert of action, so well appreciated and so much relied on by the opponents of any tariff reform, is entirely lost to them.

If, on the other hand, our tariff reformers should all agree that, whatever their ultimate action might be, they would combine *now* for the single purpose of advocating the immediate reduction of our tariff laws to a *strictly protective* basis, they would thereby secure the hearty coöperation of many an honest believer in "protection" who would not agree to a reduction on any other basis. The average candidate for a seat in Congress two years hence, if not the members recently elected, would, with the aid of these honest allies, be readily made to understand the difference between *tariffs for protection* and *tariffs for bounties with incidental protection*, and the bounties would soon "go." Such a reduction would prove a great boon to the unprotected consumers, while a present attempt at anything beyond would afford sufficient pretext to the "friends of protection" to contine their open opposition to any reduction whatever. The "free trade" red rag should, therefore, no longer be flaunted in the face of the "protectionist" bull.

Starting, then, with such a specific purpose, the tariff reformers should bend their energies to convince the unenlightened voters:

(1.) That "*the* tariff" is not a unit, but an aggregation of particulars, each of which must be scrutinized separately.

(2.) That the "principle of protection" requires only the imposition of such a tariff or tax upon a competing foreign production as will raise its cost to that of the like domestic production.

(3.) That when any tariff goes beyond the limit of that principle, the excess, in so far as it enhances the price of the domestic article, operates solely as an unalloyed tax upon the consumer and a pure benefaction to the domestic producer.

(4.) That many of our tariffs are now open to such an objection—some because they were made so originally, and others because they have become so through a change of circumstances—and that the effect in the aggregate is to lay a heavy burden of taxation upon the people.

(5.) That "tariff reform" means the reduction of these excessive tariffs to the limit of the principle of protection, and a consequent reduction in the price of the articles named in such tariffs, whether of foreign or domestic production.

(6.) That neither a reduction of the national revenues nor the abolition of "the surplus" is necessarily synonymous with or productive of "tariff reform."

(7.) That "those who think alike should act together," at least in voting for members of Congress.

I am not unmindful of the fact that the foregoing suggestions omit any reference to the subject of adding "raw materials" to the "free list"; but since many of the "friends of protection," actuated by an enlightened self-interest, are calling for "free raw materials," I think we may, for the present, leave the advocacy of that branch of "tariff reform" to them.

Stephen H. Tyng.

Boston, November 19, 1888.

A FREE-TRADE PARTY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Many Democrats are blaming President Cleveland for precipitating the party into opposition to protection, and thus leading them to defeat. I think it is easy to see that Democratic defeat is due, not to the act of this brave, honest, and patriotic leader, but to the failure of the party to give him adequate support.

Neither in the Mills Bill nor in campaign documents and speeches, excepting by Mr. Thurman and a few others, was the true note sounded. It should have been an aggressive war-cry against the whole "protective system." It degenerated into a defensive appeal against the charge of being "free traders." On the other side, protection fought with the desperation born of danger, and with all the weapons which monopoly can command.

After a brief interregnum, the Republicans once more come back to power, a wiser party than when they left it. What remains to the Democracy? Nothing but to fall again into the accustomed rut of opposition. It has no aims, no issues, no aspirations which can lift it again to power. Only some egregious blunder on the part of the victorious party can avail; and this, if it have anything left of the wisdom of the serpent, it will take good care to avoid.

But there are within both parties, and outside of either, a large and increasing number who are ill-satisfied with the Republican "system," on the one hand, and with Democratic pusillanimity on the other. These would gladly serve under the standard of free trade, if borne by a competent leader. This body includes the philosophical and scientific minds of the country, as well as a noble band of young men, educated in just principles of political economy. They see in the old Saracen device, adopted from the feudal age, an incubus upon our constitutional liberties, and a source of oppression, corruption, and disorders throughout the body politic. They see in free trade, pure and absolute, the remedy for these evils, and the highway to the restoration of our foreign commerce and our languishing agriculture, and of the greatest good to the greatest number. That the good work has begun is evident from the alarm of the enemy. Under vigorous instruction it will go on, until an educated people are as eager to be emancipated from the new slavery as they were from the old.

Will not you, Mr. *Nation*, sound this key-note, and give your powerful aid towards the desired consummation? The conflict may be arduous and long, but "Truth crushed to earth will rise again." Error is already wounded, and will die amid her worshippers. Is it too soon to organize a new party, bearing on its banner "Free Thought, Free Speech, Free Trade"? B. H.

DETROIT, November 15, 1888.

[As was said long ago of another and kindred reform, free trade is not a movement, but an attitude of mind. It will have been achieved in this country whenever Congress adopts the principle never to vote another tax with a "protective" intent—*i. e.*, for the benefit of a class. The reduction of the existing tariff then becomes merely a question of time and details, following well-defined lines. Time may show that neither of our two great parties can be forced into this attitude; but we do not yet despair of them. —ED. NATION.]

"NOT THAT KIND OF MAN."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A well-informed Indianapolis correspondent of the Chicago *Herald* says that "President Cleveland does not escape criticism entirely," for the late defeat, namely, though his motives are respected. Hundreds of Democrats have not recovered from the disappointment immediately following his election, when they saw Republicans retaining positions which they "believed they themselves had earned by years of fealty to the party's principles. Harrison's friends," continues this correspondent, "declare that he will make no mistake of this kind; that he will place Republicans in all positions of honor and trust in the Government, and will thus strengthen the party and himself by rewarding none but those who can be depended upon to do their duty as partisans."

I have many friends in Indiana, and the universal feeling is that Mr. Harrison intends to strengthen (?) himself and his party by rewarding his partisans with the offices of the country—put none but Republicans on guard. In the case of the post-office in this city, Mr. Cleveland allowed the incumbent to serve out his term, which had a year to run, although the postmaster was editor of the Republican paper, which was constantly abusing the President and his policy. Even now, one-half the post-office employees and letter-carriers are Republicans, as are also the postal clerks in this vicinity.

The suggestion that *any* Democrat, however worthy and useful, will be allowed to retain his position after about next April, is received in this part of the country with derision. They say, "Harrison is not that kind of a man."

Yours truly, B. W. W.

BURLINGTON, IOWA, November 13, 1888.

HEREDITARY FEAR OF ENGLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you not say something with regard to heredity in politics? Observation here leads me to believe there exists among a certain class of native Americans an unreasoning fear of England, similar to that a quiet horse shows when he smells the odor of the wild beasts in a menagerie, though they are invisible to him. I have been taught that a horse inherits the fear from his wild ancestors, and I am disposed to think that a New Englander's comes down to him from the early days of the Republic.

One of my neighbors lays it down as "a lor," that "whatever England wants is bad for the United States"; and, although he is a graduate of the Harvard Scientific School, one might judge from his ordinary political outgivings that he, in his heart, believes Queen Victoria never goes out for a drive without a bandanna in her reticule, and that the whole of England is to-day excited over the possible changes in our tariff. Very truly yours, P. L.

CUMBERLAND, MD., November 12, 1888.

THAT DENVER CITY CONTRACT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A few days prior to election you quoted from a Western paper an article referring to the fact that an English concern had entered into competition with a large number of American foundries for 5,000 tons of castings for a cable railroad in Denver, Col., and that this English concern had underbid its American rivals and had received the contract. You finally dismissed it with the remark that you belie ed the story was a campaign falsehood. I admit I was of that opinion myself, but the *Iron Age* (November 1) gives a full statement of this affair, and I think it is probably correct in its statement; at least, as the *Iron Age* puts it, the story seems to bear the evidence of truth. While its version differs considerably from that given by the Western paper, the substance of both is that an English foundry has underbid the lowest American bidder for this work, and is to ship to this country 5,000 tons of castings (on which there is a duty of 45 per cent. ad valorem) and deliver them in Denver for less money than our Chicago foundries were able (or willing) to do.

I must admit that this is a remarkable instance of what our high-tariff friends call foreign competition.

I wish you would tell your readers, of whom I am one, how this competition is possible, with our 45 per cent. tariff, and what we might expect under a lower tariff. The Mills bill makes 5 per cent. reduction on this class of goods. Yours respectfully,

JOHN H. PIPER.

NOVEMBER 12.

[It is not the Mills bill, but the Senate substitute, that makes a reduction of the duty on iron castings, and herein we think that the Senate bill is preferable to the Mills bill.

We said that if the Chicago foundrymen could not compete at Denver with English foundrymen, who are handicapped with a duty of 45 per cent. ad valorem, or of $28 per ton, as the case may be, they were greater slovens than we had taken them for. The basis of the cost of castings is the cost of pig-iron, which the *Iron Age* puts at $16 per ton in Chicago. The cost in Glasgow, Scotland, is 41s. 6d. per ton, equal to $10. Therefore, the disadvantage of the Chicago foundryman at the outset is $6 per ton, against which he has the advantage of $28 per ton duty, a net protection of $22 per ton. Now where does all this bonus go to? Not to labor. We have not the figures of comparative wages in English and American foundry work before us, but we have those of blast-furnace work, in a recent consular report (No. 49, Department of State), from which it appears that the labor cost of pig-iron in Middlesbrough, England, is 79 cents per ton, and in eastern Pennsylvania $1.25 per ton; difference, 48 cents per ton. The difference between the two countries in the labor cost of castings cannot be very much greater, but we will suppose that it is $1 per ton. Then we have $6 difference in pig-iron and $1 difference in labor, total $7, against a duty of $28. What becomes of the other $21 of net protection? The *Iron Age* says that the English foundrymen got a freight rate of $7 a ton from Liverpool to Denver via Galveston, while the railroad charge from Chicago to Denver was $9 per ton. That is a question which evidently has no relation to the tariff, but if we count it in, it subtracts $2 more from the net protection, leaving $19 per ton bonus, or considerably more than the total cost of the raw material, pig-iron.

There is some mystery about this affair which we do not attempt to penetrate, and the mystery deepens when we read in the trade journals almost every day that American firms have been awarded contracts for iron bridges and for locomotives in Australia, Chili, and other foreign countries where they are obliged to compete with English contractors on equal terms. We should say that if our foundrymen could not compete with English firms in the interior of the United States under the present duty, in the second century of the republic, it was the best possible evidence that protection was a failure as to that particular branch of industry, and that it was high time

to try some other system; for is not the buyer of castings also an American citizen and entitled to some consideration? Even the Denver Cable Railway Company has some rights which white men are bound to respect.—Ed. Nation.]

"FORESIGHT AND HINDSIGHT."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of May 24 a correspondent gave a striking illustration of the fact that "even the greatest of historians may not write history in advance without incurring some danger to his fame for philosophical acumen." The illustration was in the form of a quotation from a speech made by Lord Macaulay in 1845, when he declared that the chances of the African race were better in Brazil than in the United States, and prophesied that the black population of Brazil would be freed before that of the United States.

During a second perusal recently of 'The Last Days of Pompeii,' I noted a similar "nod" on the part of the first Lord Lytton. In Chapter 4 of Book II he expresses his opinion upon the unification of Italy as follows:

"Italy, Italy (while I write your skies are over me, your seas flow beneath my feet), listen not to the blind policy which would unite all your crested cities, mourning for their republics, into one empire. False, pernicious delusion! Your only hope of regeneration is in division. Florence, Milan, Venice, Genoa may be free once more, if each is free. But dream not of freedom for the whole while you enslave the parts; the heart must be the centre of the system, the blood must circulate freely everywhere, and in vast communities you behold but a bloated and feeble giant, whose brain is imbecile, whose limbs are dead, and who pays in disease and weakness the penalty of transcending the natural proportions of health and vigor."

It may possibly be too early yet to decide whether or not the unification of Italy was a "pernicious delusion"; but the "blind policy" of Victor Emanuel and Cavour seems thus far to have brought happiness and prosperity, and "regeneration" appears to have been accomplished, not "in division," but in a united Italy. Thus novelists as well as historians, being mortal, sometimes make mistakes.

Cleon.

Mito, Japan, October 1, 1888.

MODERN GREEK IN THE TEACHING OF ANCIENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I was much interested in the communication from "A. H." in the last number of the *Nation*, respecting his reading of the modern Greek in his classes. I quite agree with him that we have in the living language of to-day a resource for giving a new and fresh interest to the ancient tongue, and I can parallel the satisfactory results of which he speaks with those which I have obtained in some of my own advanced classes. It seems to me that the ideal course in Greek should take notice of the language in every phase of its history, and certainly in any such survey the modern Greek must come in with its claims. Claims it certainly has upon us, in view of the remarkable resurrection of Greece in the present century, since the recovery of her independence after four centuries of slavery to the Turks. The fact, too, that we have now an American School of Classical Studies at Athens must give to all American students of Greek a special interest in all that pertains to the Greece of to-day, and hence to the present form of her language.

W. H. Appleton.

Swarthmore College, Pa.

THE FEMALE INTELLECT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If Prof. Cope would like to supplement his "general observation" with a few facts, he may be interested in knowing that of the last graduating class at Cornell University, ten per cent. were women, but that those women won sixty per cent. (three out of five) of the fellowships. The subjects in which they were so successful were botany, architecture, and mathematics. President Adams, in addressing the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ which met at Cornell last month, said that the women regularly stand a little higher than the men in the university classes. Does it not show a "pronounced frailty of the reasoning faculty" on the part of Prof. Cope, that he does not perceive the bearing of the many facts of this nature which, nowadays, are to be had for the seeking?

M.

TEACHER AND COMMUNITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have been struck by the little influence exerted by our teachers in this city, and have wondered if it is due to our method of employing them. We carry out the plan of "protection to home industries" till it amounts to practical prohibition. Out of eighty teachers employed in our public schools, all except sixteen have been educated here in our High School. Of the sixteen educated elsewhere, five are said to be graduates of colleges bestowing degrees.

Our method of appointment to fill vacancies is as follows: Graduates of the High School wishing to teach in the city schools must attend the Training School one year. The Training School is a central primary school of about sixty children, on whom the teachers practise. After the school is dismissed, the teachers recite to the principal one hour each day. A record of each teacher is kept, and appointments are made in the order of standing. So far as is practicable, each teacher is sent to the district nearest her home, and, hence, where she attended school a few years before.

A Citizen.

Burlington, Iowa, November 12, 1888.

THE MYSTERY OF THE CALCULUS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The review of Newcomb's 'Calculus' in your last number treats of the old question, Why do so few of our college boys study the Calculus? and the other question, Why do so few men from college, even if they studied it there, remember anything of it in after life? One cause, which I discussed in a letter published by you some years ago, is found in the absurd way in which mathematics is taught in all or nearly all our schools and colleges—the interminable mental gymnastics that have to be gone through before the really useful, and at the same time the truly sublime, parts of the science are reached. Some of the latest text-books have rather multiplied than diminished the old mass of rubbish, under the head of "modern" and of "descriptive" geometry, and by the exuberantly full treatment of the higher algebraic equations, which can hardly ever be put to any use. These are put on top of the wretched puzzles that are to be solved by plain and quadratic equations, and they tire most boys and young men with the study of the noblest of sciences, long before they come to the portals of the much-dreaded Calculus. It is like the case of the proverbial Dutchman, who took a mile's start for jumping a ditch, and was exhausted and out of breath when he reached it.

I recollect that I began to learn the Calculus, without a teacher, before I was ten years old, from an old book—I believe it was Abel Birja's Algebra—by a method which perhaps was not strictly scientific, but very simple and easily understood. The "differential" was defined as the increment of a quantity, which is so small that its higher powers may be disregarded when compared with the first. If anybody objects to the supposed inaccuracy, he is told that if he stickles for any particular degree of exactness, he can always assume his differential small enough to satisfy his own standard. This notion of an increment "so small that, etc.," is called for short "infinitely small," and may be of the first, second, or any higher degree, according as products or powers occur, and you get along with it splendidly in solving all problems. When I got older I came across an ex-Professor of Mathematics, who told me that these notions were all wrong, and that, according to Lagrange, the differential quotient is nothing but the coëfficient of the second term in the development of a function, and that I must have nothing to do with infinitely small or infinitely great. I took "infinite" pains to recast all my ideas on the subject, and had great trouble to get rid of "those infinitely small arcs which may be treated as straight lines." I found afterwards that Lagrange himself, in his series for periodic functions, makes very free use of the infinitely great and small.

But to your reviewer, who says that these first conceptions are the main difficulties and the only difficulties in the Differential and Integral Calculus, I cannot give my assent. In the first place, old geometry, before the days of Newton and Leibnitz, presented the same difficulties of the infinitely small and great as the modern Calculus when applied to figures in space. The circle was always a polygon of an infinite number of sides; the sphere, an aggregate of a doubly infinite number of pyramids, each standing on a doubly infinitesimal basis. The difference between the old treatment and the new is this only: that before the days of the Calculus each curved line, or curved surface, or round body had to be treated separately, and the harsh reasoning about infinitesimals had to be applied to it in its own way, the solution being always clumsy and often impossible; whereas we now have a method which goes right through all obstacles, and, the meaning of the symbols d and f being once understood, the student can generally do without any mention of the infinitely great or small.

In the second place, I do not admit that, after the learner has grasped the method and the meaning of the symbols, his path is all smooth and strewn with roses. It is, indeed, all plain sailing for a while, say, as far as most of the college courses go—the quadrature and rectification of plane curves, and the measurement of the surfaces and volumes of bodies of revolution. But a little further on lie definite integrals, elliptic functions, the solution of differential equations, variations, calculus of finite differences, series for periodic functions, etc.; and all these branches are necessary for the student who wishes to apply his mathematics to the study of physics and mechanics, or to the theory of probabilities. Even the differential equations from which the planetary orbit is derived, though they can be solved by a sort of sleight-of-hand, without need of the general method for solving such equations,

are pretty tough. In fact, Calculus means "stone," and the student's path becomes here right stony.

And this brings me to one of the objections made by the unmathematical mind to the well-known proposition, that the planetary curve is formed by two forces, and by these alone; the force of inertia driving along a straight line with the acquired velocity and the incessant or accelerative force of attraction. A highly educated man, who has even a smattering of Calculus, asked me this morning: "In a circular or nearly circular orbit, where the attractive force is always at, or nearly at, right angles to the inertia, is not the diagonal formed by the parallelogram of forces always greater than the one side of the parallelogram due to the inertia alone? Why, then, does not the velocity of the planet increase all the time?"

Who can answer this without mixing in his explanation infinitely small quantities of the second order? I await a reply. L. N. D.

Louisville, Ky., October 21, 1888.

Notes.

Ginn & Co., Boston, have in press a 'Vocabulary to the First Six Books of Homer's Iliad,' by Prof. Thomas D. Seymour of Yale. It has been made at first hand. The antiquities will be illustrated by woodcuts.

White & Allen announce an edition of Anster's translation of 'Faust' (the first in English verse), with colored illustrations after aquarelles by Frank M. Gregory, along with many black-and-white designs; also, 'P. T. Barnum's Circus, Museum, and Menagerie,' compiled by Mr. Barnum himself and Sarah J. Burke, with colored prints.

'The Walks Abroad of Two Young Naturalists,' from the French of Charles Beaugrand, with numerous plates and vignettes, will be published directly by T. Y. Crowell & Co.

Thomas Whittaker has nearly ready 'Stray Leaves of Literature,' by Frederick Saunders of the Astor Library.

Brentano will publish 'The Song of the Palm, and Other Poems,' by Tracy Robinson.

Robert Clarke & Co.'s list of new books includes a 'Narrative of a Journey Down the Ohio and Mississippi in 1789-90,' by Maj. Samuel S. Forman of New Jersey, edited, with a memoir, by Lyman C. Draper; 'Adventures of Pioneer Children; or, Life in the Wilderness,' by E. Fenwick Colerick; a 'Manual for Building and Loan Associations,' by Henry S. Rosenthal; and 'Historic Families of Kentucky,' First Series, by Thomas Marshall Green.

Harper & Bros. publish directly a new novel, 'A Christmas Rose: a Blossom in Seven Petals,' by Robert Edward Francillon; and 'Colonel Quaritch, V.C.,' by Rider Haggard.

'New Amsterdam—New Orange—New York' is the title of a brochure now in the hands of the printer, and compiled by Gen. Charles W. Darling, corresponding secretary of the Oneida Historical Society, at Utica, N. Y. The material has been gathered from a large number of unpublished folio manuscript volumes of public records.

B. Westermann & Co. will shortly receive 'Die Gred,' a new historical romance by Georg Ebers, of which Nuremberg is the scene.

The Routledge edition of Victor Hugo has received a fresh enlargement by the publication of 'The Man Who Laughs,' in two volumes. We can add nothing to what we have said of the other works in this handsomely printed series, except that the illustrations deserve more praise than those in the 'Wandering Jew.' Their defects are such as they share with the monstrous creation whose scene is in England, but whose characters and incidents form anything but an "historical novel." Doré would have been a proper designer in this instance; and one artist of genius would have been worth the two who have actually divided the task.

The newly completed volume of the *Magazine of Art* comes to us bound from Cassell & Co. Its contents have the usual variety: scenes from nature in New Zealand, Exmoor, Fontainebleau; specimens of local art galleries and current exhibitions; modern artists and their works; costumes, beautifully illustrated; Irish types and traits; art on the stage, with a timely portrait of Miss Anderson as *Hermione*, etc., etc. There is a not remarkable series of Napoleon portraits; another, somewhat more *recherché*, of Dickens portraits. Best of all the pictorial examples is the engraving after Paul Dubois's masterly bust of Pasteur; Auguste Rodin is also forcibly represented. A chalk drawing by Watts of his "Love and Death," and a woodcut after his "Orpheus and Eurydice," further lend distinction to this volume, which has its monthly photogravure of some painting.

The *Bookworm* (London: Elliott Stock; New York; A. C. Armstrong & Son) makes so pretty a bound volume that it is a pity not to be able to speak very highly of the contents of this magazine. We have found it in this, its first year, scrappy and inorganic, with only by accident a special article possessing some degree of interest. This would be more apparent in a classified table of contents, which is lacking, than it is in the index.

Our monthly notice of the *Century* for the past six months precludes the necessity of any extended remarks on the fourteenth volume (May-October) which lies before us. One observation, however, will be pertinent: the multifarious contents need a better key than the table supplied at the beginning. Take Mr. Kennan's six related articles on Siberia and its exiles: not more than three are grouped together. The papers on the civil war are likewise mingled indiscriminately with other articles in the alphabet lottery. We could further wish to see an index to the more important engravings, and think the portraits, as a class, worth a complete list to themselves.

Two volumes, or parts, contain the twelvemonth (1887-88) of *St. Nicholas*, in whose familiar physiognomy, if there is anything new to be noted, it may be the number of process engravings from living models—an endless resource for a magazine of this character. We fulfil a promise in calling the editor's attention to the perilously small type in which the letters of correspondents are printed. There is nothing imaginative in supposing them to be often read by young incautious eyes in the fading twilight, or by dim or glaring lamplight.

Mr. Henry T. Coates's 'Fireside Encyclopædia of Poetry' (Philadelphia: Porter & Coates) comes to us in its twenty-seventh edition. It has been very extensively overhauled and considerably enlarged. Hardly any of the authors and pieces omitted to gain room would be missed, even if it cannot be said that they are always replaced by their betters. Bernard Barton, William Beattie, William Congreve, Erasmus Darwin, Austin Dobson, Ebenezer Elliott, and Andrew Lang are some of the British new-comers; Alice Cary, C. P. Cranch, Julia Dorr, Edward Everett, J. T. Fields, Paul H. Hayne, J. G. Holland, R. T. S. Lowell, J. J. Piatt, Henry Timrod, and William Winter some of the American. One misses here R. W. Gilder and Sidney Lanier, to mention no others. The collection remains about what it was before, albeit somewhat fresher—not among the best in a critical sense, but from its comprehensiveness a useful supplement to similar collections. The index has been rather neglected. "Gilfillin," "Cenneck," and "Wm. *Joseph* Irons" stand for Gilfillan, Cennick, and Josiah. The year of Mary Howitt's death might have been inserted. The steel engravings of the first edition have given way, to advantage, to excellent portraits of the poets on wood, with facsimiles of their manuscripts.

It can only be necessary to mention the appearance of the third volume of Poor's annual 'Directory of Railway Officials,' a supplement to the Manual. The thoroughness and authority of this list of the personnel of our railway service are indisputable.

'Notable Workers in Humble Life' (T. Nelson & Sons), by the Rev. E. N. Hoare, consists of sketches of eight in many respects very remarkable men. The stories of four, at least, are familiar to most, viz., those of the weaver, John Duncan, who became a well-known botanist; of the baker of Thurso, Robert Dick, whose knowledge of geology astonished Sir Roderick Murchison; of Thomas Edward, the shoemaker-naturalist; and of the Portsmouth cobbler, John Pounds, whose work in teaching poor children led to the formation of Ragged Schools. The lives of the itinerant lecturers and exhorters, John Ashworth, Thomas Cooper, author of the 'Purgatory of Suicides,' and Robert Flockhart, soldier and street-preacher in Edinburgh, will probably be new to the majority of readers. The closing chapter is devoted to an account of the self-sacrificing labors of George Smith of Coalville, in securing legislation for the protection of children employed in brick-yards and on canal-boats, as well as of his as yet ineffectual efforts to obtain similar protection for thirty thousand gipsy children who roam through Great Britain. The author is in almost every case able to let the subjects of his sketches tell the principal parts of their story in their own language, which they often do in a style remarkable for its simplicity as well as its power of expression.

We can recommend to teachers of advanced classes a work recently issued from the press of Waterman & Amee, Cambridge, prepared by Dr. Benjamin Rand, of Harvard University. It is entitled 'Selections Illustrating Economic History Since the seven Years' War'; and is intended to furnish a course of reading upon the economic life of the principal industrial nations for the last century or more. Its first topic is "Leading Sections from the English Navigation Acts"; the second, "The Colonial Policy of Europe" (taken from the fourth book of Adam Smith's 'Wealth of Nations'); then follow the "Great Inventions," from Walpole's 'History of England'; "The Economic Causes of the French Revolution," from Von Sybel's 'French Revolution'; "The Emancipating Edict of Stein," from Seeley's 'Life and Times of Stein,' and "The Orders in Council," from Levi's 'History of British Commerce.' There are other extracts, designed to give an idea of English finance from 1793 to 1815, of the English Corn Laws, of the new gold supply after 1848, of the German Zollverein, of the French economic affairs under the Second Empire; of the French indemnity paid to Germany after the Franco-Prussian War, and the application of it by Germany; of industrial progress in Italy, of European public debts, and of our own industrial growth. All the extracts are from the most approved authorities, such as Cairnes, Levasseur, Neymarck, Kolb, and the Tenth Census of the United States. Dr. Rand's

work has been done in the most critical and painstaking manner. He has displayed excellent judgment, not only in his selection of sources, but also in the length and the appropriate character of the extracts which he has made from them. Though its chief worth will be appreciated more by students of economics, the volume will be of great value to general readers of history.

A valuable contribution to the study of mediæval institutions is the 'Étude sur l'histoire des alleux en France,' by Émile Chénon of Rennes (Paris: Larose. 1888). The facts here developed as to allodial property in France are somewhat of a surprise to those of us who have been accustomed to consider the maxim, *Nulle terre sans seigneur*, as the governing principle of landed property in France. M. Chénon shows that it was only in a small part of the country that this rule prevailed. A map *des pays allodiaux en France* gives only Brittany and the countries of Blois, Beauvais, and Boulogne as *pays anti-allodiaux*, in which this maxim is a governing one. A belt of country embracing the entire east and south is given as *pays allodiaux*, in which the contrary rule prevails — *Nul seigneur sans titre;* while most of the western provinces are called *pays censuels*, in which the rule is, *Nul alleu sans titre*, feudal tenure being simply a matter of presumption, *juris tantum*. The allodial lands themselves are classified (p. 38) as *alleux souverains, justiciers*, and *simples*. The first class are true sovereignties, in which the proprietor exercises all regalian rights, as Boisbelle in Berry, the princes of which declared that they held only *de Dieu, de leur épée, et du lignage*. Of this class is the famous kingdom of Yvetot, celebrated by Béranger, which did not lose its sovereignty until 1553. The proprietors of the *alleux justiciers* exercised a similar authority, but only, as the great feudatories did, by special grant, being still subject to the royal authority—the rights of justice being held as a fief. The *alleux simples* were allodial merely as property, being subject, in point of the administration of justice, to the seigneuries within which they were situated.

The four articles of the *English Historical Review* for October are shorter than the average, and perhaps of less general interest. The first article, "The Settlement of Australia," by E. C. K. Gower, fills only ten pages, with an appendix. Then follows "The Tomb of Dante," by E. Moore, Principal of St. Edmund Hall, Oxford. This interesting paper describes the discovery of the bones of Dante in 1865, and discusses the problem of his tomb. "Elizabethan Presbyterianism," by William A. Shaw, considers that phrase of Presbyterianism, especially associated with the name of Cartwright, which belonged to the sixteenth century. The movement, we are told, "stands out from the history of Elizabethan dissent as an abrupt expansion with a distinctly separate genesis, and effective of no results except in so far as it influenced the beginnings of independent separation." Lieut. Col. W. G. Ross, in "The Battle of Naseby," examines the various accounts of the numbers engaged on both sides, and concludes that the army of the Parliament numbered some 13,500 men, that of the King not above 8,000. Of the lesser papers, reviews, etc., which follow, perhaps the most interesting, at least to American readers, is an elaborate review by Lord Acton of Lea's 'History of the Inquisition.' "As a philosophy of religious persecution," he says, "the book is inadequate. The derivation of sects, though resting always upon good supports, stands out from an indistinct background of dogmatic history. The intruding maxims, darkened by shadows of earth, fail to insure at all times the objective and delicate handling of mediæval theory. But the vital parts are protected by a panoply of mail. From the Albigensian crusade to the fall of the Templars, and to that Franciscan movement in which the key to Dante lies, the design and organization, the activity and decline of the Inquisition constitute a sound and solid structure that will survive the censure of all critics." This judgment from a scholar of high rank, himself a Catholic, seems worthy to cite.

Mr. H. H. Johnston discusses, in his characteristic and entertaining way, in the November *Fortnightly*, the question of the probable position of the Emin Pasha relief expedition. He agrees with almost all African authorities that Stanley has joined the German governor, and suggests three alternative courses which he may be pursuing. In conjunction with Emin, he may be operating to the northward of the province of the latter against the Mahdi's forces, thus giving rise to the rumors of the "White Pasha"; he may be simply waiting in the Nile valley for the expected reinforcements under Major Barttelot, meantime helping Emin in the reorganization of his dominions; or he may be marching to the westward, through the provinces of Darfur and Wadai, to the basin of the Niger. Mr. Johnston might have added the fourth conjecture, which is perhaps more probable than this last, that he is proceeding by the west of Lake Victoria Nyanza to Msalala, near its southern extremity, where a depot of supplies for him has been established. Mr. Johnston gives an interesting account of Mr. Stanley's kindly methods of dealing with savages, and incidentally remarks that, from his personal observations on the Congo, he knows that the loss of life during that first famous passage of the river was far less than Stanley himself represents it in his 'Dark Continent.'

The second number of the *Journal of the Gypsy Lore Society*, for October, has come to hand. The popular portion of its contents is relatively small this month. The publishers are T. & A. Constable, Edinburgh.

Babyhood rounds out its fourth volume with a New York and London imprint—an American notion in journalism transported across seas in return for the many the mother country has given us. The leading title is explained in a sub-title: "A Monthly Magazine for Mothers, devoted to the care of infants and young children, and the general interests of the nursery." It has been admirably conducted from the start, and its bound volumes form a domestic library of quite uncommon value. It is a publication of which physicians should be the best friends and advertisers.

English medical skill was in request at the Prussian court eighty-five years ago, when Louise, the mother of the late Emperor William, was still alive. This gracious and heroic lady had great confidence in a Dr. Brown, whom she employed in her own case, and in 1803 desired to attend the Russian Princess Helen, sister of the Emperor Alexander I., during what proved to be her fatal illness. In the current *Vom Fels zum Meer* (F. W. Christern), Dr. G. Egelhaaf communicates letters from the Queen to Brown, Brown's replies, and other correspondence relating to the case in question, together with translations of a part of the physician's diary. Louise's letters are also translated; for she wrote in French, as one may see from the half-dozen examples given in curious facsimile, even to the fancy borders and colored edges of the Queen's note-paper. They are naturally full of tender sympathy for a bosom friend, and are a pleasant confirmation of the Queen's traditional character. Their publication will not shock the Chancellor.

The Bufford Sons Lithographic Co., 335 Broadway, send us a well-executed life-size portrait of Mrs. Benjamin Harrison.

The Woman's College of Baltimore was opened on November 13, with interesting ceremonies. President Gilman of the Johns Hopkins University made an admirable address, touching upon the various ways in which the higher education can make life richer and fuller—a theme which cannot be too frequently preached upon, provided it be done with the simplicity and convincingness which characterized this occasion.

Close upon the above event comes the cheering announcement that the Trustees of Columbia College have consented to the establishment of an affiliated college for women—an "annex," to use the cant expression. It will make no draft on the resources of the college, depending entirely on endowments and tuition fees. The instruction will be given by the Columbia professorial body, and as the organization will be subject to the approval of the Columbia Trustees, the connection is closer than that of the Harvard Annex with that University. Our readers will recall the letter written to us by Mrs. Annie Nathan Meyer, which may be considered as the public opening of the agitation which has attained this happy result.

The ninth annual report of the Society for the Collegiate Instruction of Women, or, in other words, of the Harvard Annex, represents a steady growth in all departments, with a crying need of enlarged quarters. The attendance for the coming year is certain to be larger than last year, and from a very wide range—Hawaii, San Francisco, St. Louis, Kentucky, Virginia, etc. After June of next year, the Society's "Harvard Examinations for Women" will be abandoned, as having served their end.

The New England Meteorological Society proposes to have a Loan Exhibition of Meteorological Apparatus, Photographs, etc., at the Institute of Technology, Boston, in connection with its fourteenth regular meeting in January, 1889. For this purpose the Society invites contributions to any of the following groups of articles: Meteorological apparatus; photographs (of lightning, of clouds, of meteorological apparatus and observatories, of buildings demolished by wind, tornado tracks, overturned trees, etc.); charts and specimens (as, of objects damaged by wind, lightning, hail, frost, and heat). Articles should be sent to A. Lawrence Rotch, Physical Department, Mass. Institute of Technology, Boston, by prepaid mail or express, not later than January 12, 1889, and preferably immediately—marked, also, with the name and description of the article and the name and address of the contributor.

—A very curious document has just been issued by the Commissioner of Patents, entitled 'Women to whom Patents have been granted by the United States Government, 1790 to July 1, 1888.' It is a quarto of 44 pages, and records in round numbers about 2,500 patents, besides 57 reissues. The very first on the list was taken out by Mary Kies in 1809 for "straw-weaving with silk or thread." Mary Brush followed in 1815 with a "corset"; Sophia Usher in 1819 with "cream of tartar, carbonated liquid"; Julia Planton in 1822 with a "foot-stove." From that date the entries are annual, with exception of the years 1827, 1829, 1830, 1832, 1835–39, 1844, 1846, 1852, and 1854–55. The first (short) page of the pamphlet embraces the whole of the half century 1809–58, in which there were precisely fifty patents granted. By

1869 a year's entries require a full page; by 1881, two pages; by 1886, three pages. The first native patentee whose address is recorded is Agdalena S. Goodman, Duval Co., Fla., for "improvement in broom-brushes," 1849, and she was the only Southerner save one up to the outbreak of the civil war. During the same period, New York had furnished 14, Massachusetts 4, Ohio 2, and Maine, Connecticut, New Jersey, and Indiana 1 each. Some one possessing more patience and leisure than ourselves may perhaps satisfy curiosity by summing up for each State to the present date, as well as by classifying the subjects of the patents. These are by no means confined to the domestic arts and conveniences, or to the hygiene or adornment of the female sex. In 1864 Mary Jane Montgomery of this city brought forward her "improved war-vessel," side by side with the "improved lantern dinner-pail" of a Michigan sister; and the same Miss Montgomery in the same year devised an "improvement in locomotive-wheels," having, by the way, many associates in railroad invention, even to "an apparatus for destroying vegetation on railroads." One lady in Iowa, with a male partner, makes an "improvement in cigars"; another, of Philadelphia, offers a considerate "moustache-spoon"; a third, of Boston, contributes a "pantaloon-tree." A gentle competition is observable in "improvements in corpse-coolers"; but we notice only one "apparatus for killing mosquitoes." Some of the more bizarre "devices" are "for inducing sleep"—a companion to the foregoing; "for restoring facial symmetry"; and "for exposing hair to the action of heated vapors." Perhaps in all the 2,500 we may look in vain for a new *principle*.

—It is a long time since we have seen so attractive an edition of a Greek classic as 'The Timæus of Plato,' edited by R. D. Archer-Hind, M.A., Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge (Macmillan). It is a large octavo of 360 pages, and the publishers have dressed it in a garb which makes it a delight to the reader and an ornament to the library. Of all the works of Plato the 'Timæus' is, in modern times, probably the least read. It is Plato's cosmogony, the work in which he gives us his theory of the ultimate constitution of matter, and what he conceives the history of the universe to have been from its origin down to and including the creation of man. The old scholiasts, with more than their usual accuracy, gave it the sub-title, "Concerning Nature; Physical." But everything in connection with physical science has undergone such a complete transformation in modern times that, to the natural philosopher of the present day, the speculations of Plato seem mere poetical fancies. The work is never read in our colleges, and by few out of college, except those who make a special study of the Platonic philosophy. Hence, separate editions of the dialogue are rare. The present is the first English edition, but we most unhesitatingly pronounce it the most learned and the most useful of all that have appeared in any country. A complete English translation, facing the Greek text, offers an assistance which, considering the difficulty and frequent obscurity of the original, will not be disdained by the most accomplished Greek scholar. It is written in excellent English, clear and flowing, and though with a freedom often bordering on paraphrase, yet, in all cases where we have carefully compared it with the Greek, it appears to us a correct and faithful exposition of Plato's meaning. Mr. Archer-Hind's elaborate introduction is a work of far higher importance than the great majority of such preliminary dissertations. It is not merely an introduction to the 'Timæus,' but to the whole Platonic philosophy; even more than this, it gives a broad and comprehensive view of Greek speculative philosophy from its origin to Plato's time. The commentary is very full and almost invariably upon passages whose explanation is desired by the reader; it has few of the characteristics of the notes usually appended to text-books prepared for those learning Greek. Such knowledge as can be readily obtained from the grammar and dictionary is assumed. Mr. Archer-Hind writes for men, not boys. Especially worthy of notice are the comments on the mathematical passages in the 'Timæus.' The numerous diagrams, with the explanations given, set the meaning of these passages in so clear a light that one who has puzzled over them before often wonders why he was perplexed. It is not probable that we shall have another edition of the 'Timæus' for some time to come, and therefore it is agreeable to think that the want of another will not for a long time be felt. Two indexes, one Greek, the other English, are welcome additions to the many excellences of this handsome and scholarly work.

—Those of our readers who are interested in the earlier growth of the French monarchy will find a thorough and exact discussion of the contribution of Philip Augustus to this development in a doctor's dissertation by Mr. Williston Walker, who has just been called to the Chair of History at Bryn Mawr. Under the title, "On the Increase of Royal Power in France under Philip Augustus," Mr. Walker examines, "(1) the theory of the royal power and position of the royal family; (2) the central administration; (3) the local administration and the relation of the King to the feudal and corporate elements of the kingdom." One has but to compare the pages of this essay with the chapters on Philip Augustus in the larger histories of France, to see immediately that Mr. Walker has made a valuable addition to existing accounts of that long and active reign. Where the ordinary narratives are general, he is specific; and, with constant reference to the sources, he passes under review the whole system of the royal government. Warnkönig, in his 'Französische Staatsgeschichte,' gives many details about the subordinate parts of the administration, but this particular question which Mr. Walker discusses is not nearly so fully examined, nor are his chronological bounds so definitely fixed. Besides, much progress has been made in historical criticism since Warnkönig wrote. Philip received his second name, not, as Michelet states, because he was born in August, but from the contemporary historian Rigord, who says he bestowed it upon him because writers usually give that title to rulers who increase (*augeo*) their realms. If Rigord had been familiar with the governmental methods of the first Augustus, he would no doubt have seen additional propriety in giving Philip that title, for Philip built up his own power on similar lines. The important feudal office of seneschal and chancellor, previously held by leading nobles, and frequently the strongholds of dangerous opposition to the King's power, he practically suppressed. The seneschalship was discontinued, and the duties of the chancellor he intrusted to various members of his council. This policy immeasurably strengthened the monarchy by placing under the immediate control of the King the power which had been exercised by the great officers in a semi-independent fashion. In regard to the other high officers he was more conservative; yet the tendency was the same. The butlership declined in importance, the chamberlainship became largely honorary, the constableship was not changed much, but the active duties were passed into the hands of officers of lower rank. In this policy Philip was not an innovator, but rather the successful executor of the designs of his father and grandfather.

—In discussing the origin of the peers, Mr. Walker examines the first recorded instance of their participation in the judicial proceedings of the court, the trial of King John. Following Bémont (*Revue Historique*, September and November, 1886), Mr. Walker is inclined to discard the view held by the majority of writers (*e. g.*, Stubbs and Pearson) that John was twice tried, and condemned by default in 1202 on complaint of his vassals in Poitou, and again in 1203 for the murder of Arthur. It is affirmed that none of the contemporary historians of France record the second condemnation, while for the first there is considerable evidence. It hardly seems to us that the case is made out. Other features of Mr. Walker's essay we cannot take up here, but will refer those interested to the work itself, which will amply repay reading. We are informed in the biographical note that Mr. Walker was graduated from Amherst in 1883, from the Hartford Theological Seminary in 1886, and that he took his doctor's degree at Leipzig this last summer.

THE QUARREL OF THE DOCTORS.

The Fatal Illness of Frederick the Noble. By Sir Morell Mackenzie. London: Sampson Low & Co.; New York: Brentano. 1888.

THE sad story of the fatal illness of the late Emperor of Germany, with its doubtful diagnosis and its alternations of hope and fear, and of the patient, heroic struggle of the noble sufferer against the inroads of malignant disease, is still fresh in the memory of every one; and now, to complete the painful picture, the details of a disreputable controversy between the physicians in charge of the case have been spread before the public.

Early last summer the German physicians published their official report, in which they angrily denounced Dr. Mackenzie as a bungling manipulator, and threw upon him the whole blame for the failure to operate at a time when an operation might have cured the disease. With regard to these accusations it may be said that, in charging Mackenzie with lack of skill, the Germans were probably guided by their feelings rather than by their judgment; for, whatever faults Mackenzie may have, his bitterest professional enemies (and they are numerous enough in England) have always admitted his wonderful manual dexterity. Moreover, the German accounts of Mackenzie's operations are given in such an evidently hostile spirit, and contain such obvious inaccuracies, that no great confidence can be felt in the ability of the writers to make and report their observations honestly.

As for the responsibility for the failure to operate in the early stages of the disease, it seems to be perfectly well established that the German physicians were, on May 18, 1887, unanimously of the opinion that their patient was suffering from laryngeal cancer. It was further decided that on May 21 the larynx should be opened from the front and the morbid growth removed. On the evening of the 20th, Mackenzie first appeared upon the scene, listened to the reports of his German colleagues on the history of the case and the grounds for their diagnosis, examined the patient, declared himself by no means convinced

of the malignant nature of the disease, and objected most emphatically to the proposed operation until the microscopic examination of a portion of the growth removed through the mouth should have confirmed the diagnosis of cancer. To this delay the German physicians assented; and from this time till the close of the Emperor's life, though German physicians were constantly in attendance, the influence of Mackenzie seems to have been predominant.

One cannot fail to be struck by the readiness with which the six German physicians yielded to Mackenzie's guidance in this important matter, and it is difficult to avoid the suspicion that they were perhaps after all not quite so sure of their diagnosis in May, 1887, as when they wrote their report. Had they been so, the course most consistent with professional dignity would have been to state their inability to concur in Mackenzie's proposed course of treatment, and to withdraw from the case if the patient desired to follow the English physician's advice. Having retained their connection with the case, they certainly cannot avoid sharing with Mackenzie the responsibility for the delay. On the whole, therefore, the tone and spirit of the German report creates an impression not altogether unfavorable to Mackenzie; but unfortunately this impression is not confirmed by reading Mackenzie's own book, for we find him dealing in angry vituperation, reckless misstatements, bitter personal invectives, and downright charges of malpractice, in a way which clearly demonstrates that in this kind of controversy he has nothing to learn from the example set him by his colleagues.

It is alike painful and unprofitable to follow the details of this thoroughly disgraceful quarrel. The only question which interests the general reader is, whether the treatment of the case was in all respects the best adapted to save a life so important to the nations of Europe. As to this point it must be borne in mind that six eminent German physicians (though they subsequently allowed themselves to be overruled by Mackenzie) were in May, 1887, ready to stake their professional reputations on the diagnosis of cancer and to proceed at once to an operation. In the light of subsequent events, and allowing full weight to the statistics of similar operations, and bearing in mind the specially favorable conditions under which the operation would have been performed, there seems to be little doubt that the course thus recommended was in accordance with the most advanced medical science, and offered a reasonable chance of saving a life otherwise doomed to a speedy extinction. Upon the physician who urged delay must, therefore, rest the chief responsibility for depriving the illustrious patient of whatever chance of life an operation would have afforded.

It still remains to be explained how it could happen that a physician of Dr. Mackenzie's skill and experience could fail to concur in a diagnosis reached with such unanimity by his colleagues, and so fully confirmed by subsequent events. In this connection a phrase in Mackenzie's preface is significant. He writes: "I have been unable, for obvious reasons, to allude to several points which, though not bearing on the purely medical aspect of the case, were yet most important factors in determining the course which was pursued." The considerations not "purely medical" can hardly have been other than political in their character, and, among political considerations, that arising from the feeble state of the Emperor William's health in the spring of 1887 was obviously the most important. Does Dr. Mackenzie mean to imply that it was considered more desirable that the Crown Prince should become Emperor than that he should be cured of his disease? On this hypothesis Mackenzie's course is comprehensible, for by refusing to operate he doubtless gave his patient a better chance of living six months, though a poorer chance of living six years. How far a physician may honorably allow his treatment to be influenced by considerations of this sort is a question which each practitioner must settle for himself; and it is easy to see how, in a case where such motives enter in, differences of opinion are certain to arise.

There is nothing, however, to excuse the tone in which the controversy has been carried on. It is a quarrel in which there are no laurels for either party, and of which the effect will be to produce in impartial readers a feeling that the heir to the imperial throne of Germany would have fared better had he been the humblest hospital patient in his father's dominions.

THE AFGHAN FRONTIER OF BRITISH INDIA.

Lettres sur l'Inde. À la Frontière afghane. Par James Darmesteter. Paris: Alphonse Lemerre. 1888.

In the year 1886, Professor Darmesteter was commissioned by the French Minister of Public Instruction to undertake certain philological inquiries on the northwest frontier of British India. In pursuance of this mission he spent seven months in the two frontier districts of Peshawur and Hazara. The better part of his time, he tells us, was taken up in technical researches altogether devoid of the element of the picturesque. These inquiries, at the same time, brought him into somewhat intimate relations with a strange and picturesque people; he saw much that was new and interesting to him, and in these letters he has endeavored to reproduce, for the benefit of French readers, some portion of what he saw and heard. The result is a book as entertaining as it is instructive. The reader who has never been in India will find here nothing hard, technical, or obscure to diminish the piquancy of Professor Darmesteter's vivacious delineations of men and things; and those who know India best, if they find nothing positively new in these pages, will benefit by observing how familiar facts impressed the mind of a keen and intelligent inquirer. Especially in reference to the people of the country are the remarks of a competent observer, like the Professor, of value to their alien rulers. An Englishman, whether he be an official or not, who permanently resides in India, occupies a position the most disadvantageous for understanding or appreciating the character of the people. On landing in India he lacks the linguistic ability to communicate with them, and is, in consequence, thrown wholly upon the society of his countrymen, where what may be described as a traditional view of the Indian character reigns supreme. There being absolutely no social intercourse between the British community and the people of India, this traditional view is a thing made up of the strangest shreds and tatters—mere odds and ends of knowledge, pieced together in a wholly haphazard manner. It has, as its foundation, a sense of unquestionable superiority, originating in the fact of conquest, and maintained by all the political and social relations of the two races. It is built up by sweeping generalizations, deduced from the peccadillos of domestic servants, the deviations from truth of terrified witnesses in a court of law, and the devices of those few natives who seek to compass their own advantage by pandering to the vanity of their white superiors.

When once this traditional view of the native character has taken possession of the mind, it is all but impossible for an Englishman to divest himself of it. For instance, not one Englishman in a hundred ever acquires such a command over any of the languages spoken in India as to be able to converse freely upon general topics with those who employ it as their native tongue. He knows enough to stumble through his official duties, his business, or whatever else it is that has taken him to that country; and that over, his intercourse with the people ceases, quite as much from inability to carry it further as from want of inclination. In former years, when Englishmen were accustomed to form connections with native women, and did not return to their own country once in twenty years, no such gulf as that which now exists divided them from the people of India. This growing difficulty of "keeping touch" with the subject races is, indeed, the greatest of the many dangers which threaten the stability of the Empire. Now, an accomplished oriental scholar, like Professor Darmesteter, landing in India for the purpose of philological research, is exposed to none of those influences which warp and pervert the judgment of the ordinary Englishman. He has been drawn thither, not in order to make a livelihood, but by the intellectual fascination which the East has already exercised upon him; the very purpose for which he comes inclines him towards the people rather than their rulers; he has no official or traditional prepossessions to overcome—and all these circumstances combine to endow his picture of the country with a freshness and impartiality which cannot be expected in an Anglo-Indian official.

Although the greater part of these letters is taken up with the two districts of Peshawur and Hazara, the Professor makes many suggestive reflections upon the condition of India generally. For example, he notes how superficial so far has been the influence of the West upon the people of India, in that the movement in the direction of political change is entirely disjoined from any desire for social or religious reform. There is absolutely no awakening of intellectual life (properly so called) in India. A certain proportion of the population has acquired more or less knowledge of English, but the deeper springs of thought and conviction have not been touched. This, of course, is due to the arrogant and unsympathetic form in which western civilization, as incarnated in the British community, is presented to the people. Could that civilization come among them as a friend and equal, and not as a kind of omnipotent ploughshare relentlessly rooting up whatever checks its course, the results would, in all probability, be very different. On this and other kindred topics, Professor Darmesteter has much to say that is worth reading, but it is chiefly as a picture of native and Anglo-Indian life on the far-away military frontier of the Empire that the book is of value.

The natural boundary of Hindostan is the river Indus. As soon as the traveller crosses that river, he enters into the country of the Afghans. Anterior, however, to the British conquest of the Punjab, the ruling power in that province was a religious sect known as the Sikhs. Originally the religious tenets of this sect consisted in the profession of a mild and gentle theism and the practice of passive submission to the powers that be. The ruthless persecution of the Delhi emperors had the effect of changing this community of Oriental Quakers into the Ironsides of India. The Afghans being as fanatical in their faith as the Sikhs were in theirs, the religious wars between the two peoples were incessant; and un-

der the conduct of their great leader, Runjeet Singh, the Sikhs established their power along the whole Afghan frontier, which extends along the banks of the Indus for eight hundred miles from Hazara to Moultan. When the British took possession of the Punjab, the question was discussed by the Government of India whether or not this strip of territory should be restored to Afghanistan. In an evil hour for the British Empire, it was decided in the negative. In the strip of open country which divides the Indus from the mountains of Afghanistan, the British had little difficulty in establishing a reign of law, but their authority ceases where the plains come to an end. The bleak and difficult hills which surround the cantonment of Hazara, which encircle the Peshawur Valley on the north, and which, under the name of the Suleiman Mountains, stretch southward in the direction of Moultan, are known collectively as Yaghistan. The word *Yaghee* signifies a man who can in no way be brought into an orderly condition, a thoroughly worthless, turbulent fellow; and such preëminently is the condition of Yaghistan. It acknowledges allegiance neither to the Ameer nor to the Viceroy. When the tribes are not engaged in fighting with each other, they vary the monotony of existence by raiding upon the Afghans—British subjects—who dwell in the plain country. Since the annexation of the Punjab, the Indian Government has sent about twenty-six military expeditions into the hills to inflict retribution for unprovoked raids upon its subjects. The mountaineers, however, remain incorrigible, and only a few weeks ago an army of ten thousand men had to be set in motion from Hazara to punish the tribesmen of the Black Mountain for the murder of two British officers.

Now, among the objects to which Professor Darmesteter devoted himself while on the northwest frontier, was the study of Pushtoo, the language of the Afghans. This naturally led him to take a lively interest in these people, and more especially in their songs and ballads; for, wild and rude as the Afghan is, there is a real vein of poetry running through the harsher elements of his character. Just as the history of the Arabs prior to the advent of Mohammed has been reconstructed from their poetry, so might a competent scholar do with the Afghans. Professor Darmesteter has made admirable use of these abundant materials. It is his frequent quotations from this ballad poetry which gives to his portraiture of the Afghans so much of freshness and reality, combined, as it is, with a keen eye for the distinctive characteristics of men. With a like happy and successful touch he has delineated the fearful monotony of Anglo-Indian life in a military cantonment, the qualities of the fighting races—Sikh, Ghoorkha, and Pathan—which constitute the effective portion of the native army; and while he sees clearly the limitations and defects of the British character as affected by its Eastern surroundings, he renders ample justice to the courage and honesty of purpose which won and keep this position.

History of Tennessee: The Making of a State. By James Phelan, [M.C.]. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888. Pp. 476. 12mo.

THIS is a somewhat pretentious book, taking up the lines of Green, Freeman, and Froude. The author is fond of the continuity of English life, beginning at the mouths of the Elbe and Weser, stopping for a while in Britain, and crossing the Atlantic to America. The theories about the continuity of Anglo-Saxon laws and habits of thought are obtruded again and again, almost *ad nauseam*.

The merit of the book lies in the interesting facts which it tells, though these are often obscured by their arrangement. When Mr. Phelan comes across a new actor on the political stage, he does not merely go back to his birth or first public appearance, which cannot well be avoided, but he also tells us all of his later doings and adventures, breaking the thread of the story so that it is often hard to make out whom he is writing about. The narrative begins with the year 1769. The discoveries of De Soto, the travels of La Salle and Marquette, the temporary French outposts on the Chickasaw Bluffs, left no mark on the features of the State. In 1769 a few settlers from Virginia met at Bean's cabin in the Watauga valley, near the State line; they formed the first germ of the body politic, the Watauga Association. The history starts here, and ends virtually with the outbreak of the civil war in 1861. What little is said of later events is mainly in justification of the repudiation (the writer calls it the "compromise") of the State debt in 1882.

The first settlers in East Tennessee came from Virginia, and took up their lands in supposed obedience to its laws. When they found themselves upon the territory of North Carolina, they asked its Legislature to extend the laws and protection of that State over them, which was done in 1776, but in name only; they were left to fight their own battles with the Cherokees. In 1784 the Western country was offered, rather than ceded, to the United States; its neglect became absolute. Then the revolutionary State of "Franklin" was formed, which, after a two years' flickering existence, collapsed, the settlers returning to their allegiance to the Old North State. In 1790 the territorial government of the Territory south of the Ohio River was set up with a Governor and Council; in 1794 a Legislative Assembly was vouchsafed to the settlers; in 1796 the State of Tennessee was admitted to the Union. Thus, in the course of twenty-seven years, the country saw six different Governments; but amidst all of them the constant petty wars with the Indians went on, with all their horrors and brutalities. The best fighters became the natural leaders of the people.

In these early days, little more than the extreme east of Tennessee was trodden by the f ot of the white man. Knoxville became the capital in 1791, instead of still more eastern locations; Nashville (the successor of Nashborough) though founded about 1779, grew into importance at a later day, Memphis and West Tennessee much later. But the best part of the book is given to the few years in which the few pioneers among the rugged hills and dales round the upper Tennessee and the Holston rivers underwent their trials and hardships. The author believes in the maxim, "Happy is the people that has no history," and thinks that the best material for the historian is gone when the State is admitted into the Union, no longer quarrelling with the mother State or with Congress, well protected against Indian inroads, and steadily progressing towards wealth and the power of numbers.

The great figures in the history of Tennessee are John Sevier, Andrew Jackson, and Andrew Johnson. Comparatively little is said about the two latter, who are supposed to be known from their career upon the broader national stage. John Sevier belongs to Tennessee alone. With pardonable State pride, our author calls the battle of King's Mountain, in which Sevier, with two hundred sturdy pioneers from the Holston valley took a conspicuous part, the turning-point of the Revolutionary war, and thus derives America's free existence from the brave deeds of those who built the State of Tennessee. As a soldier against "Britishers" and Tories, as Indian fighter, as leader and Governor of the rebel State of Franklin, and lastly as the acknowledged chief of the full-grown State of Tennessee, John Sevier is as striking a figure in the Southwest of his time as Samuel Houston, fifty years after him, starting from Tennessee, became in a new Southwest. The marriage of Houston, his election as Governor of Tennessee, his sudden resignation and departure because of his wife's departed love, are well but briefly told. David Crockett, the most picturesque figure of the Western backwoods, comes in only for mere mention: has not everybody read Crockett's life and sayings? Hugh Lawson White, about whom Jackson's enemies in the South rallied as a Presidential candidate in 1836, is highly praised for his purity and virtue, but we do not learn what, if anything, he really did. John Bell is, to our historian, the ablest politician of the State, and is set far above the more brilliant Francis Grundy.

But Mr. Phelan's warmest praise is reserved for a wholly non-political character, Samuel Tate, whose well-directed energy raised the money for completing the Charleston and Memphis Railroad. "He promised at the time (August, 1854) to have the road completed by the 1st of April, 1857. It is worthy of remark that the last spike was driven on the 27th of March, 1857." To this railroad Memphis, the commercial capital of the State, owes much of its wealth and preëminence, and a great part of western and southern Tennessee an outlet for its products and access to the luxuries and amenities of the country at large. The advance made by the advent of the steamboat, as compared with the former days of canoe and pirogue, keelboat and "broadhorn," was much more marked; but steamboats were built by "capital" for profit, while the motive power of the early railroad was, in the words of our author, a compound of agriculture and sentiment.

The change from the habits of the frontiersman to those of civilized life is well put:

"When first we meet with him he wears moccasins, leggings, hunting-shirt, and coonskin cap. His rifle rests in the hollow of his arm. Around his waist is a leathern belt, while shot, powder, and powder horn are strung over opposite shoulders. A dog is apt to be at his heels. As the settlement advances, however, his character is modified in a great degree with his appearance. The cap goes first, then the moccasins and leggings, and finally the hunting-shirt. He hunts less and works more. Perhaps he now has a negro slave or two, a couple of horses, and a few 'herd of stock.' His family increases, also his slaves and his cattle. He loses some of his prejudice against the refinements of life. He even brooks a ruffled shirt. . . . His wealth continues to increase. He builds a frame house in which there are various rooms. . . . His son is with Doak in the East, or at Davidson College; his daughters are possibly in South Carolina, etc." (pp. 184, 185.)

Slaves, by the way, are mentioned very sparingly in the early days which precede the formation of the State. The "institution" was guaranteed in the acts of cession and acceptance, but it found little foothold till peace against the Indian enemy was secured by compact numbers, and till those well-to-do citizens of the Eastern States who owned human merchandise were no longer repelled by the fear of intolerable hardships from crossing the Appalachian Mountains.

The book contains a chapter on "Tennessee Institutes," and one on "Local Self-Government," tracing from England through North Carolina the leading features of civil political

law that prevail in Tennessee. Mr. Phelan shows why the Southwest must differ from New England in the matter of the township, and all that pertains to it, though the institutions of both come from the same English source, each branch of the American offshoot retaining what is most in accord with its needs. A chapter on "Religion in Tennessee" follows, which is interesting, as giving the rise of the "Cumberland Presbyterian Church" out of the Cumberland Presbytery. The very hardness and narrowness of the Presbyterian ministers who then ruled in the Transylvania Synod over Kentucky and Tennessee, as manifested in continual accusations of and trials for heresy, drove out those members of the Cumberland Presbytery (so named from the river flowing through Northern Tennessee) who favored the calling of unlearned laymen to the ministry, in order to supply the great demand for spiritual leaders which was nourished by the camp-meetings. These were first held on the border-line of Kentucky and Tennessee in the opening years of the present century. The Cumberland Church was, in fact, a compromise between the Presbyterian and Methodist models. It was owing to the dissensions in the former that the latter church soon gained its great predominance in Tennessee. The "jerkings," a nervous epidemic, which grew out of the camp-meeting excitement, and raged for three or more years through the two sister States of the Southwest, is touched upon very curtly.

There is a chapter on "Schools." The "first literary institution established in the great Mississippi Valley," says our author, on the authority of "Monette," was Martin Academy, chartered in 1788, under the presidency of Samuel Doak, a Presbyterian minister of Scotch-Irish descent, great-grandfather of H. M. Doak of Nashville, to whom the book is dedicated. We fear that some citizen of Lexington, Kentucky, the "Western Athens," will dispute this claim of priority. The chapter on "Banks" recounts the blunders and disasters which Tennessee shared with all the Western and many Eastern States. From the chapter on "Internal Improvements" we have already quoted the glories of Sam Tate. Another chapter treats of "Murrell and the Reign of Disorder." John A. Murrell was simply the head of the "Mystic Clan" of murderers, robbers, horse-thieves, and counterfeiters, who infested the Southwest for years, and, by terrorizing the better elements of society, long defied justice. He was in 1834 convicted of one of his many crimes, and sent to the penitentiary for a long enough term to render him harmless. The expulsion of the gamblers from Vicksburg in the following year (1835) is mentioned as breaking the hold of the vicious classes on the Mississippi-River country; but enough lawlessness was left.

Dissection of the Dog as a Basis for the Study of Physiology. By W. H. Howell, A.B., Ph.D., Associate in Biology, Johns Hopkins University. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1888. Pp. 107, 7 figures.

THE author rightly holds that "even an elementary study of human physiology ought to be preceded by a more or less thorough dissection of some mammal." Of the reasons given for preferring the dog to the rabbit or cat, the last alone has any force, and this only where the dog is the usual subject of physiological experimentation; no ground is assigned for publishing a new dissection of this quadruped after the favorable reception of several editions of Foster & Langley's 'Practical Physiology,' which, by the way, like the account of canine anatomy in Huxley's 'Vertebrates,' and indeed all literature, is unmentioned. The moderate size of the book is due partly to the judicious omission of parts having comparatively little physiological importance, and partly to the brevity of the directions for dissection. This feature the author undertakes to justify in the preface:

"To a person altogether ignorant of the methods of dissecting, a written description cannot fully supply the place of an instructor; . . . to students with some little experience, or working under the guidance of an instructor, it is a hindrance rather than advantage to attempt to describe just the direction and extent of each cut," etc.

It will be noted that here is a grave question in educational methods which might well occupy the attention of a body like the American Society of Naturalists. On this occasion the reviewer contents himself with dissenting from both the above propositions; with claiming that the time of an instructor should never be taken for anything that a printed book can supply; and with pointing out that (1) the present work is professedly designed for absolutely untrained beginners; (2) the author's claim that "it is better to leave something to the intelligence and discretion of the teacher or the pupil" might, it would seem, have warranted the omission of the initial paragraph of "dissection of the eye": "With a moistened sponge clean the exposed portion of the eyeball and the eyelids from dirt;" (3) in one respect, namely, as to cutting the muscles at their attachments, the directions are not only superfluous, from the author's own standpoint, but at variance with the practice and precept of all expert anatomists.

It would be hardly fair to estimate the author's experience, judgment, and acquaintance with the views of other anatomists from the following extraordinary sentence upon that liquid which the "Autocrat" characterized as "destroying the organs of the living, but conferring a kind of immortality upon those of the dead," and which the late Louis Agassiz and Spencer F. Baird gave weeks of their precious lives in persuading Congress to remit the tax upon for natural-history purposes: "Immersing the dog in alcohol will keep it from decomposing, but leaves it in such a bad condition for dissecting that it is not to be recommended." This is as wise and just as it would be for a professed cook to declare that "exposing the lamb to heat will cook it, but leaves it in such a bad condition for eating that it is not to be recommended." In reviewing another laboratory manual, in which several pages are devoted to explicit directions for the use of various grades of alcohol for various purposes, a leading anatomist remarked (*American Journal of the Medical Sciences*, January, 1883): "Judging from the condition in which specimens are often presented for inspection at our medical societies, it is evident that not one physician in a hundred knows the use of alcohol as a preservative." Is the Biological Department of Johns Hopkins University prepared to reject this agent upon grounds fairly comparable with those upon which certain well-disposed but ill-informed persons denounce alcohol as a beverage as "always and for all people a poison"? Plaster of Paris is recommended for injection of the blood-vessels rather than the starch-mixtures introduced by Pansch and improved by Gage, which are preferable on nearly all accounts.

As usual in such works, the directions for obtaining the brain are anthropotomical in source, vague, and unsufficient. Notwithstanding the assurance that "with a little care the cap of the skull may be isolated without tearing the brain at all," the present writer ventures to doubt whether this ever has been or ever will be accomplished: the bony tentorium is not even mentioned, yet it forms a serious and commonly unexpected impediment.

Little fault is to be found with the seven diagrams, mostly of vessels and nerves; but one would naturally expect in addition an outline of the base of the brain. There are errors respecting the similarity of the roofs of the two parts of the fourth ventricle, and the representation of the "vago-sympathetic" nerve as if not easily separable into its two constituents. In view of the famous controversy between two English anatomists, twenty-five years ago, as to the presence of the "posterior horn of the lateral ventricle" in apes, the statement on page 82 that the dog always has even a "very inconspicuous" representative of it should, perhaps, be more extended. Although functionless, the rudimentary clavicle which exists in some dogs might well have been mentioned in connection with the tendinous intersection of the *levator humeri*.

The preface professes to enumerate "the terms of direction made use of, as *anterior*, meaning towards the head; *posterior*, towards the tail; *dorsal* and *ventral*, with the usual significance; *right* and *left*, *inner* and *outer*, with reference to the midline of the body." *Midline* is an improvement upon *middle line* or *median line*, and the use of *dorsal* and *ventral* is to be commended; the text, however, exhibits frequent lapses into the customary ambiguities, *above*, *below*, *over*, *under*, *forward*, *downward*, *backward*, *outer*, *outside*, and *internal*, any of which might have two or more meanings, excepting for one already familiar with the facts. The following unusual names and interpretations should have been justified in the book itself, or references should have been given to publications in which they have been submitted to competent tribunals: "*infra-cardiac*" for azygous lobe of the lung; "*great tubercle*" for greater tuberosity of the humerus; "*latissimus extensor*" for the dorso-epitrochlearis; and the inclusion of all the muscular masses, from the ribs and sternum to the humerus, under the one name, *pectoralis major*. The best bit of description is that of the heart (p. 42). English weights and measures are commonly employed, yet on page 12 the same paragraph contains *feet* and *grammes*.

The page is large and the type clear. Typographical errors (*e. g.*, *calices*) are few, but there is great irregularity in the hyphenation of names; in fact, the needless hyphens are so numerous as to give some pages the look of a child's reader. The index is far from complete.

Goethe und Karl August. Studien zu Goethe's Leben von Heinrich Düntzer. Zweite neubearbeitete und vollendete Auflage. Leipzig: Dyk'sche Buchhandlung; New York: Westermann.

THIS huge book, made of three volumes in one, and containing nearly a thousand closely printed pages, is the latest achievement of the indefatigable Heinrich Düntzer, who, however it may stand with his other claims to a monument, will certainly deserve one for his industry. As far back as 1859 he published a volume entitled 'Goethe und Karl August während der ersten fünfzehn Jahre ihrer Verbindung.' In 1864, a second volume appeared, which continued the history down to 1805. Then the work stagnated until 1886, when the original publisher's

successor proposed a new edition of the first two volumes and the completion of the work in a third. To this the author assented, but found it necessary to rewrite entirely what had already appeared. As the preface is dated May, 1887, we infer that this enormous task was performed by Düntzer, who is now seventy-five years old, in about a year. Such a feat means, of course, little more than that the inveterate book-maker, who has written a fair-sized library upon subjects connected with the great days of Weimar, has rehashed the familiar materials, and so—made another book.

The work of Düntzer, his merits and his limitations, are so well known that extended criticism of the volume before us is unnecessary. Suffice it to say that this is a work like his other works: it exhibits the same evidence of prodigious industry in reading and excerpting, the same pathetic fidelity in chronicling small beer, and the same lack of critical capacity, of literary skill, and of the other higher qualities of style that go to make biography delightful. The lives of Goethe and Karl August are described circumstantially from the beginning of their connection to the death of the Grand Duke in 1828. The tireless chronicler follows them from month to month, and even from day to day, telling us where they went, whom they saw, what the weather was, with whom they dined, and how they felt. The book will undoubtedly find readers among the growing legion of those who read about Goethe for the purpose of writing about Goethe; but it will hardly make numerous friends among those who do not belong to this class, especially among those with whom a sense of the shortness of life is a real present fact of consciousness.

To some people in this country, as well as to many in Germany, the fact of chief interest in connection with this work of Düntzer's is that, in spite of its pretensions to thoroughness, it was written without access to the Goethe archives at Weimar, and that, too, though the archives are known to contain not a little of unpublished correspondence between Goethe and Karl August, as well as other documents likely to throw light upon the relations of the pair to each other. This is doubtless an incident of Düntzer's quarrel with what he calls the "Berlin-Weimar ring"; at least, we infer as much from a sentence of his preface, in which, speaking of the documents just referred to, he observes that he has "spared himself the hopeless attempt to obtain access to them." In view of the fact that comprehensive biographies of Goethe and Karl August are among the plans of the Grand-Duchess Sophie and her advisers, it would seem to require some assurance to enter the field just now with a publication of this nature got up without the help of the Weimar collections. But of assurance Düntzer has no lack, as is sufficiently shown, for instance, by his recent exploit of reëditing Goethe's letters to Frau von Stein after Wilhelm Fielitz had just given them to the world in two volumes as admirably edited as they are handsomely printed. Fielitz had, however, reproduced Goethe's orthography, and this was displeasing to Düntzer, who has always had a fancy for correcting and normalizing Goethe's text. Furthermore, Fielitz had assigned conjectural dates to a number of dateless letters, and printed them in the body of the volumes in chronological order. Düntzer thought they should have been either omitted entirely or printed by themselves in an appendix. So he went to work and put out an edition of his own, which has, as the *Goethe-Jahrbuch* very justly remarks, "not the slightest independent value."

Henry the Second. By Mrs. J. R. Green. [Twelve English Statesmen.] Macmillan & Co. 1888. 12mo, pp. 224.

No greater service can be rendered to the student of constitutional history than to lay before him, in concrete form, a truthful picture of the practical working of institutions at some critical epoch. The most accurate analysis of the forms and forces of government is but the exhibition of a piece of dead machinery, which needs to be seen in operation in order to be really understood; and, what is of still more importance, such an analysis can take no account of the human passions and interests which enter into all systems of government as a disturbing element. We may speak of the machinery of government, but it is machinery which never works mechanically or with perfect smoothness. There is no more fertile source of misunderstanding in historical study than the assumption that statutes and organic forms actually govern the life of the community: if this is not true at the present day, much less can it be true in ruder and less orderly times. The too formal and systematic notions derived from the study of the machinery of government are best corrected by such a concrete presentation as that suggested.

Many historians have undertaken, with more or less success, to provide such a sketch of government in its actual workings, either as an independent writing or as a part of larger works; but we are not acquainted with any attempt so successful as that of Mrs. Green, in her account of Henry II. The importance of this epoch cannot, of course, be overestimated; nor, for the matter of that, its obscurity and difficulty, if this prince is sometimes represented as the legislator of feudalism and sometimes as its destroyer—both possible points of views, and true in certain relations. At all events, he stood half way between the Norman Conquest, which introduced fundamentally new principles of administration, and Edward I., with whom the English Constitution took its final shape; and it was the peculiar shape in which he cast the institutions inherited from Anglo-Saxon times and from the Norman conquerors which made possible the great constitutional development of the thirteenth century.

The principal value of the work is as an intelligible description of the condition of society and government at this turning-point in English history, and of the reforms effected by Henry II. Take, as a specimen of the work, this passage, relating to the administration of justice (p. 55):

"It is scarcely possible to estimate the difficulties in the way of justice when Henry came to the throne. The wretched freeholders, summoned to the Shire Court from farm and cattle, from mill or anvil or carpenter's bench, knew well the terrors of the journey through marsh and fen and forest, the dangers of flood and torrent, and perhaps of outlawed thief or murderer, the privations and hardships of the way; and the heavy fines which occur in the King's rolls for non-attendance show how anxiously great numbers of the suitors avoided joining in the troublesome and thankless business of the court. When they reached the place of trial, a great medley of business awaited them, as questions of criminal jurisdiction, of feudal tenure, of English 'sac and soc,' of Norman franchises and Saxon liberties, with procedure sometimes of the one people, sometimes of the other. The days dragged painfully on as, without any help from trained lawyers, the 'suitors' sought to settle perplexed questions between opposing claims of national, provincial, ecclesiastical, and civic laws, or made arduous journeys to visit the scene of some murder or outrage, or sought for evidence on some difficult problem of fact. . . . The procedure of the courts was antiquated, and no longer guided by consistent principles. Their modes of trial were so cumbrous, formal, and inflexible that it was scarcely possible to avoid some minute technical mistake which might invalidate the final decision. The business of the larger courts, too, was for the most part carried on in French, under sheriff, or bailiff, or lord of the manor. . . . When each side in a trial claimed its own customary law, and neither side understood the speech of the other, the president of the court had every temptation to be despotic and corrupt, and the interpreter between him and his suitors became an important person, who had much influence in deciding what mode of procedure was to be followed. . . . The men of that day looked too often with utter hopelessness to the administration of justice; there was no peril so great in all the dangers that surrounded their lives as the peril of the law; there was no oppression so cruel as the oppression wrought by the harsh and rigid forms of the courts. From such calamities the miserable and despairing victims could look for no help, save from the miraculous aid of the saints."

The Constitution and its reforms are, if the most important, yet only one of the large subjects discussed in the book. The personality of Henry and his court and realm, the collision of the civil and ecclesiastical authorities, the conquest of Ireland, the civil wars, are all treated with equal lucidity and graphic interest. And if we have dwelt especially upon the graphic character of the work, it must not be understood to be lacking in the substantial qualities of scholarship. Its chief value is to supplement works of an analytic character, like that of Bishop Stubbs; yet it need not be used solely to supplement, but will serve by itself as a brief but correct outline of the Constitution and its history at this period.

In the middle of page 10 *Lorraine* should, of course, be *Touraine*. In the middle of page 47 it seems that we should read *canon* law instead of *civil* law; at any rate Gratian's *Decretum* was canon law. We ought to add that this work not merely presents a general sketch, but is full of incident, sometimes very entertaining.

Elizabeth Barrett Browning. By John H. Ingram. (Famous Women Series.) 16mo, pp. 264. Boston: Roberts Bros. 1888.

It seems strange that eighteen other women, many of them of far less distinction, should have preceded Mrs. Browning in this series; but the fact is explained by there being the least possible material in her case for an interesting biography. During the twenty-seven years since her death, her friends have carefully refrained from giving to the public any records of her life, save when Mr. Horne printed her letters to him. This wise forbearance can perhaps not be prolonged by those who are called upon to make familiar to another generation an illustrious name, but it renders their task a difficult one. Its difficulties have been in no degree overcome by Mr. Ingram. His pages are as dull, as clumsy, as inadequately thought out, and as imperfectly phrased, as possible. He has contented himself with accomplishing the work merely of a compiler, bringing together the trivial information to be gathered from Miss Mitford, Mr. Story, and the Horne letters, and connecting such passages with criticisms by Poe and inferior writers, throwing in occasionally a prose paraphrase by himself of one of Mrs. Browning's poems, or such remarks as "No poet ever penned a more poetic piece," or that "her poetic inspiration was of the highest, the most august conceivable," or comments on "the magnificent aspirations, the glowing thoughts, the brilliant scintillations of genius, the innumerable gem-like passages of pathos, the passionate rushes of language, and the daring assaults upon time-honored customs with which this crowning work of woman's genius is replete"; alternating with quotations about "a horror sublime in its simplicity—of

which Dante himself might have been proud," etc.

Such guides scarcely point out the true objects for admiration in Mrs. Browning's writings; and it would require remarkable intelligence to derive from this book an accurate impression of her sensitive and high-strung nature—on one side ignorant, narrow, self-willed, and intellectually obstinate; on the other full of accomplishment, sweetness, and generous humanity. The best things in the volume are the accounts of "Flush," Mrs. Browning's spaniel; and those are not very good.

Tales of the Birds. By W. Warde Fowler. With illustrations by Bryan Hook. Macmillan & Co. 1888. 8vo, pp. 209.

THIS book is handsomely printed on heavy paper, in large type, with wide margins, and several examples of an artist's mannerism. The reading-matter is less laudable, and we should doubt that it would engage an adult mind, other than a reviewer's. The author seems to us either to have tried to write a book, or to have taken a contract to that end. The birds are made to try to tell tales like persons, but seem to labor under the author's own disability, and it would have been better to leave them wagging their tails to suit themselves. Altogether, we fancy that the publishers' declaration, "The right of translation and reproduction is reserved," must be taken humorously. It is the best thing in the book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bailey, J. B. Modern Methuselahs. London: Chapman & Hall.
Besant, W. The Eulogy of Richard Jefferies. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Better Times: Stories, by the Author of 'The Story of Margaret Kent.' Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
Blavatsky, H. P. The Secret Doctrine: The Synthesis of Science, Religion, and Philosophy. Vol. I. Cosmogenesis. William Q. Judge. $5.
Burnett, Mrs. Frances Hodgson. Kathleen: A Novel. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 25 cents.
Century Magazine. May, 1888, to October, 1888. The Century Co.
Channing, Rev. W. E. The Perfect Life, in Twelve Discourses. Scribner & Welford.
Chaucer. Selected and Edited by Frederick Noël Paton. London: Walter Scott; New York: Thomas Whittaker.
Coates, H. T. The Fireside Encyclopædia of Poetry. 27th ed., revised and enlarged. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. $5.
Dana, Katherine Floyd. Our Phil, and Other Stories. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Davenport, R. B. The Death-Blow to Spiritualism. Being the True Story of the Fox Sisters. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Doudney, Sarah. Under False Colors. Scribner & Welford.
Downville, Lady Margaret. Life of Lamartine. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Fenn, G. M. Quicksilver; or, The Boy with No Skid to his Wheel. Scribner & Welford.
Fiske, J. The Critical Period of American History, 1783–1789. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Fitzpatrick, W. J. Correspondence of Daniel O'Connell, the Liberator. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co.
Flagg, E. De Molai: the Last of the Military Grand Masters of the Order of Templar Knights. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros.
Fleming, May Agnes. The Virginia Heiress. Street & Smith.
Gissing, G. A Life's Morning. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 25 cents.
Heaton, Mrs. Charles. A Concise History of Painting. New ed., revised. Scribner & Welford.
Herrick, Sophia Bledsoe. The Earth in Past Ages. Harper & Bros.
Hosmer, Prof. J. K. Life of Young Sir Harry Vane. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
Hugo, V. The Man Who Laughs. Illustrated by D. Vierge and D. Rochegrosse. 2 vols. George Routledge & Sons. $6.
Hurlbert, W. H. Ireland Under Coercion: The Diary of an American. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.75.
Kebbel, T. E. Life of George Crabbe. London: Walter Scott; New York: Thomas Whittaker.
Kydd, S. A Sketch of the Growth of Public Opinion: Its Influence on the Constitution and Government. A. C. Armstrong & Co. $1.
Lanciani, Prof. R. Ancient Rome in the Light of Recent Discoveries. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $6.00.
Lees—Clutterbuck. B. C. 1887: A Ramble in British Columbia. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.25.
Lewis, Mrs. Harriet. Her Double Life. Robert Bonner's Sons. 50 cents.
Little, Elizabeth N. Log-Book Notes through Life. White & Allen.
Macquoid, G. S. Jacobite Songs and Ballads. White & Allen. $1.25.
Magazine of Art. Cassell & Co. $5.
Manatt, I. J. Xenophon: Hellenica. Books I.—IV. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.75.
Moore, F. F. Under Hatches; or, Ned Woodthorp's Adventures. Scribner & Welford.
Mulholland, Rosa. Giannetta: A Girl's Story of Herself. Scribner & Welford.
Nettleship, R. L. Works of Thomas Hill Green, Professor of Moral Philosophy in Oxford University. Vol. III. Miscellanies and Memoir. Longmans, Green & Co. $7.
Parloa, Maria. New Cook Book. Illustrated. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Poor's Directory of Railway Officials. 1888–9. Poor's Manual of Railroads.
Pyle, H. Otto of the Silver Hand. Illustrated by the Author. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.
Schopenhauer, A. Two Essays: I. On the Fourfold Root of the Principle of Sufficient Reason. II. On the Will of Nature. Scribner & Welford.
Schumann, R. Early Letters, Originally Published by his Wife. Translated by May Herbert. Scribner & Welford.
Siller, F. The Song of Manitoba, and Other Poems. Milwaukee: T. S. Gray & Co.
Star Crossed: The Life and Love of an Actress. The Judge Publishing Co. 50 cents.
St. Nicholas. Vols. XV. and XVI. November, 1887, to October, 1888. The Century Co.
Sumner, H. The Besom Maker, and Other Country Folk Songs. Illustrated. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
The *Bookworm.* A. C. Armstrong & Co. $3.
The Thompson Street Poker Club. White & Allen. 50 cents.
The Voice of Nature. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 60 cents.

Fine Arts.

THE VERESTCHAGIN EXHIBITION.

WHATEVER creates a sensation in Europe, whether in the arts, the drama, or in literature, nowadays inevitably finds its way to New York. The exhibition of pictures by M. Vassili Verestchagin has been a little late in arriving, however, for some of the works now to be seen at the galleries of the American Art Association were shown in Paris fully ten years ago. Since then this collection has been exhibited in the important cities of Europe, finishing up with London, where it was shown last spring. Ingenious advertising, claptrap, and humbug found their highest expression in the methods employed here on behalf of the Munkacsy pictures the past two winters, and it is due to the Verestchagin management to say that so far their ways have been much less objectionable. No "private view for the clergy" or anything of that sort has been announced, and the accessories of the exhibition are of a different kind from those which distinguished the Munkacsy shows, with their mysterious gaslight effects and their hired weepers and attendants with muffled tread. Indeed, the arrangement of the Verestchagin galleries is elegant and in excellent taste. There are some very handsome rugs hung up here and there, some fine old tiles and pieces of pottery, some effective drapery and other articles used in the decoration of the rooms.

But the pamphlet is here. It appears in this case in the form of two appendices to the catalogue: Appendix No. 1, "Progress in Art," and Appendix No. 2, "Realism." Both are from the facile pen of M. Verestchagin himself; and in these the artist, or, as he is denominated in the catalogue, the "Painter, Soldier, Traveller," sets forth his principles and defines his creed. In "Progress in Art," great stress is laid on the necessity of depicting events which occurred out of doors, in out-of-door light, and not under the concentrated light of the studio window. The author in this does no more than repeat the teachings of Édouard Manet and Claude Monet, who preached the doctrine of *plein air* long before him, and, what is more, practised what they preached. The objections, "Not only in the perfect construction of their pictures, but also in the sublimity of conception, the old masters stand on an unapproachable height, and we can only strive after them," to quote M. Verestchagin's summary of such speeches; and again, "The same assertion blocks the way, 'The old masters have done thus, and therefore . . . ,'" are not so often heard at the present time, but it is not because of M. Verestchagin's work that this is the case. As we have said, the new doctrine was preached before his time. Bastien-Lepage was one of those who pushed it to complete and satisfactory results. M. Verestchagin, if judged by some of his works at the galleries in Twenty-third Street, has signally failed to do so. Take, for example, one of the pictures in the series of three which are grouped under the title of "Eye for Eye, Tooth for Tooth—Crucifixion by the Romans," No. 91. This picture represents the Crucifixion of Christ and the two thieves, as M. Verestchagin supposes it to have happened. He has visited the place; he has made studies there, presumably of the landscape and of the types of the people as he finds them in our time. The crucifixion took place out of doors. Does this picture look like a scene out of doors? Is there any air in this pasty gray and black sky? Is this hot color, this brickish red and yellow in the flesh tones, like the effect of diffused light? Are these brown shadows on the under sides of hands and arms, and under the chins of the people in the crowd, ever seen out of doors? And this flat look in everything—these heads, which are only masks cut out on the background, and these crudely colored garments, these garish whites and reds and yellows—do things look like that out of doors? Assuredly not; and if all this was not done under the disadvantage of artificial lighting "inside of four walls," then it is but a lame attempt to paint *en plein air*.

In the second appendix to the catalogue, "Realism," our artist-author says: "I hold, though, that the art of representing subjects in a realistic manner does not entitle a person to the name of realist," and he then proceeds to annihilate De Neuville because he painted some pictures of the Zulu war without going to Africa to get realistic effects after the war was over. "There are no Britishers nor Zulus to be found in the pictures. Instead of the former, we behold Frenchmen dressed up in British uniforms, and instead of Zulus, the ordinary Parisian negro-models, reproduced in various more or less warlike attitudes;" and the author asks, "Well, is that realism?" and answers quite rightly, "No." It is a matter of fact, however, that the pictures were painted principally in order to introduce portraits of British officers in the action, and this M. de Neuville did, and did very well on the whole. As for his own position as an artist and his own influence on civilization, M. Verestchagin quotes approvingly the following passages from an article published in a religious journal in London, the *Christian:* "These paintings are the work of a Russian, Verestchagin—a painter equal to any of his contemporaries in artistic ability, and beyond any painter who ever lived in the grandeur of his moral aims and the application of his lessons to the consciences of all who take the least pains to understand him. . . . I will only say that he who misses seeing these paintings will miss the best opportunity he may ever have of understanding the age in which he lives; for if ever the nineteenth century has had a prophet, it is the Russian painter Verestchagin."

A good part of this essay on "Realism" is devoted by the author to defending himself against the adverse criticisms which some of his pictures have received from those who have said that they are not true; and M. Verestchagin avers that he did them on the spot, and that they *are* true. We shall have to take his word for it: our business is now to consider how well he has represented pictorially what he saw. The first and one of the most important things in making a picture is composition. M. Verestchagin, however much he may insist upon the necessity of painting things just as they are, has nevertheless a tendency, very marked in some of his pic-

tures, to force a scene from life with its irregular grouping into arbitrary lines; he exhibits a decided preference for the triangle in composition, and uses it whenever possible. Note the perspective lines of the top of the wall at the left in the picture of the Crucifixion, and those of the tops of the three crosses on the right converging to the centre of the picture, in proof of this. The same thing is found in the "Blowing from Guns in British India," No. 92, in which the long row of soldiers and the victims at the mouth of each gun, the line of soldiers in the distance, and the line of the hills beyond, all converge to a point at the extreme left. The effect is forced and artificial. It is seen again in "The Kreml," No. 90, and in each of the pictures catalogued under the title "Solomon's Wall," No. 13. As to general truthfulness of effect, in the rendering of values in sunlight and in shadow, for instance, there are varying degrees of merit in M. Verestchagin's work. In some of the pictures he exhibits marked skill in representing difficult effects on a large scale. In "The Window of Selim-Shisti's Monument," No. 51, a picture in which a number of Mohammedans in white clothing are shown grouped about a white marble veranda, in full sunlight, he is notably successful. The general effect impresses one as being true to nature, and the picture, moreover, is excellently painted in detail. "The Private Mosque of the Great Moguls in the Palace of Delhi," No. 61, is another example of successful treatment of large masses of white. The white marble walls and floors of the court and portico are in diffused light, with strong reflections, and the painter has made good use of the opportunity to produce a striking effect with simple means. The broad expanses of white marble are painted with just sufficient detail, and the differing values are rendered with much exactness of observation. Color notes of green and yellow, found in the costumes of the people praying in the portico, are introduced in the prevailing scheme of white with excellent results. Another picture, which shows M. Verestchagin's appreciation of subtle values, is a small canvas, a study from nature apparently, "The Earth Huts at Shipka," No. 76—a camp of soldiers, with the ground covered with a deep snow. But it is in the smaller of the two pictures called "Solomon's Wall," No. 13, that M. Verestchagin is seen at his best. It is quite the best picture in the collection, to our mind, and if there were more like it the purely art interest of the exhibition would not be so overshadowed by the sensational interest to which so much prominence is given. This picture, which must not be confounded with the larger one with the same title and the same catalogue number—an inferior performance—possesses fine qualities of color, and is excellent in ensemble.

Of the numerous pictures of military subjects, of the pictures which we have been told present the horrors of war as they have never before been presented on canvas, there is little good to be said. "The Conquered," No. 88, a field covered with dead bodies, with a priest and a soldier in the foreground, is tame and uninteresting. "The Spy," No. 84, and "The Road of the War Prisoners," No. 86, are equally commonplace, though the story of the latter as related in detail in the catalogue is horrible enough. "After the Battle," No. 81, showing the tents of the hospital surgeons and a large number of wounded men after the battle of Plevna, tells its story better, but is of indifferent merit artistically, while "Before the Attack," No. 79, is cheap and tawdry in the extreme. M. de Neuville, whom M. Verestchagin affects to despise, has painted this sort of subjects infinitely better, and so have other military painters of the modern French school.

Scattered through the galleries are numerous small studies of heads in oil, "Russian Types," "Bhutanese of Sikkhim in the Himalayas," "Hindu Workman," "Portrait of a Jewish Rabbi," etc., in which we might have expected to find some evidence of technical ability. Though usually pretty fairly drawn, they are, without exception, very weakly painted, and in no case do we find the slightest charm of color. "The Portrait of a Jewish Rabbi," No. 38, for example, is hot and "foxy" in color, and exceedingly hard and dry in *facture*. The wrinkles in the forehead are naïvely indicated by crooked lines of blackish paint. Where the artist has been unembarrassed by the difficulties inherent in the mere technical handling of color, his attempts at character study are more successful. His pencil drawings and drawings in oil wash on canvas, a number of which are hung in a gallery apart, and catalogued under the heading of Sketches, are many of them excellent, and some of them even admirable. They are among the most interesting things in the exhibition.

In the pictures illustrating the life of Christ, there is not so much ground for impugning the artist's motives as the sensational incident which occurred when they were exhibited in Vienna might have led us to expect. Realistically treated, and with as much of the *couleur locale* as it is possible to put into the composition at this late day, no doubt the picture of "The Holy Family," No. 45, possesses elements of truth and probability. It is likely that Verestchagin's picture comes nearer to being a representation of facts than do those of the same subject by Raphael and other masters of the Renaissance, who merely painted comely Italian women in conventional robes of blue or red, and beautiful children; or than those by Rembrandt do, who painted the common people of his native town in their every-day costume, as the companions of Christ. Nevertheless, his "Holy Family" is merely a picture of an Oriental family in a shady courtyard, where the father and an apprentice, one of his sons possibly, are at work at a carpenter's bench, and the mother is seen seated on the ground nursing an infant, and some other children are playing near by; while the son who was to become the Great Teacher sits apart at the bottom of a flight of stone steps, reading from a scroll which he holds in his hands. It is a fairly well-painted picture, and there is a good feeling of atmosphere in it, but it is not otherwise remarkable. No one, in looking at it, certainly, would think it was meant for a picture of the Holy Family, were it not that M. Verestchagin, in spite of his loudly heralded realism, has adopted the conventional type of head for his figure of Christ. Herein he renounces his realistic principles, and may be justly charged with sensationalism. Of the other pictures in this series there is little to be said, except that "The Prophecy," No. 49, and "Jesus in the Desert," No. 47, are strikingly suggestive of Claude Monet in the treatment of the landscape.

The largest picture in the exhibition is a huge canvas representing a procession through a street in Jeypore, with the Prince of Wales and his staff riding in company with the Maharajah and other native chiefs on the backs of elephants. It is called "The Future Emperor of India," and is much better done than show pictures of this sort are wont to be. There is decided ability of a certain order shown in the management of this panoramic canvas, and some very good painting in parts. It is needless to say it is theatrical; from the nature of the subject it could scarcely help being so. It will no doubt prove to be one of the most attractive features of this latest of picture shows, where the bass-drum accompaniment, though somewhat muffled, is yet loud enough to be offensive to delicate ears.

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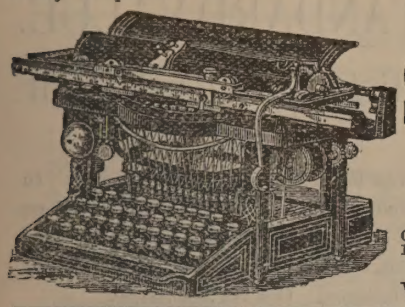

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 29, 1888.

The Week.

JUDGE DANIELS, of the Supreme Court of this State, writes a letter to the *Herald* in a commendably grave tone on the subject of bribery in elections. The contagion, according to Judge Daniels, has gone beyond the illiterate and vicious classes, and has invaded the otherwise respectable ranks of society; and herein lies the danger. It is of the nature of this malady to grow by what it feeds on, and there is no assignable limit to its spread. "The vice," says Judge Daniels, "or crime, as it may be more correctly denominated, is one of appalling magnitude, having a direct tendency to undermine the foundation on which the national and State Governments must be maintained, if they are to be maintained in the future; for they can securely stand only on the intelligence and political integrity of the voters themselves. If that is to be corrupted by the use of money in the elections, then ultimately, and at no very distant period, the wealthy will buy the prominent and important offices. Men of moderate means or without means, and still possessing intelligence, experience, ability, and unswerving integrity, must in that event retire from the political field. They will be as completely ineligible as though declared to be so by the Constitution, both State and national; and that will hand the republic over to an aristocracy as surely as it would be if in legal theory it had been placed on that foundation." The Judge thinks that, while much may be done by a ballot law to lessen bribery at the polls, no such law can entirely prevent it. He favors penal legislation much more stringent than the present, and provisions for taking the testimony of the bribed on condition that it shall not be used against themselves. He does not refer to the English system of limiting the total amount of money which may be spent at elections—a system which it would probably be difficult to introduce here, though by no means impossible if all parties were in favor of it. What we have to fear is, that those who profited in the recent election in New York by means of bribery, on both sides of politics, will equip a lobby to prevent any change in the law which might disable them from committing the same crime in future elections.

Reports of deep interest on the question of ballot-reform come from all quarters. In at least a dozen States organized movements are in progress to secure legislative action upon the subject. In Indiana, as the Indianapolis *Sentinel* remarks, ballot-reform "is to-day the question of questions." The *Sentinel* is devoting much space to the discussion and explanation of the Australian and English laws, and is doing really valuable service in giving intelligent direction to the popular interest. Steps are also being taken in Connecticut for the drafting of a bill to be presented to the next Legislature, and similar projects are reported from several Western States. In all quarters the conviction is strong that absolute secrecy in the act of voting is the primary requisite in any system of reform which may be proposed.

So far as New York State is concerned, we are glad to be able to announce that a bill, similar to the Saxton bill which Gov. Hill vetoed, will be presented to the Legislature as soon as it meets in January, and will be pressed with all possible speed to a passage. The most painstaking efforts will be made to have this new measure conform as far as possible to the Governor's objections, so far as those objections are intelligible. The trouble with the Governor's "reasons" for the veto is that, when they are not trivial, they are either disingenuous or based on ignorance. Then, too, while pretending in the body of his veto message that he was unable to approve the measure because of certain textual defects and unconstitutional provisions, he concluded by denouncing the principle upon which it was based as a "mongrel foreign one." He will be given a chance, if the Republicans of the Legislature prove to be sincere in their advocacy of the reform, to pass judgment upon the new measure at a sufficiently early day to enable him, in case he vetoes it, to return it to the Legislature with his objections. It will then be possible for the Legislature either to amend it in accordance with his views, or to attempt to pass it unchanged over his veto.

The Republican denunciation of John J. O'Brien continues, and in its heat a good deal of interesting "inside" truth is being revealed. Mr. Nugent, a Republican candidate for Coroner, who was unmercifully "knifed" by O'Brien, follows Col. Shepard's example, and gives financial data as to the correct means for estimating the enormity of O'Brien's "treachery." He says:

> "O'Brien and his gang did not run my tickets out of their boxes at all. They got no money from me, but they got it from almost every other candidate, Democratic and Republican. Tim Campbell says he would not have run but for their urging. When he ran they fixed his assessment at $100 an election district. He paid it, and then they took $4,500 from his opponent, McCarthy, and supported McCarthy. They got $2,000 from H. K. Thurber for the ordinary expenses of his friend Schwartz for candidate for Congress, and $5,000 to run the district. They took money from Douras, the County Democracy candidate for Coroner, to run him alone. They took money from the Republican County Committee for Erhardt, from Tammany Hall for Grant, and from the County Democracy for Hewitt. They got at least $30,000. Every captain in the district had $400 on election day to buy voters for the candidates O'Brien and Rourke indicated."

It thus appears that H. K. Thurber has a $2,000 basis for his hot indignation, which explains fully his zeal for reform. Taken together with the handsome sum which Col. Shepard says O'Brien received from the National Republican Committee, this $30,000 from local committees and candidates must have given O'Brien about the largest profits which he has ever received from the "business" in a single election.

It being agreed on all sides now that O'Brien is a rascal and a cheat, we should like to ask the Republicans who are denouncing him what they have to say about his fitness for the office of Chief of the Bureau of Elections. If he is too great a rascal to be a Republican district leader, how does it happen that for years the full power of the Republican party has been exerted to keep him in the office which gives him control of the entire election machinery of the city? How does it happen that not a single Republican newspaper or Republican leader in this city has ever said a word against his continuance in that office, long after his term has expired, or exerted a particle of influence to get him out of it? We should like very much to have some information upon this point. O'Brien is now, by the highest Republican authority, declared to be, taken all in all, the worst man in his party in the city—a politician without honor or shame, and a traitor who sells his party for cash at every opportunity. How happens it that not a single Republican has a word to say about this bad man's unfitness for the important public office which he holds? Is the tremendous fact that for years the Mugwumps have been saying that he was a rascal, a sufficient excuse for this silence? Was that sufficient reason for putting him in the office, and for keeping him in it for so long a time after his character was notorious?

Mr. Cleveland's plurality in Virginia is only about 1,500 on the face of the returns, and the Republicans claim that they would have carried the State if there had been a free vote and a fair count. An attempt is to be made to take the matter before the courts, and at least to bring out the facts, if nothing else can be done. We earnestly hope that a thorough investigation may be made. Wherever there is just ground for suspicion that anything is wrong about an election, a thorough and impartial inquiry ought to be made. But we trust that investigation into the recent Presidential election will not be confined to the State of Virginia. There ought to be a vigorous overhauling of Indiana, to the end that it may be known how far the system of buying "floaters in blocks of five" contributed to the success of the Republicans in carrying the State. Much more important than either of these inquiries will be the investigation which we hope to see made by a Congressional committee into the sources of the immense campaign funds raised by the National Committees, with especial reference to the contributions made to the Republican treasury by Trusts, and to the demand for $400,000 made upon the land-grant railroads by a statesman in the clothing trade, who is

now talked of for a Cabinet place under Gen. Harrison.

The last canvass was a very remarkable one in various ways, as we have heretofore pointed out. The reliance of the Republicans on English quotations, and their almost complete avoidance of discussion of the tariff from the American point of view, was a very curious phenomenon, which has been in large measure explained by the revelations since made about the use of money in the canvass, and also, we are ashamed to add, about the use made of house-to-house scandal about Mr. Cleveland. We think the way in which this scandal-mongering was organized and carried out was a remarkable exhibition of electioneering skill, though, of course, there is no self-respecting American who must not blush over it. As the scandal was composed of simple, unadulterated lies, and was intended to counteract the effect on the popular imagination of the President's marriage with a charming woman, and of his happy family life in the White House, it was clearly perceived that it would not do to let it get into the newspapers, where it could be pounced on and exposed, and its authors punished. Accordingly, it was kept out of print with really wonderful care, considering how indiscreet newspapers are. Only one indiscretion of this sort was committed by a clergyman in Worcester, Mass., and he was so promptly knocked senseless by a letter from Mrs. Cleveland that it put all his scandalmongering brethren on their guard, so that no squeak of it ever afterwards got into print.

But the propagandism was kept up with great vigor. The Baptist ministers, at a Conference in Washington, were charged with it before they left for their homes, and spread it in their congregations and through letters to their professional brethren. Children were told of it at the Sunday-schools. We have heard of one case where it was actually carried round from house to house by a female colporteur, who used to weep in telling it. At dinner-tables in the cities it was freely repeated, and always on the authority of somebody who was present at some horrid scene. It reached this office frequently during the summer, but never in a shape to be taken hold of. There was always something dim and shadowy about the name and residence of the witness. Within the last week, however, we for the first time lighted on one of the worst of these stories in the mouth of a reputable man, who was able and willing to name his authority. We accordingly wrote to the authority, and are informed by him that the story was, from top to bottom, a cruel, brutal, and silly invention, which he knew was in circulation, but, as long as it was not published, shrank from publicly contradicting. The old Puritan theologians had a strong sense of existence of corporate guilt—that is, of the responsibility before God Almighty of whole communities, nations, cities, and churches, for the sins of individual members. Whole towns used to fast and pray because some of the inhabitants had fallen victims to the lusts of the flesh. If this doctrine were now held, there is not a Republican in the land who ought not to be on his knees, shedding tears of shame and repentance over this most disgraceful episode in the party history—unparalleled, so far as we know, in its baseness, its meanness, its cowardice, its wickedness, as well as its ingenuity.

The Prohibitionists in this State are in considerable excitement over the surprisingly frank admission of Warner Miller and other Republicans that the high-license issue was forced to the front for the purpose of securing Prohibition votes for Harrison. In all the many tributes which have been paid to Mr. Miller for his brave stand on this question, much stress is laid upon the fact that it was because of his course that the Prohibition vote for President in this State was materially reduced as compared with the vote of last year. The *Voice*, Prohibition organ, cites these utterances as evidence that Mr. Miller's candidacy was merely a trick; that his fight was not against the saloons, but against the Prohibition party; that his election was not hoped for; and that there is no sincerity in the Republican professions of zeal for temperance reform. We merely cite this as the Prohibition view, but we are constrained to add that we have been surprised at the frankness of the admissions which Mr. Miller and other Republicans have made. They are incautious, to say the least, in view of the sinuous course of the Republicans of this State on the temperance question, as revealed in many ways, and most luminously in the famous Shook telegram to the editor of the *Tribune* in regard to giving "Republican saloon-keepers the protection to which they are entitled."

If the Republicans prove to have obtained control of the House of Representatives, they will owe their narrow majority in that body directly and plainly to the saloons of St. Louis. That city is represented in the present Congress by three Democrats; it will be represented in the next Congress by three Republicans; the change in these three districts is what converts the House from a Democratic into a Republican body, if it is Republican; and the change in these three districts is due to the revolt of the saloons against Francis, the Democratic Mayor, who enforced the Sunday Closing Law, and against all candidates of the party which would nominate for Governor a man who thus declared his independence of the liquor interest. The saloons are prompt in claiming the credit of the Republican victory. The St. Louis *Tribune*, a German paper which supported the Republican party throughout the campaign as a better party for the liquor interest than the Democratic, says that "the great Republican victory in St. Louis, without the least doubt, is to be attributed to the agitation of the Personal Liberty League," and points out that "from St. Louis three Republicans are chosen to Congress, *of whom two are Germans.*" What the Republican party may expect of these allies whom it has gained from the saloons of St. Louis may be inferred from the tone of the *Freie Presse*, a leading German Republican paper of Cincinnati, which talks in this way: "The comparatively small majority which the Republicans obtained in the city and State at the last election should be a warning for our Republican legislative body to keep their hands off the Dow law [taxing saloons], and off other objectionable measures. A disregard of this warning would be the downfall of the Republican party at the next election. Everything would fall in the hands of the Democrats, from the Governor to the Mayor, and even the Senatorship."

The disastrous effect of any alliance with the saloons upon the attitude of a political organization with regard to temperance was strikingly shown in Connecticut just before the recent election. A "committee of twenty" leading citizens was appointed in Hartford some time ago to consider what measures could be adopted to restrict the liquor evil. On the 8th of October this committee received and unanimously adopted a report of a sub-committee on the license question, recommending that the Committee of Twenty should apply to the County Commissioners to raise the license fee from $300 to $400, and to deny licenses to places in the neighborhood of a factory where there is a general opposition to the license by the managers and workmen connected with the factory; to places where other business is transacted (except hotels and restaurants); and to places in buildings which are used in part as dwelling-houses. All of these recommendations were so obviously reasonable and wise that they should have needed no support in argument; but to answer any possible objection which might be raised by the Commissioners, a committee was appointed to appear before that body, consisting of such well-known men as Nathaniel Shipman, Judge of the United States District Court of Connecticut, Col. Jacob L. Greene, President of the Connecticut Mutual Life Insurance Company, and Mr. Henry C. Robinson. These gentlemen accordingly went before the County Commissioners on the 25th of October, and urged the adoption of the above propositions. On the 31st of October the Commissioners announced to the Committee that they declined to adopt any of their suggestions. What was the reason? Simply this. The Commissioners were all Republicans, and the Republican party, by nominating Morgan G. Bulkeley for Governor, had adopted the policy of trying to carry the State by bidding for the saloon vote.

The stock market has gone from bad to worse since the election, disappointing the successful party and surprising the defeated one in about equal measure. The good, the bad, and the indifferent securities have suffered alike. It was generally supposed that relief from the political tension would have a healthful effect upon business, and that, whichever party might carry the election, the removal of an uncertainty would be beneficial in every way. This belief was shared, if not expressed, by all, but the result has been precisely contra-

ry to the common expectation, as regards the stock market. General business outside of stocks has not shared the depression. The reports from commercial centres are quite encouraging, and this fact warrants the hope that the depression in Wall Street is only temporary; but for the time being it is unmistakable. Several causes have contributed to the "want of confidence" betokened by the situation in Wall Street, the most important of which is the so-called trunk-line war, which the trunk-line managers tell us is not a war, but merely an investigation, or a means of finding out what has happened to their traffic. It is of small consequence to railway shareholders whether it is a war or an inquest, if their receipts are shorn by the process. Undoubtedly, if the war, or the investigation, should come to an end, and if rates were restored to a paying basis, one heavy cloud would be removed; but it must be borne in mind that the depression began before the trunk-line trouble broke out or was even suspected, showing that there was a deeper cause than a local railway squabble.

We have little doubt that this deeper cause is the uncertainty which still hangs over the operations of the national Treasury. The present system of alternate glut and relief cannot last. It is a highly artificial condition, opposed to all reasonable conceptions of business. It is hardly consistent with the operations of a sane mind to go on from month to month piling up money that is not wanted, and then disgorging it in premiums to bond speculators, which premiums must necessarily rise as the market contracts and the surplus grows. Public opinion will not tolerate such proceedings indefinitely. The surplus must be choked. It must be suppressed in a rational way, and not by offering the country a flood of cheap whiskey as an alternative to a financial crisis; nor must it be got rid of by extravagant appropriations, amounting to a disguised thievery of the money of the tax-payers. Now, the election of Gen. Harrison is believed to have added something to the difficulties of the precedent situation. The policy recommended by Mr. Cleveland—of squaring the receipts by the expenditures, the taxes by the public needs—has received a check, and no other policy has been formulated to take its place. The underlying cause of depressions in Wall Street is want of confidence, signalized by a general withdrawal of capital from the customary fields of employment, while waiting to see what will happen. The present depression is of this nature. It is aggravated by other things, but its groundwork is the uncertainty hanging over the Treasury, its surplus, and its next chief.

The exportation of a few million dollars of gold last week came at a time when any suspicious circumstance was pretty sure to add to the prevailing distrust in the circles of finance. It has the effect, according to street parlance, to "play into the hands of the bears." But it cannot be considered a factor of any importance in comparison with other present influences in depressing the stock market and creating distrust among investors. In the first place, the exportation of gold that has already taken place is insignificant in itself. We are producing about $35,000,000 per annum, and if we were to export the whole of this annual increment, the fact would signify little when we reflect that we have gained since the first of January, 1879, nearly $500,000,000 of this metal, as the following figures, drawn from the commerce and navigation reports, and those of the Director of the Mint, will show:

Gold imports 1879-1887.....	$351,702,763
Gold exports 1879-1887.....	157,304,749
Net imports 1879-1887.....	194,398,014
Gold production 1879-1887.....	302,100,000
	$496,498,014

It is possible to be glutted with gold, as with any other article of commerce; and when this condition occurs, an exportation of the surplus is both necessary and healthful. There is nothing in the present condition of business to show that the movement of gold at this time is other than healthful. If it shall have the effect to break the back of the wheat speculation at Chicago, which still prevents that staple from moving, it will be altogether wholesome. Indeed, a much larger exportation of the metal would be regarded as a cheap deliverance from the deadlock.

We venture to call the attention of those Republicans who, while believing in tariff reform, voted for Gen. Harrison, in serene confidence that if elected he would kick over the platform on which he was nominated, to the signs of appetite which their party is showing in regard to the surplus. From every quarter of the land there are unmistakable indications that the clamor to spend all the surplus in one way or another is going to be tremendous. If the tariff-reform Republicans are to get any hearing for their views they must be up and doing without delay. There are, we believe, many thousands of them who are convinced, not only that the burden of tariff taxation should be reduced, but that the greatest danger which threatens the continued supremacy of their party is its tendency to go to the extremes to which its high-protection element is pushing it. If this element carries the day, there will be nothing for the tariff-reform Republicans to do but to swallow their convictions or to turn Mugwumps. It is in order to spare them from the horrors of the latter fate that we give them this warning. The present race of Mugwumps, according to unanimous and oft-repeated Republican authority, is completely extinct. Think what a responsibility would rest upon the party if within a year or two it should be the cause of the birth of a new race of them!

We call the attention of H. K. Thurber, John F. Plummer, the Home Market Club of Boston, and Pat Ford, to the surprising information which comes from Indianapolis that Gen. Harrison has selected as his private secretary a gentleman of English birth. What would have been the emotions of all these broad-minded patriots if President Cleveland had made such a choice as that? They unfurled the Union Jack as the true Cleveland ensign, and went into systematic forgery as a business on much less provocation—in fact, upon no other provocation than that the British press had spoken favorably of the President. We doubt very much if they could have endured at all the spectacle of a man of British birth standing guard at the door of the White House, and "poisoning" the mind of the President towards all true Americans in search of high-protection benefits, subsidies, and other favors at the expense of the people. It is a cause for national thanksgiving that they were not put to the test; for, instead of relieving themselves with lying and forgery, Thurber, Plummer, and Ford might have plunged at once into "war."

A writer in the Paris *Figaro* gives the French public some account of Gen. Harrison, in which he makes the General's great-grandmother the granddaughter of Pocahontas, the celebrated Indian princess. He also makes him the lineal descendant of Harrison the regicide, whose execution it describes, and makes his descendants emigrate to America. But they would assuredly have gone to Massachusetts as Goffe and Whalley did, and not to Virginia, as Gen. Harrison's ancestor did. The descent from the regicide Harrison is not, we observe, claimed in Gen. Harrison's biographies. The Frenchman denies that he is cold in manners, but admits that he does not remember names or faces well: but, says he, after the first moment he thaws out, and is very agreeable. Harrison is, moreover, a philosopher of the "ancient sort," meaning, we suppose, what is called "one of Plutarch's men." Of Mrs. Harrison the Frenchman speaks in the highest terms, and says her "five-o'clock teas" in Indianapolis are much frequented. She is strong in epigrams and puns, but knows when to hold her tongue; and a woman who knows when to be silent is a superior woman.

Apparently the Floquet Ministry have committed an additional if not final folly in the proposal of an income tax. They are at their wits' ends for money, and have accordingly introduced a bill putting a tax of 1 per cent. on incomes derived from invested capital, and a half of 1 per cent. on professional incomes, exempting all below $400 a year. The French bourgeois are up in arms against it. They are very particular about their privacy—probably more so than any other civilized people. They have succeeded better than any other in preventing its being invaded by the newspapers, and they are still more strongly opposed to having it invaded by the tax collector. They have never submitted, and probably never would submit, to the inquisition which taxpayers undergo in some of the New England States. They look with horror on the idea of having these money matters known throughout the "quarter," and commented on by business rivals. Hence, the probabilities are that the bill will never become a law; but the mere talk of it has increased the hostility to the Republic which seems to be slowly permeating the whole of French society.

WANAMAKER.

EVERY reader of the newspapers is aware of the appearance in the political arena, within at most nine weeks, of a gentleman named Wanamaker. That he is already a great political personage is plainly to be seen from the stories about him, and it makes little difference whether these stories are true or false. A person of whom it is reported that Quay says that he is going to ask only one thing of Gen. Harrison, and that is that Wanamaker shall have whatever he wants, must be a considerable person, whether Quay ever said it or not. A man who is discussed in the newspapers as likely to get his choice of places in the Cabinet must be an important and influential man in his party, even if everything the newspapers give out about his prospects be unfounded. Wanamaker is such a man. If we were to believe half what we hear about Wanamaker, we should expect to see him the guide, philosopher, and friend of the next Administration, to see him become to Harrison what Blaine was to Garfield. All this, as we have said, within nine weeks or thereabouts.

What is the meaning of this sudden rise? Who is Wanamaker? Wanamaker is the owner of an immense store in Philadelphia, in which he sells almost everything that is used by civilized man or woman. His business has grown wonderfully within a few years, mainly of course through his own energy and enterprise, but largely by means of the most seductive advertisements about clothing, in which the air of candor, of impartiality, of sympathy both with the frugal and the lavish, with the ascetic and the luxurious, has long been the envy and admiration of the clothing trade, and has really revolutionized its literature. But how does all this make Wanamaker a great politician within the short period of nine weeks? Is he an orator? Has he made speeches for the party? No; we doubt if he ever made a political speech in his life. Has he written books, pamphlets, or articles for the party? No; we doubt if he ever in his life wrote anything but puffs of his own wares. Is he an old party Sage, who has long sat in its councils and given it the benefit of his wisdom and experience? No; he never was heard of in the party until nine weeks ago, and has, as far as is known, no wisdom or experience except in the keeping of a large variety store. Has he been identified with any great cause which the party has now taken up and made its own? No; all his fame has been won in the clothing business. Has he ever held any public office in which he established any claim on public gratitude by able administration? No; his undoubted administrative abilities have been displayed entirely within his own store, and the only American who has had the benefit of them is Wanamaker himself.

To what, then, is his sudden rise due? To the fact that he has made an enormous contribution in money to Quay's campaign fund, and to a successful attempt to extort $400,000 for it in the last week of the canvass, the full nature of which we trust to see revealed when Congress meets. In other words, Wanamaker has bought for cash—or thinks he has bought for cash, and Quay thinks so, too—a controlling interest in the formation of the next Administration of the United States, and has actually gone about boasting of his bargain. He believes that he has acquired, by means of a check payable on demand, the moral right to sit in President Harrison's Cabinet, and the right to be consulted with regard to the appointment of his colleagues, and the right to fill many subordinate offices with persons of his own selection.

"What impudence!" many good people will say. No; it is not impudence at all. Wanamaker is a man of his time. As a purchaser of political influence and honor, he is the product of a system which has been in existence and growing for twenty years. He is distinguished simply by having bid higher than any of his predecessors. He found the practice of purchasing a claim to high office by heavy contributions in money to the party funds firmly established before he decided to add a political branch to his huge store. For fully twenty years the doctrine that a man who subscribed heavily was entitled to a great place, and justified in feeling swindled if he did not get it, has been striking deeper and deeper roots in the political soil. Wanamaker has paid so much that he naturally feels entitled to several places, or "a controlling interest" in the governmental business. In other words, he has brought us one step nearer to the possibility, which now stares us in the face, of the purchase of the entire Administration from the National Committee of the winning party for a sum which many of our rich men could now afford to pay for such a luxury, and which, as well as we can judge, need not be higher than say $4,000,000. No such chance has been offered to wealth in the modern world or in the ancient world since the Prætorian Guard sold the Roman Empire at public auction. All that is needed now is some such regulation in the interest of fair dealing as a tariff of prices. A man who is asked to subscribe handsomely ought to know exactly what he can have for his money, so as to avoid the subsequent complaints and heart-burnings which of late have been too common. The upset price of the State Department, of the Treasury, of the Interior, and so on down, should be given in black and white, and there should be a day and hour fixed in the canvass when the bids should be closed and the places awarded in case of victory.

The reasonableness of this arrangement and the blamelessness of Wanamaker will be more apparent if we point out that, under all popular governments, political parties give the offices to the men who furnish the means of carrying the elections. A party which has waged a successful war thus honors its soldiers and financiers; a party which has triumphed by persuasion, by winning the majority over to its way of thinking, like the Republican party in 1860, thus honors its orators and writers: but a party which has gained possession of the Government with money, naturally and properly honors the men who provide the money. This is, as the boys say, "the long and the short" of Wanamaker. It explains him, and justifies him; but we cannot honestly say it makes us proud of him. In fact, to be entirely candid, we think, as a politician, he makes the American people an awful warning to the civilized world.

AN INVESTIGATION NEEDED.

THAT Quay has thought himself authorized to sell place and patronage to Wanamaker for cash, and has sold them, is something which no reputable person questions. That Wanamaker believes the bargain will be carried out by President Harrison, there is equally good reason to believe. That Wanamaker knows well, in spite of his "Bethel," that Quay and Dudley used the money for criminal purposes, we are confident Congress can bring to light by an investigation. The Democrats have a majority in the present House, and have ample time in which to set a committee to work between now and the 4th of March, 1889.

There ought to be, and we believe there is, patriotism enough in the majority to secure such committee, no matter who may be touched by the result of the inquiry. The best men of both parties begin to be appalled by the corruption of the last election, as the facts continue to come to light. There is a growing determination, in all parts of the country, that the crimes against free government which have disgraced the country during the last three or four months shall not be repeated. Preparations are being made in every direction for taking the ballot out of the list of vendible commodities. But these preparations would be greatly strengthened, and the work of reformatory legislation made more sure, by thorough inquiry into the use made of money by both parties during the canvass. Quay and Wanamaker have felt so sure of impunity that they hardly took any pains to conceal their operations until after the election, when, like fraudulent bankrupts, they burnt their books and papers. Documentary evidence of their villany is therefore perhaps now scarce, but they can be summoned and put on the rack of cross-examination, as can hundreds of others who were either their victims or confederates. There is really little difficulty in getting at the truth of the matter, probably not half as much as there was in the Crédit-Mobilier case, which was laid thoroughly bare by putting a few men on oath. Something of this kind is needed to shock the popular conscience, and present vote-trading to the popular eye in its true light. Newspaper charges produce but little impression, especially when they come from the defeated party after an election. Judicial examination and proof are needed to bring home to people the distance to which politicians have carried the Government on the road to damnation.

We have no idea that Gen. Harrison will be disposed to deliver the places which Quay has sold. We feel sure he will not repeat the blunder committed by Mr. Hayes of rewarding with office men suspected, whether justly or unjustly, of cheating him into the Presidency. We take it for granted that he will not knowingly allow the Government of the United States to be converted into mer-

chandise and sold in "job lots." But every one in his position is naturally disposed to receive with suspicion charges made against men to whom he owes his election. It is but human, and by no means discreditable, that he should give Quay and Wanamaker the benefit of every possible doubt, and be ready to believe, what they are sure to tell him, that if their conduct were judicially investigated, they would be found blameless. Such men are always eager to be examined as long as nobody is waiting to examine them, and their eagerness always produces a considerable impression on their friends. Consequently, an investigation would probably do as much good in informing President Harrison's judgment as in rousing popular indignation. It would bring before him clearly the tremendous fact that this Government has reached the parting of the ways, and that on him the great duty devolves of deciding which it shall take. The election has at last made the country aware, not only that the present close division of parties in doubtful States makes the temptation to bribery almost overwhelming, but that we have among us a very large body of rich men who think it no harm to bribe in defence of what they consider their own interests, and a large body of poor men who have been bribed so often that the association of duty with the ballot has faded from their memories.

With this situation Gen. Harrison will have to deal. His manner of appointing his Cabinet and filling the other leading offices will do a great deal either to encourage or discourage those in both parties who think that the Government must be saved now or never; that after another plunge into the slough, even the most hopeful will give up the struggle. Hitherto, we have only had to contend with the vague expectation of men who subscribe largely to campaign funds, that they will get an equivalent in public honors and salaries in case of victory, and who modestly conceal their pretensions and make no public sign if they are disappointed. But to-day we are confronted with actual purchasers, holding what they believe to be "a call" on the President of the United States for such offices as they may designate, in return for cash. Nothing would strengthen Gen. Harrison so much in dealing with such a pair as proof of their guilt under oath, and we believe that if the House will do its duty such proof can be had.

AN EXTRAORDINARY CONFESSION.

THE *Mail and Express* is the accredited evening organ of the Republican party in this city. If the editor does not contribute wisdom to its councils, he undoubtedly contributes money to its chest. He knows all about its receipts and expenditures, and when he talks about the way its money goes, he undoubtedly speaks by the card. This makes a story to which he gave currency in his columns on Thursday, the most extraordinary, as far as our recollection goes, in the history of politics. It is this: That the National Committee, on the Saturday before election, paid to "a Republican State leader" the sum of $150,000, none of which went to the County Committee or to the "necessary and legitimate" expenses of the campaign—all of these having been met by a distinct donation of $40,000 from the National Committee, and contributions from individuals; that the $150,000 referred to was to be used in the purchase of three "movements," viz., the "James O'Brien movement," estimated at 10,000 votes; the "Coogan movement," estimated at 30,000; and the "John J. O'Brien movement," an unknown quantity, but commonly called in politics the Eighth or "banner district." Now, these "movements," though bought and paid for, were not delivered. Says the chronicler:

> "As to the Coogan movement, it promised 20,000 more votes for Harrison and Miller than it delivered, and collapsed, after polling about 9,000 for Coogan for Mayor, into the arms of Tammany Hall, which presented the only other Romanist for that office.
>
> "The James O'Brien movement promised 10,000 more votes than it delivered.
>
> "The John J. O'Brien movement kept its word pretty well for Harrison, miserably for Miller, and not at all for Erhardt.
>
> "In other words, the Eighth District Republicans were sold for Governor to Hill partly, and wholly to Grant for Mayor, and the last for the same reason that the Coogan movement went to him, that he was a Romanist. Of course the H. J. Grant party assumed and paid all the so-called campaign expenses of both the Coogan and J. J. O'Brien movements which came to Grant, and this in utter disregard of the fact that the Republicans had already paid them. It is also probable that the Hewitt people paid dearly for the song of success as sung to them by both of these sirens.
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> "If Col. Cruger and Capt. Erhardt will move for the trial and expulsion of John J. O'Brien from the Republican Committees, it is more than probable that his ability to abuse the confidence of the Republicans of this city will be terminated by his performance of November 6, 1888.
>
> "The success of the Republican party in this city is to be achieved by educating the masses in Republican doctrine, by the circulation of the Republican newspapers, and the continual holding of mass-meetings; and we hope we have seen the last of attempts to buy votes *en bloc*, in all which attempts for the past twenty-six years we have been buying experience and not votes—been filling and trimming the lamps of our opponents and emptying our own."

It will be observed that the reason here given for abandoning "the attempts to buy votes *en bloc*," which have now been made for twenty-five years, is not that the practice of buying votes "*en bloc*" or otherwise is illegal, or immoral, or disgraceful, or un-American, or sinful, but that the last and most expensive attempt did not succeed. Not one word of condemnation of the practice of buying votes on moral or patriotic grounds does the article contain. Republicans are warned away from it, and urged to try the plan of "circulating Republican newspapers and the continual holding of mass-meetings," but solely because the commission agents who get the money do not keep their bargains. A more extraordinary revelation, we think, has never been made, and the naïveté with which it is made adds to its value. The system of purchase cannot be a thing which the Republican leaders in this city think it worth while to keep secret, or the editor of the *Mail and Express* would hardly be familiar with it; and we may be sure that the arguments he urges against it, in his simple-minded way, are but repetitions of what he has heard in the more familiar talk of the local managers.

There was a time when we should have said that "these abominable principles and this more abominable avowal of them" would rouse in this city, from respectable men of all parties, a storm of indignation, when the very stones of Broadway and Fifth Avenue, at least, would rise and mutiny. If any one had predicted in 1872, that by 1888 a Republican organ would declare against wholesale bribery by Republicans in the city simply as a poor business venture, and confess that it had for years been carried on with the connivance or acquiescence of men like Messrs. Walter Howe, Theron G. Strong, C. N. Bliss, Elihu Root, Edward Mitchell, and Van Rensselaer Cruger, we venture to say that he would, in almost any respectable company, have been denounced as a slanderer. And we confess that, had he predicted that this miserable story could be told by a Republican newspaper in this city, without drawing forth from these gentlemen immediate and indignant denials, either of complicity or knowledge, we too should have said he was a malignant pessimist. We should have told him scornfully that on the morning after this fatuous revelation of iniquity appeared, all the gentlemen we have mentioned, and a score of others, would either publicly have given the lie to every word of it, or have declared that if such practices were carried on they were carried on without their cognizance, and that, in testimony of their shame and confusion, they would leave no stone unturned to bring the perpetrators of them to justice. But thus far the matter, we grieve to say, appears to excite no sensation whatever. The Better Element is silent. The *Tribune* is silent. The Union League Club, and especially "the Committee on Political Reform" (Heaven save the mark!), is silent. The Boys are silent. But unless this Government is doomed to shameful ruin, this silence will not last long. The grief with which the daily revelations of the way in which the late election was conducted, both by victors and vanquished, is filling tens of thousands of American hearts will, before all is over, become flaming wrath. The rascals who buy and sell the Government will have to run or hide, and so will the wretched hypocrites who roll their eyes and propose to quit the business because their coparceners steal the money.

THE SUGAR TRUST AND THE SUGAR TAX.

WHEN Senator Allison made his speech introducing the Finance Committee's substitute for the Mills bill, on the 8th of October last, he laid much stress on the fact that the Senate bill was more in the interest of the consumers of sugar than the House bill was. He charged that the House bill was drawn in the interest of the Sugar Trust, and that the Senate bill would make a difference of $6,000,000 in favor of the public as compared with the Mills bill, and a still greater difference as compared with the present law. Upon this showing the Senator justly felici-

tated himself and his associates and the country; for what he said was true, as we shall now show. The subject is a complicated one, but we will endeavor to make it plain.

Imported sugars may be roughly classified as raw and refined, the raw being either wholly unfit for human consumption, or so repulsive to sight and taste that it will not be consumed in that state by civilized people. The tax on raws is imposed according to the polariscope test, beginning at 75 degrees for the lowest grade, at which the present duty is 1 4-10 cent per pound. For each degree higher than 75 there is an additional duty of 4-100 of a cent per pound up to 100 degrees, where the duty is 2 4-10 cents per pound. From this point onward the classification is by the Dutch standard of color; No. 13 to No. 16 being 2¾ cents per pound duty, No. 20 being 3 cents, and all above 16 to No. 20 being 3½ cents. The protection accorded to the Trust is the margin between the duty on raw and refined. It is fair to take the duty on sugar of 96 degrees polariscope test as the standard for raw. The following table will show the margin of protection allowed per hundred pounds under the present law, under the Mills bill, and under the Senate bill:

	Raw. (96 deg.)	Refined.	Protection.
Present duty	$2 24	$3 50	$1 26
Mills bill	1 82.2	2 80	0 97.8
Senate bill	1 12	2 00	0 88

The Mills bill reduces the bonus which the present law gives to the Trust 28 2-10 cents per hundred pounds. The Senate bill reduces it 38 cents per hundred pounds. Mr. Allison's contention is accordingly justified: the Senate bill reduces the protection to the Sugar Trust nearly 10 cents per hundred pounds *more* than the Mills bill does. We will now quote exactly what Mr. Allison said on this subject, viz.:

"The difference between the substitute which we propose and the House bill as respects sugar is a difference of $6,000,000 in the aggregate per annum to the consumer. By the House bill the tax upon the people of the United States is $6,000,000 per annum more than the Senate substitute, as the duty is paid by the people who consume the sugar, and, in my judgment, it is practically the only case in all these dutiable lists where the consumer pays the duty; and, as the Senator from Massachusetts [Mr. Hoar] very justly and very properly observes, it bears heavily upon the poor and upon those who have large families. Six million dollars to whom? Where will it go? It is between 13 and 16. Why is it that the refining interest insists all the time upon that relation of 13 and 16? It is that the centrifugal sugars can come in between 13 and 18, and thus go into consumption without the intervention of the refiner. Therefore it is that they want to make the line of demarcation strongest between 13 and 16, in order that all sugars that come in here may be raw sugars, and thus pass through the processes of refining in our country; and I repeat that the Senate substitute makes a difference of one-fifth of a cent, or $6,000,000 per annum, in favor of the consumers of sugar.

"What is the effect of that? According to the census of 1880, there was twenty-seven and a half millions of capital invested in sugar refining in the United States. I have not been able to get the accurate statistics between then and now, but I assume that there is certainly not more than $50,000,000 of capital engaged in that industry now. So this concession made to sugar-refiners in the House bill, as compared with the Senate bill, is 12 per cent. upon all the capital of all the sugar refineries in the United States; and yet the Senators who have made the minority report upon this bill, including the separate and distinct report of the Senator from Kentucky, endorse these House provisions as respects the question of sugar, and then they denounce all Trusts. Why, they legislate by the provisions of this House bill $6,000,000 into the pockets of the Sugar Trust, 12 per cent. per annum upon their capital, and take it out of the pockets of the people of the United States, and denounce the Republican party and this substitute for administering to and fostering Trusts! Consistency is a jewel that is not found in this minority report any more than it is in the report of the Senator from Kentucky."

We trust that the public, without regard to sex, color, or previous condition of servitude, will take notice of this aspect of the sugar tax and of the proposed changes in the same. The Sugar Trust is, in our judgment, the most pernicious and extortionate of all the protected Trusts; it has greater powers of mischief than any other, and it is doing more mischief than any other. The American people have a gloomy prospect ahead, in any case, in dealing with these daring and unscrupulous combinations, but the prospect will be gloomier still if there is any backing down on the part of the Senate from the position here taken. If it is the intention of the Senate to keep its promise to turn several millions per annum out of the gains of this protected monopoly into the pockets of the people, they will receive due and proper thanks; but if they depart from their declared purpose of giving relief to the people, the reason will be only too plain, viz., that, in order to attract votes, they held out a promise before the election which they did not intend to fulfil. We believe that a proper investigation would show that American refineries can turn out refined sugar as cheaply, if not more so, than any others in the world, and that therefore any protection granted to the Trust is a sheer gratuity taken from the poor to be added to the superfluities of the rich. We consider, also, that the lawsuits set on foot under State authority to dissolve corporations that have entered into the Trust are worse than useless, because they turn attention away from the real evil, and hold out the expectation of relief in a quarter from which it can never come. The source of the gains of the Sugar Trust is the tariff. Let the public fix their eyes on Washington City, and not on Albany, if they would see where their money goes, and who gets away with it.

THE SILVER COINAGE.

It is a long time since the silver coinage has engaged any considerable share of public attention. The last discussion of the subject that could be considered really important took place four years ago, when Mr. Cleveland, then President elect, addressed his letter to Congressman Warner advising a discontinuance of the coinage. This led to an attempt on the part of Mr. Randall, Mr. Carlisle, and other leading Democrats to procure legislation in the short session of 1884–5 for a temporary cessation of the coinage, but it failed on a test vote. In the following session Mr. Bland of Missouri made an effort to get a "free coinage" bill passed in place of the present law, which provides for the coinage of not less than two nor more than four millions per month; but this failed also by a pretty decisive vote in the House.

So things have gone on under the act of 1878 until the coinage amounts to about $300,000,000. One circumstance, not anticipated by either the silver or the anti-silver men, has created a vacuum in the circulation, to fill which the newly coined silver has served a useful purpose. The gradual shrinkage of the national-bank circulation, due to the calling in of the bond security upon which it rests, must needs be supplemented with something, and the only things available were certificates based upon gold or silver or both. Both have been employed, but mostly silver, because gold certificates cannot be issued of smaller denominations than $20. The field of ordinary hand-to-hand circulation was left to the silver certificates. In addition to this vacuum, created artificially although not designedly, there was a natural vacuum produced by the growth of the country, especially its growth westward and southward, where banking facilities are relatively small. This accounts, we think, for the major part of the demand for certificates for circulation during the past four years. Still another and not insignificant vacuum has been created by the suppression of small bank-note and greenback circulation, and the issue of silver certificates of the denominations of one and two dollars in place thereof.

It is useless to inquire whether these voids in the circulation might not have been filled more advantageously in other ways. We think that the filling of them with silver was slovenly, expensive, and unscientific; but we acknowledge at the same time that it provides a guarantee fund of 75 per cent. to secure the circulation; that is, that the bullion value of the silver held by the Treasury against the certificates is within 25 per cent. of their nominal value. As the Government has received from the purchasers and present holders of the silver certificates 100 cents for each dollar, it is bound to make good the difference at all times and under all circumstances. It has been provided with funds for this purpose, and is under the highest moral obligation to the people to see that nobody is a loser by the decline in silver. If a liquidation were called for now, there would be a loss to the Government, because some of the purchases of bullion were made at higher prices than those now prevailing; but this fact does not impair the moral obligation to the holders of the certificates.

The Treasurer of the United States tells us in his annual report that the coinage during the past fiscal year was $32,484,673, and that the "net distribution" increased only $39,156. This means that gaps in the circulation already mentioned have been practically filled. The report says further, that the Treasurer is of the opinion that the people have all of these coins they want or are willing to take, and recommends that if the purchases of silver are to continue, the bullion be put into the form of heavy bars or ingots, arguing that the present supply of the dollars will be sufficient for any demand there is likely to be for

them, and that any increase of the certificate circulation could be based with perfect safety on the uncoined metal.

This suggestion is not likely to be adopted by Congress. It involves too wide a departure from the idea with which the silver coinage was entered upon. This idea was the restoration of "the dollar of the fathers." It was a popular superstition, which would no more be answered by "heavy bars or ingots" than devotion to a Hindu idol would be answered by the Litany of the English Church. Nor do we conceive that the piling up of silver bricks in the Treasury would answer any useful purpose; it would be like the accumulation and storing of pig-iron or anything else. The piling up of unused dollars is indeed the same thing, in an economical sense; but the silver craze is to be cured only by observation and experience of the folly in its original and true form. When the demand for these dollars for purposes of circulation shall have been fully satisfied, and the pile of unused dollars begins to grow just in proportion to the coinage—that is, by two millions per month—there will be a struggle in Congress between the advocates of "free coinage" and their opponents. It is best, in our opinion, to have that fight in the open field when it comes, and not to attempt to disguise it in any way.

THE SOCIAL USES OF THE "KICKER."

THAT ingenious gentleman who chooses to be known as "M. Quad," adds to his merit as an amusing humorous writer the virtue of being in private life, not merely occasionally, but consistently and on principle, a "kicker." He fights habitually against the manifold small impositions and ill-treatment which beset every man who lives, and especially who moves, in our social system of "modern conveniences." Every one of these has its reverse side of inconvenience, unless worked with absolute smoothness, and since this depends upon good faith and good will in the fallible persons charged with their administration, the chances of annoyance and suffering arising from our elaborate way of modern living far exceed anything known to our fathers and grandfathers. Unhappily, most men submit to such impositions and ill-treatment without resistance or protest, either because they are in a hurry, or because they want courage, or are easy-going and lack so much of genius as consists in "an infinite capacity for taking pains." Such people deserve all that they suffer, but the public good demands that they should be stirred to better ways, as has just been done by a bit of "M. Quad's" personal history.

We cite here an article of his creed:

> "I really and truly believe that the day will come when the kicker will be classed where he belongs, and be entitled to the reverence due him. I look upon him as a philosopher and a philanthropist. He stands forth one man out of ten thousand. He is actuated by the most unselfish motives. He is the real reformer."

We accept this creed heartily, and enjoin it upon all well-affected readers. Our Positivist friends will require no commendation of it, since it affords to men of common mould a way of joining the élite of humanity and of obtaining reverence—in short, of becoming a part of the "Grand Être" to which worship is to be paid—a thing heretofore possible only for geniuses, heroes, and saints. But there is a considerable remnant, after deducting the Positivists from the sum of population—a remnant, wholly indifferent to the worship of future generations, who must be won by prospect of the approval and applause of men of their own time, of which the "kicker" is always secure. He has always the sympathetic regard of his own class—the small but strong band of developed and active remonstrants. He has from the great class of potential kickers—the men of good intent but infirm resolution—the respect and gratitude felt by all right-minded people towards those who stimulate them by high example in working out their own ideals. And from the enormous crowd of *fainéants* the "kicker" receives dull but abject homage, as to a person who accomplishes things which they have dreamed not of. In short, the "kicker" is the Mugwump of private life, with the inestimable advantage over Mugwumps of public life that, by his own single power, he is able at any time to carry out "his bright designs." The political Mugwumps must wait and combine, must argue and convince, must persuade vast numbers that David B. Hill is not a nice person to be Governor of New York, for instance, before they can effect their end; but the social Mugwump is a majority by himself, and, so to speak, elects whatever he elects.

This is the high charm of kickery to those who know the art. It never fails. This result happens, not only because it is always a contest of right against wrong, though adept kicking always is that, and all the eternal forces work for it; but because a great part of the almost invariable success of kicking comes from the more prosaic fact that circumstances always are on its side—such a circumstance as the law, for example. The kicker's injury is likely to be against law; and even when the strict law may chance the other way, the equities are in his favor. Observe the case of "M. Quad" at Niagara Falls. When he had frightened away a mob of swindling hackmen with a revolver, the leader sought to have him arrested for carrying a deadly weapon, but no one would issue a warrant. One justice said: "Every man coming to visit the Falls ought to come with two revolvers, and the oftener he fires into your crowd, the better it will be for the few honest people here. I wish more kickers would come here." Besides the law, there is the constant certainty, in the case of wrongs done by employees of corporations or of the Government, that they are directly opposed to the interests of their employers, and must be disapproved and righted when made known. See how "M. Quad" caused the retirement of the Elmira ticket-seller. In fact, we scarcely know a more grovelling superstition than the common notion that it is by the desire and under the eyes of Presidents and Boards of Directors that one's trunks are smashed, or telegrams delayed or non-delivered, or luggage missent or kept back, or fruit-baskets plundered in transit, or any other form of robbery or wrong, including impertinence or abuse, is committed against the peace of their customers. The fact is very much the other way; and in such cases any one who will make his complaint in the highest quarters is very sure of sufficient amends. The natural inference is always "that as long as no one kicked, everything must be going all right and everybody satisfied;" and that is why the kicker, while defending his own right and maintaining his self-respect, is at the same time a friend of humanity.

In short, kicking, of sufficient quantity and quality, is a remedy for the lesser as well as for the greater evils of life, and whereas, against the latter, joint effort and particularly time and circumstance are required, against the former the kick may always be ready and efficacious, though single. And it is seriously true that a certain preparation for effectual public kicking in affairs of great consequence is the habit of private revolt against small forms of injustice and wrong. A man who will make a baggage-smasher pay for smashing, who will spend five dollars' worth of time to get a twenty-five cent overcharge refunded, who will give a day to removing the cause of a five minutes' delay which has cost him his train, will be ready to deal effectively with affairs of national administration. To "kick" implies high qualities—self-respect (as we have said), self-forgetfulness, contempt of ease, some courage (though not so much as may be supposed), and tenacity of will. These things are not plentiful, but a virtue of the practice of kicking is that it breeds them. And with kicking enough, and good enough, the face of the world would be changed. But if this be so, it may be after all that kicking, in the last analysis, is irreligious, since a doctrine of future rewards would be of little constraining power in a world such as this would be if everybody, upon due occasion, should kick.

LUCIEN BONAPARTE.—II.

PARIS, November 16, 1888.

WE left Lucien Bonaparte in 1810 on his way to America; he was stopped at Cagliari, and the English Consul refused him a passport. He left the port, and found himself arrested, and prisoner of war on an English frigate; he was taken first to Malta and afterwards to Plymouth. After a short residence at Ludlow, in Wales, he was obliged to remain in Worcestershire, where he bought an estate called Thorngrove, and remained quietly till 1814.

He was allowed to return to Rome after the fall of the Empire and the abdication of Napoleon at Fontainebleau. The Pope conferred on him the dignity of a Roman Prince: he became the Prince of Canino. Then came the return from Elba and the Hundred Days. The *Moniteur* of March 21, 1815, announced the return of Napoleon in these lines:

> "The King and the Princes left last night. His Majesty the Emperor arrived at eight o'clock in his palace of the Tuileries. He entered Paris at the head of the troops which left it in the morning to oppose his passage. The army formed since his disembarkation could not advance further than Fontainebleau. His Majesty reviewed several bodies of troops en route, and marched constantly in the midst

of an immense population which welcomed him."

What would Lucien do when he heard of this miraculous return? He might have remained quietly in Rome, knowing that the Coalition would re-form against his brother; but his brother Joseph, who had rejoined the Emperor almost immediately, pressed him to come to Paris. Napoleon received him with unusual affection; he offered him and placed round his neck the cordon of the Legion of Honor, the same which he had worn from the Island of Elbâ to Paris. Lucien had no house in Paris; Napoleon told him that he might take the Palais-Royal (the property of the Duke of Orleans, who had left the capital after the return of Napoleon). Lucien installed himself in the Palais-Royal, and kept all the servants that the Duke of Orleans had left behind him. Lucien had been received like the prodigal son, and the Emperor, says the author of the memoir which is before us, promised to restore to him by a *senatus consultum* all his privileges and honors. The *senatus-consultum* was never signed, but in the *Moniteur*, which was then the official paper, Lucien was mentioned several times as His Imperial Highness, as well as his brothers Joseph and Jerome. He was appointed a Deputy by the Electoral College of Isère. The Emperor admonished him that he did not wish him to sit in the Legislative Body. "He suspects me," says Lucien in his notes, "of having a secret ambition to be made President, with the idea of making a new 18th Brumaire against him. I became very indignant. Joseph reconciled us." On June 1 a great ceremony took place on the Champ de Mars. The additional articles to the Constitution of the Empire were proclaimed before the five hundred deputies. The Emperor had on his right Joseph and Jerome, and Lucien on his left; fifty thousand soldiers, or national guards, were present. "Under his plumed hat," says M. Thiers, "the handsome face of Napoleon was grave and almost sorrowful. People looked in vain for his wife and son, and everybody felt the isolation which had been produced round him by the inexorable will of Europe."

Lucien, not having been allowed to sit in the Chamber of Deputies, had been inscribed by his brother among the Peers. The Emperor left for the army on the 12th of June. The news of the disaster of Waterloo arrived soon afterwards, and Count Carnot, Minister of the Interior, the grandfather of the present President of the French Republic, made on the 21st of June the following communication to the House of Peers:

"The Emperor arrived at eleven o'clock, and convoked the Council of Ministers. He announced to them that the army, after a signal victory on the plains of Fleurus [Ligny], where the élite of the Prussian army was destroyed, fought a great battle two days afterwards, four hours distant from Brussels. The English army was beaten the whole day, and was obliged to abandon the battle-field; six English flags were taken, and the day was decided when, towards night, evil-minded parties spread an alarm and occasioned a disorder which the presence of his Majesty could not stay. This disorder was followed by disaster which nothing could check."

This is certainly a most extraordinary account of the battle of Waterloo. The *Moniteur* continued it by saying that the Emperor was going to confer with the Ministers on the means of re-forming the army, and to concert with the Chambers on the legislative measures which the situation rendered necessary. Prince Lucien Bonaparte was introduced with the other Ministers in the Chamber of Representatives. He presented a message from the Emperor, and asked the Chamber to sit in secret committee with the Ministers. The next day another imperial message was brought to both Houses, which was no other than Napoleon's abdication: "My political life is ended, and I proclaim my son, under the name of Napoleon II., Emperor of the French." This message was brought to the Peers by Carnot, and to the Representatives by Fouché, Duke of Otranto.

In the House of Peers, Lucien spoke on the abdication. He moved that the House should declare solemnly that it recognized at once Napoleon II. as the Emperor of the French. "I give the first example, and swear fidelity." A member of the House of Peers, Count Pontécoulant, opposed the motion. "The House," he said, "was not willing to make a decision without formal deliberation"; and, continued he, "I will ask Prince Lucien by what right he speaks in this Chamber? Is he a Frenchman? I recognize him not as such. . . . He invokes the Constitution, and he has here no constitutional title. He is a Roman Prince, and Rome is no longer a part of the French territory." Pontécoulant ended by saying that the son of Napoleon was in the hands of the enemies of the country, and for himself he could not recognize him as his sovereign so long as he did not reside in France. Lucien protested: "I am not a Frenchman in your eyes, I am one in the eyes of the whole nation."

Lucien had opposed to the end the abdication of his brother; he had even proposed to him to make a new 18th Brumaire. Napoleon knew that he could no longer resist; he left Paris, and retired to Malmaison. Lucien received from the Provisional Government an order to quit the French territory. He sent a friend, M. de Châtillon, to Fouché to ask him for passports. Fouché gave him four passports, under different names; on one, the bearer, M. de Châtillon, was entered as Inspector-General of the Post-Office of France, with a special mission in England. Lucien was to be the secretary of M. de Châtillon. One of the passports was in the name of Marquis Rocca-Priora, an Italian nobleman returning to his country. When Châtillon returned with the passports, he found the Palais-Royal, where Lucien waited for him, surrounded by a threatening populace; the palace was guarded by troops. Lucien left Paris in the early morning, and stopped at Neuilly, in the villa of the Princess Borghese. He sent Châtillon to Malmaison, where the Emperor still remained, with a draft on him for 250,000 francs, claimed by him for advances made to the Civil List, for his expenses at the Palais-Royal. Châtillon rode to Malmaison: "The spectacle I found there," he says: "was heart-breaking. In the park, round the castle, on the lawn, were the tents of the last invincible grenadiers of the Imperial Guard. Their attitude showed courage and anger. I saw on their faces that they had no other will but to defend their idol to the last extremity, and to die for him." Châtillon saw the officers of the Emperor's staff, Generals Bertrand, Las Cases, Montholon. He was shown into the room where Napoleon was sitting, and handed him Lucien's letter. Napoleon signed and said: "The Viceroy Fouché will see that this is paid, on my signature"; then he added, "Does Lucien go with me? What are his plans?" Châtillon answered that he did not know; but that he had been obliged to leave the Palais-Royal, which was besieged by the Royalists. King Joseph had taken the road to Havre, where an American ship was waiting for him. Joseph hoped to escape; he hoped also that the Emperor would join him at Havre. "I have thought of that; but no. . . . I cannot leave France otherwise than as a sovereign. I will embark on a war-ship. Tell Lucien to go to England; we will see each other there!"

Châtillon left the Emperor, whom he had seen for the last time, rode to Paris, saw Fouché and showed him the order for the payment of 250,000 francs, signed by Napoleon. Fouché was member of the Provisional Government. Without a moment's hesitation, he did all that was necessary for immediate payment; the sum was paid to Châtillon the same day, and he returned with it to Neuilly. The next day, Lucien left for Boulogne, intending to take refuge in England. Fouché's passports did their work; but as soon as he arrived he changed his mind. He was afraid of being made prisoner, as he had followed the fortunes of his brother during the Hundred Days; he turned his back on England and took the road to Rome. The passports worked again, and he returned to Italy as the Marquis of Rocca-Priora. He was, however, arrested in Piedmont and lodged for a while in the citadel of Turin. After four months of prison he was delivered by the interference of Prince Metternich, and allowed to proceed to Rome. He was really half a prisoner in Rome, and not allowed to leave it till the death of Napoleon in 1821. From that moment he became free, but he remained an exile from France. In 1836 he fell ill, and in June, 1840, while he was on his way to Siena, he died at Viterbo on the 29th of June. He was sixty-five years old. His remains were transported to Florence, where they still are.

It is evident that the book which has now been published on Lucien is an attempt to place his successors on the same footing as the successors of the other brothers of Napoleon. The anonymous author tries to prove that the conduct of Lucien in 1814 and 1815 put an end to his exclusion from the imperial family, as this family was defined by the Constitution of the Empire. Lucien had a son, Pierre-Napoleon, who was born in Rome on the 11th of October, 1815, and led an adventurous life in America, in New Granada, in Ecuador, in Italy, in Albania, and other places. He came to France in 1848, and entered the French foreign legion. When the Empire was reëstablished, Napoleon III. kept him in the background; Prince Pierre was not much seen at the Tuileries, and lived in retirement at Auteuil or in Corsica. He shot in 1870 a journalist, Victor Noir, who had come to his house as a second for Pascal Grousset, who had a quarrel with him; he was acquitted by the High Court of Bourges. Napoleon III. always refused to give his consent to a marriage contracted by Prince Pierre, and it is rather curious that the son of Lucien went through the same difficulties, with respect to his marriage, that Lucien himself did. This marriage had been civilly and religiously celebrated, but, according to the terms of the *senatus-consultum* of the Second Empire, Pierre could not marry without the permission of the sovereign. Prince Pierre Bonaparte died at Versailles, at the age of sixty-five, leaving two children, Prince Roland, born in 1853, who married in 1880 Mademoiselle Blanc, the wealthy daughter of M. Blanc of Monaco; and a daughter, who is married to Marquis Christian of Villeneuve.

Correspondence.

THE PURCHASABILITY OF FARMERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Everybody knows that it was done,

and pretty nearly everybody has an idea as to how it was done. It was a timorous prophet who did not chance the guess, before the election, that the result of it would be full of surprises. The prediction was, doubtless, the child of the uncertainty in pretty nearly all minds. It was only the man with no mind worth mentioning who knew all along how the election would turn. I confess to an opinion before and a theory since the election. One of the "surprises" gives the key to it.

A greater surprise than the result of the election itself is the reception given the effort to educate the people on the subject of tariff taxation. In the strong manufacturing localities, pretty generally, the vote in favor of tax reduction is greater than was the Democratic vote four years ago. This shows that the "American laborer," by whom is meant the laborer of whatever nationality engaged in our mills and factories, got his eyes open to the fact that the tariff is a tax, and that it protects the employer but not the employed. This is one-half the great surprise. The other half is the fact that in the agricultural localities, pretty generally, the vote in favor of a high tariff is greater than was the Republican vote of four years ago. These two facts constitute the great surprise of the campaign. What does the second half indicate? Either that the rural voter is thicker-witted than the mill and factory voter, or something else. I think it is something else; and that something marks Chairman "Matt" Quay as the most successful "practical" politician of modern times. He understands where to apply "practical" methods of the Dudley variety, and make them count, in "blocks of five" or more. He knows that a given amount of what the late President Arthur called "soap" will accomplish greater results, if applied among agriculturists, than if applied among men who work for day wages, no matter how small.

A special correspondent of the Philadelphia *Ledger*, who was sent through Indiana, reported as to the progress of the campaign to secure the 15,000 "floaters," that this purchasable vote was not confined to the "bum" class of the cities, but existed in quite as great degree in the rural districts, among men who own the land they till. And I have it on authority not to be questioned, that in some of the richest agricultural counties in New York the votes of farmer delegates to nominating conventions, and later in the elections, are regularly purchasable; that such delegates generally receive from five to ten dollars *and their dinners* for their votes in conventions, and the going price for votes at the elections—else they cannot be counted on. And it makes no difference how well conditioned they are. They may own, clear of debt, from one to four hundred acres of rich land, perfectly improved and stocked, and still they demand their price, and get it.

Chairman Quay knew the value of this vote and the cost of it. He had money enough—more than any chairman of a National Committee ever had before. I quote the *Ledger* again, as the highest authority in this locality, as saying in to-day's issue that the Chairman of the City Republican Committee thinks Philadelphia Republicans "did very well to send Chairman Quay $400,000, besides raising all they did for the city campaign." Other wealthy localities did quite as well according to their abilities, and Quay and Dudley did with the money what Bill Tweed did with his; and they can ask, with quite as much show of impudence as he did, "What are you going to do about it?" It is an awful question to consider; but possibly we may one day vote direct for President, and with a strictly secret ballot; and then the Quays of all parties will have their answer. P. PICKLE.

PHILADELPHIA, November 17.

DID THE TARIFF DO IT?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation* of November 15 remarks upon the effect of the Democratic attempt at tariff reform in some of the principal wool-producing States, and points out that the Republican pluralities in these States in the recent election are much less than they were in 1884. It may not be without interest, in the same connection, to examine the vote of Saginaw County, Mich.

Saginaw County has a population considerably over 60,000, and the cities of Saginaw and East Saginaw, separated only by the Saginaw River, constitute the business and financial centre of the salt and lumber interests of the Saginaw valley. Here the great lumber and salt-producing establishments of the valley are located, and here we have a large laboring population who find employment in, and who are dependent upon, these industries. The manufacturers interested in the production of salt and lumber made a strong fight against the reform policy of the President, and, possessed of ample means, they doubtless used their money in the usual way to convince the workingman that the tariff on salt and lumber was principally in the interest of the workingman and higher wages—with this result: In 1884 the Democratic vote of the county was 7,047, and the Republican vote 5,939, showing a Democratic plurality of 1,108; in 1888 the Democratic vote was 8,924, and the Republican vote 6,723, giving a Democratic plurality of 2,201. Mr. Tarsney, unfortunately beaten for reëlection to Congress by the outside Republican agricultural counties, squarely advocated the Mills Bill, and the putting of salt and lumber on the free list, as did the candidates on the county ticket and other Democratic speakers, who thoroughly discussed the question before well-attended meetings in the cities and throughout the county, with the result above stated. All this would seem to indicate, so far as this county is concerned, that the tariff did not do it, and apparently that this discussion tended to convince the workingmen that the tariff on salt and lumber does not increase their wages; and the greater part of them seemingly voted the Democratic ticket.

It is true that the Republican plurality in the State is much greater than in 1884, the cause of which has been clearly pointed out by the Detroit *Free Press*. In many counties examined the total vote of 1884 was much less than in 1880, the Democratic vote in those counties being greater in 1884 than in 1880, and the Republican vote less. While the total vote this year is very much larger than in 1884—the Democratic increase being over 25,000 above the vote of 1884, fully equal to the increase in population—the Republican vote is enough larger to give the increased plurality over that of 1884, showing that the increase in the Republican vote of this year is largely made up of Republicans who, for reasons easily understood, refrained from voting in 1884. There were some Democratic farmers in this county, interested slightly in sheep, who became frightened at the cry of "free trade," and, not knowing what it meant, thought it must be something terrible, and therefore voted the Republican ticket. Of those the most was made; but as the increase in the Democratic vote was as large, proportionately, in the country as in the cities, it follows that fully as many Republicans as Democrats changed sides.

The Democratic vote of Saginaw County was larger because of the attempt to reform the tariff, and I believe it was larger throughout the State for the same reason. D.

NOVEMBER 17, 1888.

THE DIRECT VOTE FOR PRESIDENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I do not see the force of your objection (page 386 of last *Nation*) to a popular vote for President. The necessity for a careful and patient counting of the votes before the result is known may exist under either system, and did occur four years ago in New York; but can we not, after enduring two or three months of racket and uncertainty during the canvass, wait a week or ten days more to learn the result? With improving facilities, the delay would be less and less at every election, while the "strain" you refer to, now due largely to the infrequency of the delay, would certainly be far less if it were a regular and understood thing that the result should not be known for some days.

Nothing could well be stupider or more clumsy than the present system, framed on the theory that the people were not equal to the task of choosing their own rulers, but must depute special individuals to do it for them. Something might, indeed, be gained conceivably were the Electors free to meet, debate, and finally choose either from popular nominees or from others; but we have long ago abandoned this one idea which made the system endurable, and the Electors are now simply machines to record the choice of State majorities.

And the system not only is clumsy and stupid, but *may* work gross injustice—may elect of two men the choice of a small minority of the people. Let a bare majority of the Electors come from States carried by very small majorities, while the other States have been swept by enormous majorities the other way—a perfectly possible case, unless we can show that this could only be from impossible sectional feeling—and it is plain that a small minority of the people might elect.

Why not *vote directly* for the man of our choice? Then a Democrat in Vermont would feel some spirit to vote, knowing that his vote would tell in the grand total, while now it goes for nothing. Then we should see everywhere new inspiration and rallying to the polls. Then there would be an end, also, to the mischiefs of "pivotal States." Of course it will be a gain to separate the national from all other elections, but we want the popular vote.

Respectfully, H. D. C.

EASTPORT, ME., November 19, 1888.

[In the last issue of the Galveston *News* received at this office, published a fortnight after the election, we read: "The official returns of the election in Texas are slow in coming in, and it is probable that the vote of many counties will not be correctly given until the *News* can arrange the returns or the Legislature counts the vote for Governor. The vote for electors is counted the third Monday in this month." The question whether Harrison or Cleveland has a plurality of the popular vote will very likely depend upon the count in Texas, and yet the leading newspaper of that State, two weeks after the election, had no sufficient basis for a judgment as to how large the Democratic majority would prove to be.

Without going more deeply into this question, we will add that it is obvious that the

longest interval between the November election and the first of March is none too long for the new President to make the necessary arrangements for the personnel of his Administration, and that both he and the outgoing President should at the earliest possible moment be relieved of all uncertainty as to the result of the election.—Ed. Nation.]

THE ENGLISH MISSION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your editorial in the last number of the *Nation* upon "The English Mission" touches upon, though it does not discuss, a most interesting topic, viz., the impossibility of an American Minister to England doing his duty to his country without incurring the hostility of the Irish-Americans at home. This duty you have defined in several articles to be the cultivation of friendly relations with the court and people of the country to which he is accredited, and the protection of American citizens against unjust treatment. But if there be a large and arrogant class of his fellow-citizens at home who detest the English Government, and would do everything in their power to cripple it or involve it in a war with the United States, they are pretty sure to vent their rage upon any American representative who accepts or returns the hospitality of the English people, as most of our Ministers for the last fifteen years have found out to their cost. If, at the same time, the unfortunate Minister happens to be named in connection with an important office at home, as, for instance, the Chief Justiceship, he is quite certain at the last moment to find his pathway blocked, be his fitness for the place never so conspicuous.

The truth is, that no American Minister would be entirely satisfactory to this turbulent class who did not spend his time in stumping Ireland for Home Rule and hurling thunderbolts at the Foreign Office—a kind of interference which our English cousins would resent as forcibly, if not as summarily, as we did the unfortunate blunder of Lord Sackville. It makes a wonderful difference, however, whose ox is being gored. The men who denounced the loudest "foreign interference" in our elections are the very ones who eighteen months ago were holding public indignation meetings at the dictation of the Irish, and even inducing our State legislatures to pass resolutions calling upon the English to extend the blessings of home rule—a proceeding of which we are all now as heartily ashamed as we shall be of the Sackville incident in a year from this time.

We are sometimes tempted to ask ourselves whether we have a really independent press in this country, *i. e.*, a press which is as independent *in fact* as it is *in law*. We Americans are said to be unanimously in favor of home rule; yet what has made us so? Is it because we have formed our judgment deliberately upon the merits of the case, or because our newspapers are controlled by, or afraid of, the Irish, and our foreign correspondence and telegrams emanate from Irish sources? Can it be possible that the Irish are always right and the English altogether wrong? It would seem so, judging from the tone of our press; and yet I am informed that among the American residents in London there is a practical unanimity of sentiment directly opposed to that which obtains at home. Is it because they are better informed or not so well informed as we? Is it not still an open question whether our experience with the Irish vote has demonstrated their fitness for self-government, or has disclosed defects of character which, uncontrolled, would be fatal to civil liberty and the rights of a minority? Could an Irish parliament be safely intrusted with the power of fixing the compensation to be paid English landlords for their lands? It seems, from Mr. Davitt's latest utterances, that nothing less than this will satisfy the demands of the Home Rulers.

I have put these questions, not from any antipathy to the Irish, but to show some of the difficulties which beset the path of the American Minister, who would be more than mortal if he did not to some extent imbibe the feelings of those by whom he is surrounded. I think you are quite right in believing that Mr. Harrison will experience great difficulty in finding a man of intellectual or political prominence to fill this place who aspires to be anything more than a social figure-head. John Douglas.

Detroit, November 23, 1888.

THAT DENVER CITY CONTRACT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: During the campaign I read, time and again, the statement in Republican papers, that a contract for 5,000 tons of iron castings for a Denver Cable Railway had been let to an English firm. The statement was variously used as a campaign argument in favor of high protection. I have also seen frequent mention of the matter in the *Nation*.

I wish to say that this contract for 5,000 tons of iron castings for the Denver Cable Railway has been let to the Centropolis Car Works of this city. The contract was let to the lowest and best bidder, and numerous English and American manufacturers submitted bids, I understand. I write you of the fact, because, from your frequent mention of the campaign "canard," I judge that you will be glad to hear the truth about it.

Respectfully, C. M. Harwood.

Kansas City, Mo., November 24.

THE SEDUCTIVE SIMILE AND THE DOCTOR OF DIVINITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The affection which poor old Goriot had for his daughters, was scarcely less masterful than that of most religious writers and speakers for a simile or metaphor drawn from the well of science undefiled. And this love unspeakable is, for some reason, in the majority of instances, requited almost as badly in the latter case as in the former. Rev. Newman Hall, who follows in the footsteps of Homer and compares the race of men with the race of leaves, furnishes, in the *Independent* of November 15, a most choice example of how treacherously the quagmires of an unknown land may entrap the over-confident footsteps of careless wanderers in search of similes. "The leaf is beautiful, yet it fades!" exclaims Dr. Hall; and if he had paused after this apt observation, all would have been well, but some wicked fairy impelled him to continue:

"The leaf fades when its work is done. It has an important function as the lungs of the plant. The sap circulating through its surface receives the oxygen breathed in from the atmosphere. This combines with the carbon, and, by the influence of light, is so changed as to be capable of depositing new material as the vitalizing current descends behind the bark, forming each year a new ring around the stem."

Not to mention the weird "deceptive cadence" in the second sentence, it may be noted that it would be difficult to collect a greater show of inaccuracy than is furnished by the following clauses. The sap does not circulate through the surface of the leaf. It does not receive oxygen. This does not combine directly with carbon. The oxygen is not changed so as to be capable of depositing anything. New material is not "deposited" by the sap. There is no "vitalizing current" behind the bark. A new ring is not formed by descending sap. The "vitalizing" part of the tree does not descend. The new ring is not formed around the stem, nor is it necessarily formed every year. With these few trifling corrections the observations of Dr. Hall may be permitted to pass muster, but without them they are but a fresh illustration of what perennial amusement may be derived from noting the well-meaning but misguided zeal exhibited by the average theologian in pursuit of science. I am, sir,

Conway McMillan.

THE POWER OF THE CHURCH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: For many years I have looked upon the *Nation* as a good friend to the Church and the ministry. Friends who speak to us the most important truths fearlessly are not so common that we can afford to flout those who thus draw our attention to the most serious ailments.

In speaking of the decline of the power of the Church you are doing the Church a service, and you are again in the right, notwithstanding the objection of your correspondent. After all has been said that can be said regarding changed circumstances, adaptation to the times, and all the various explanations that go to show what a difficult problem is, in these days, presented to the Church, the fact remains that the great lack is in the Church itself. Dr. Marcus Dods says: "Were the members of the Church leading a supernatural life, unbelief in the supernatural would become impossible. Were the supreme, living, present power of Christ manifested in the actual superiority of his people to earthly ways and motives, it would be as impossible to deny that power as it is to deny the power of the tides or of the sun." In spite of the few conspicuous exceptions, is it not true that the Protestant Church to-day stands for prosperity? The wonderful appliances, methods, the unsurpassed activity—may they not be interpreted to mean, how to get on in the world? If it be insisted that the cross of Christ must be accepted as the symbol of the life, is it not an offence, not to the world alone, but also to the Church?

Observe that the attitude of the rulers of the Church toward unwelcome truth, toward unaccredited but truth-loving teachers, is the same as in the time of Christ. Does there arise a bold spirit who hopes for reform from within, he is instantly confronted by the determined opposition of those who have risen to power under the existing order of things, who have come to be recognized as leaders of thought and formulators of opinion. Witness the course of the American Board, and of powerful "religious" newspapers.

The Christianity of the Church and of churchly authority must be displaced by the Christianity of Jesus of Nazareth, and then will it be discovered that the force of Christianity has not spent itself, and why it is that "there is no more power in that force."

Yours truly, Edwin T. Hiscox.

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will soon publish 'The Open Door,' by Blanche Willis Howard.

Longmans, Green & Co. announce 'Son of a

Star,' an historical romance by Dr. B. W. Richardson, who now, like many another eminent member of the medical profession before him, ventures his reputation in the field of fiction; and 'Masks or Faces: a Study in the Psychology of Acting,' the title which Mr. Archer has finally given to his 'Anatomy of Acting.'

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready a new edition of 'Allen and Greenough's Latin Grammar,' whose last revision was made eleven years ago. The same publishers will have ready in January 'The Leading Facts of French History,' by D. H. Montgomery, author of 'The Leading Facts of English History,' etc.

A wholly new edition of 'Worcester's Academic Dictionary' is promised by J. B. Lippincott Co., with full etymologies, additional words, and fresh illustrations.

P. Blakiston, Son & Co., Philadelphia, have just ready a revised edition of Reese's 'Medical Jurisprudence and Toxicology' and the 'Physician's Visiting-List' for 1889.

The Rev. James B. Converse, Morristown, Tenn., has in press for publication by himself 'The Bible and Land,' a refutation of Henry George.

Charles. T. Walter, St. Johnsbury, Vt., will issue for the holidays 'The Story of the Puritans,' by Wallace Peck, with humorous colored illustrations by Kemble; 'The Legend of Psyche, and Other Verses,' by Carrie Warner Morehouse; and 'The Dorcas Society,' by James Buckham.

The 'Poèmes Complets' of Edgar Allan Poe, translated by M. Gabriel Mourey, with an introduction by J. Péladan, will shortly be published in Paris by M. Dalou.

The Historical Society of Rhode Island, says Mr. S. S. Rider, in his Providence *Book-Notes*, has issued a proposal for the publication of a map of the State, "defining the territories of the Indian tribes, and the Indian names of localities therein, wherever they can be discovered." Mr. Rider has himself, it appears, bestowed much labor on a similar project. It were much to be wished that each New England State would compile such a map.

Though a great number of artists, including the author himself, have furnished the illustrations to Victor Hugo's 'Ninety-three' in the handsome edition of the Messrs. Routledge, the result is not inharmonious, and we rank the two volumes as among the best of the series to which they belong. As we have here, in intention at least, an historical novel, of a time which has been recorded pictorially as hardly no other, the designers had an easy task in borrowing and adapting. A certain number of portraits of Revolutionary characters are given both in action and as pure embellishments; in the latter case leaving something to be desired—say, a facsimile reproduction of old prints.

As a manufactured article, in no respect (save portability) is the edition of the 'Memoirs of Count Grammont' just published by Gebbie & Co., Philadelphia, to be preferred to that we noticed about a month ago (London: Nimmo; Philadelphia: Lippincott). The letter-press is inferior; the illustrations proper—etchings after Delort—are given at second-hand, and not completely. On the other side must be set down numerous familiar portraits of the beauties and mistresses of Charles II.'s court, of Charles himself, of James II., and of sundry courtiers; together with an appendix from Mrs. Jameson giving the lives of Mrs. Lawson, Lady Bellasys, and the Duchess of Portsmouth. The binding is in simple green cloth, in good taste.

A similar comparison must be made between the 'Manon Lescaut' reissued by Gebbie & Co. and the same work as brought out three years ago by Geo. Routledge & Sons. So far as our memory serves, they are identical, being illustrated and adorned by Maurice Leloir. Possibly this is a remnant of the earlier edition, but it *seems* as if the bloom were off and we were dealing with something not quite fresh.

The third volume having the imprint of Gebbie & Co., 'Nuremberg,' owes nothing except legitimately to other sources. It is a small folio, containing on alternate pages Longfellow's poem on the town, and illustrated abundantly by full-page photogravures, mostly of buildings, statuary, and general views within the walls. The Gebbie & Husson Co.'s process has been made use of here. Apparently it admits of considerable retouching, so that one sometimes suspects an engraving to be the base of a plate; but the majority of these have the stamp of nature views, and altogether they form a very pleasant souvenir of one of the most interesting places in the world. Two ladies, Misses Mary E. and Amy Comegys, have contrived the book, and have supplied for each stanza an initial letter, the derivation of which is scrupulously stated in a table. The local color would have been maintained and heightened if these had all been drawn (as none were) from the early MS. and printed book collection in the captivating National Museum at Nuremberg.

The first volume of Schumann's correspondence, turned into English by May Herbert, and published some months ago as an independent volume by George Bell & Sons, London, has just been added to the Bohn series ('Early Letters of Robert Schumann, Originally Published by his Wife.' New York: Scribner & Welford). Two years ago, on its first appearance in Germany, we examined this most interesting collection at some length. The translation has been none too laborious, and is not minutely faithful, paraphrase being frequently resorted to without, so far as we have examined, falsifying the sense of the German text. The public is benefited by having this edition made more accessible.

For "Bohn's Select Library," 'The Perfect Life'—twelve discourses of Channing's—has been taken over from the original series. "Bohn's Artist Library" offers a new edition of the late Mrs. Charles Heaton's 'History of Painting,' a work first published in 1872. Mr. Cosmo Monkhouse, justly thinking it worth the labor, has thoroughly overhauled it, verifying dates, rewriting notices, and supplying judicious footnotes by way of confirmation, correction, or elucidation. He also appends chronological lists of the painters of each country. The chapter on the extinction of painting in Italy has been rewritten by Miss Annie Evans. The work has thus been greatly enhanced in value for reference, while retaining a degree of readableness very uncommon in manuals of this compass.

A very taking edition, cheap only in price, of 'Robert Elsmere' has just been brought out by Macmillan & Co. We incline to think it the best as well as the latest.

Very dainty is the little edition of Macaulay's 'Lays of Ancient Rome,' produced by the Chiswick Press (New York: White & Allen). The type is small, but the judicious display makes it far from illegible. The two ballads of "Ivry" and "The Armada" are appended, and there is a medallion-portrait frontispiece. The American publishers would have done wisely to follow some such model in making over Samuel Waddington's 'The Sonnets of Europe.' They have, in fact, got up a showy rather than a handsome volume.

The 'Chaucer' of the "Canterbury Poets" series (London: Walter Scott; New York: T. Whittaker) has been selected by Frederick Noël Paton, who furnishes an introductory sketch and a glossary. His editing has consisted, apart from these services, in avoiding and omitting what it is no longer possible to read aloud. The volume is very pretty.

Long's translation of the 'Thoughts' of Marcus Aurelius has been added to the "Knickerbocker Nuggets" series of the Messrs. Putnam, where it should on every consideration be found.

A countryman and disciple of Count Tolstoi's has deemed it a service to mankind to make a complete English translation of his 'What to Do' (or, 'What Must We Do Then?'). Renouncing any remuneration for himself, he has offered the manuscript to an American publisher on the sole condition of giving it a popular form and circulation. This has been done in good faith and in fair typography by T. Y. Crowell & Co. We should recommend that the reading of this singular work begin with the "Note to Chapter XL.," with which it closes. It is the most absolute piece of mediævalism that can be imagined, restricting the sphere of woman to bearing children ("the greatest possible number") and reading the Gospel. "In order to appropriate the highest view of life," says Tolstoi, "I think there is no need of [her] visiting lectures."

Dr. A. L. Meissner, well known to our teachers of German through his German grammar (whether in the original or in the Joynes-Meissner shape), has lately published a companion volume, 'Practical Lessons in German Conversation' (Hachette & Cie.) It is prepared for use after the pupil has mastered twenty-eight lessons in the Grammar. We do not pretend to have examined the Conversations in every detail, but we have read enough to satisfy ourselves that the book is well planned and well executed. In the first place, the exercises are truly progressive. In the next place, they are interesting and practical, wholly free from the Ollendorffian "grandfather-shoemaker" business, and introducing such topics as usually interest educated men and women. Perhaps some of the fables and shorter stories might be suppressed. Lastly, the rendering from German into English is extremely close and idiomatic. We have noted a few slips. Of course *erst recht* is a hopeless *crux*; but surely it is not to be rendered by 'also' (p. 41): 'truly' would be better. Nor is old Blücher's *Orientierung* expressed by "topographical survey" (p. 199) any more than it would be by "place-hunting." Shall we speak of the *Kaiserliche Stadt-Post-Amt* as the "Royal Urban Post-office?" "City Post" would be quite enough; the Anglo-American heart rebels against logical renderings of German titles. But all these are very minute blemishes. The book as a book is deserving of high praise, and we commend it to all interested in the subject, with the hope that it will find an American publisher.

One is struck most, perhaps, in looking over the latest bound volume of *Harper's Young People*, with the number of articles which are obviously addressed to parents. Such are those on the forcing system, on the football season, on the care of teeth, on the awkward age, on keeping a diary and having an allowance, on the clothing of children, on the social relations of boys and girls, on the training of their voices, on the moral influence of games, on the choice of a school, on the learning of French and German, etc. These disquisitions, if they did nothing else but induce parents to read what their children are reading, must be judged a useful function of the magazine. Since we lately spoke of the trying type used in the letter-box department of *St. Nicholas*,

it is fair to say that *Harper's Young People* is open to the same censure. There is among the illustrations a noticeable number of process plates from photographs or from paintings.

The list of contributors to the *English Illustrated Magazine* for the past year (Macmillan) is brief as compared with corresponding magazines in this country, but it is weighty. The contents are mainly insular—of English scenery and coaching ways and art and olden homes—yet not without glimpses and excursions abroad. Mr. Henry James and Mr. Marion Crawford are the two American writers for the volume, and they both offer something of or for their own country—Mr. Crawford his national hymn. The typography and the illustrations of the magazine are, as usual, pleasing to the eye and of a good kind.

The most interesting paper in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for November is Mr. A. S. White's "Notes on the Distribution of Trade-Centres," which is accompanied by an excellent map of the world, showing the important productions of each country, the principal trade-routes, both by sea and by land, as well as the ocean cables and prominent steamship routes, with distances attached. The very full and instructive account of the Dutch East Indies by Emil Metzger is concluded in this number.

The November Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society is largely taken up with an account, by Mr. D. W. Freshfield, of the mountains of the Central Caucasus, a region which has just acquired a melancholy interest from the loss in crossing a glacier of Mr. Donkin, Secretary of the Alpine Club, and a Mr. Fox, together with two Swiss guides. Mr. Donkin, son of the late Professor of Astronomy at Oxford, was an excellent amateur photographer, and one of his mountain pictures has been reproduced to illustrate Mr. Freshfield's article. Several of the papers read before the British Association, the most important being Sir F. de Winton's on the "Commercial Future of East Africa," are also given.

The bibliophile princes of the house of Bourbon having been celebrated in a previous number of *Le Livre*, the Bourbon princesses who merited the same epithet are the subject of the leading paper in the October number. An etched group of their portraits completes the parallel. The second paper is by M. Victor Fournel, and treats of the "Dramatic Pastoral in the Seventeenth Century," beginning with the 'Astrée' of Honoré d'Urfé. It is a very interesting review, in which we remark what is said of the seventeenth century being much more concerned with man than with nature. Poets and prose writers, with rare exceptions, were alike deficient in feeling for landscape. "The group of odes written by the young Racine, and collectively entitled 'Paysages, ou Promenades de Port-Royal-des-Champs,' shows us only a got-up (*arrangée*) and slightly Jansenist Nature. What more expressive in its absolutely unconscious simplicity than the stage directions in the prologue to the 'Malade Imaginaire,' which is very characteristic: 'The scene represents a rural spot, but very pleasant withal.'"

No. 32 of the Bibliographical Contributions of the Library of Harvard University is curious indeed. The title, "Mathematical Theses of Junior and Senior Classes, 1782-1839," by no means reveals the ground of interest in this collection. This is to be found in two particulars—the distinction attained by so many of the authors of these theses, usually in fields utterly remote from mathematics; and the preservation of views and measurements of houses and lands in and about Cambridge which have no little antiquarian and pictorial value. There are about forty-four of these surveys, elevations, and perspectives, and it would be a happy thought if some friend of the College would bear the expense of their publication on a uniform scale. Here is James Savage, the prime authority for American genealogy, furnishing a colored view of churches and college buildings; Alexander H. Everett, the diplomatist, a colored "Templi Episcopalis Delineatio Perspectiva"; the future Dr. Jacob Bigelow, a perspective view "of the seat of the Hon. Francis Dana"; the future jurist, Theophilus Parsons, a perspective representation of University Hall; the future clergyman, Alexander Young, and the Latin lexicographer, Frederick P. Leverett, perspective views of St. Paul's Church and David Sears's new house in Boston respectively. If it is odd to meet with Harrison Gray Otis calculating a lunar eclipse for the year of his graduation, and adorning his thesis with a Virgilian epigraph, still more so is it to find his brother orator, Wendell Phillips, on the eve of his graduation, showing "Some beautiful results to which we are led by the Differential Calculus in the development of Functions." Little did the intending lawyer suspect how his own function was to be developed in the eclipse of Otis.

An interesting exhibition is in progress, at the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, of Albert Dürer's engravings, etchings, and dry-points, and of most of the woodcuts executed from his designs, together with eight original drawings. The catalogue fills eighty pages.

—The December *Harper's* surrenders unconditionally to the time of year and makes itself a Christmas number, not by virtue of two or three articles, but on the strength of its entire table of contents. The range of entertainment offered is such that only those who refuse to be pleased on principle can fail to find something to enjoy. Even the historical article by Theodore Child, "A Christmas Mystery in the Fifteenth Century," is made attractive to the most casual reader by its light and easy style and striking illustrations, though this is not saying that a closer study will not be amply repaid. It is the most meritorious piece in the whole number, and is greatly indebted to the drawings of M. Merson, whose knowledge of the archæology of the subject enables him to make the scenes of the old ecclesiastical drama lifelike and interesting in a high degree. Mr. Howells has a farce in the style of admirable fooling with which he has made us familiar. Another sample of the dialect story, "Sosrus Dismal," is highly successful in bringing out the superstitious *fond* of the negro, and disappoints only in the sharp corner turned at the end to fetch up with a suspicious bit of pathos. Of the other short stories and sketches, Grace King's "The Christmas Story of a Little Church" is by far the best. A short but satisfactory sketch of F. S. Church is accompanied by a half-dozen engravings from his paintings and drawings. Mr. W. H. Gibson's "Midnight Ramble" is a striking study of what might be called nocturnal botany; the great differences between the appearance of flowers by day and that by night are well shown by his drawings and described by his pen. Anna D. Ludlow has a long and ambitious poem, of which the most that can be said is that two or three times she comes very near writing the strong line which might have helped one to forget the turgidity and triteness of all the rest. Mr. Stedman has a half-dozen swinging stanzas on Morgan, the buccaneer, marred only by two infelicitous rhymes in the last one. We recall no number of a magazine setting out to be a special Christmas issue which achieved so consistent and successful a result as this first number of the seventy-eighth volume of *Harper's*.

—The *Atlantic* moves on with a Puritan's serene unconsciousness of times and seasons, and withal a Puritan's steady adherence to a worthy ideal. The present number does not yield a jot to the supposed demand for "special attractions" at this time of year, except so far as good literature may be attractive—and it may seem to many even specially so in the midst of the rush of merely amusing writing. President Hyde has a short article on the future of the country college. He thinks he sees a permanent place for it midway between the academy and the university. This, of course, depends upon the definition of academy and of college, and upon whether the possibility of the two blending into one, as in Germany, is to be admitted. In any case, social tradition and vested interests will be sure to make the day of the country college continue for a long time, whether the strictly educational argument for its existence can be successfully maintained or not. In "A Flight in the Dark," two Boston girls carry on a dialogue about all the deep things in philosophy, with an audacity that recalls the *Dial* days, with an air of old experience that will make unbelievers laugh, and yet with an intelligence and earnestness which, taken with the occasional dashes of humor thrown in to show that the writers do not take themselves too seriously, win the attention of even a sceptical reader. Mr. Henry A. Clapp furnishes a discriminating study of the artistic life of the late William Warren. Delightful reading is found in Susan Coolidge's "A Convent School of the Last Century." It is the Abbaye aux Bois that is described, and the material is drawn from the diaries of a quondam inmate, Princess Hélène Massalski. The school-girl's artless records leave one wondering anew at the identity of human nature in all ages. In particular do the deep conspiracy and final revolution of the Classe Blanche, to secure the removal of an incompetent teacher, show how the revolutionary spirit was abroad in France at that time. But one poem appears in the number, some anonymous verses entitled "At Alfred de Musset's Grave." That they are printed where they are is a proof that they are worth printing.

—*Scribner's* for December has a seasonable frontispiece in the shape of a bit of winter landscape, and follows it up appropriately with Mr. Hamilton W. Mabie's "Winter in the Adirondacks." To the advantage of being a pioneer, so far as we know, in writing of winter in the North Woods, Mr. Mabie adds a practised style, and is greatly helped by the fine illustrations which face his pages. Altogether, the article attractively opens an attractive number. A distinct addition to the knowledge of most of us is offered in Will H. Low's "Old Glass in New Windows," which hints at the history of glass-staining for decorative purposes, and describes with considerable detail the revival, or almost re-creation, as the writer thinks, of the art in America. The accompanying illustrations are necessarily disappointing. If a painting suffers loss in engraved reproductions, the case must be worse with a stained-glass window. The other art article of the number is a slight sketch of Botticelli, with copies of a half-dozen of his paintings, by George Hitchcock. The poetry is superabundant. There is a certain grace and sad tenderness in Ellen Burroughs's "The Madonna," and a strength which is rugged to the point of shapelessness in the anonymous poem, "The

Lion of the Nile"; the other poetical performances do not invite comment. The story-telling is complete in itself, with the exception of Mr. Stevenson's new serial, and is done by H. C. Bunner, Rebecca Harding Davis, W. M. Taber, and John J. À Becket. The late Mr. Wallack's reminiscences are brought to a close. The present instalment is pretty haphazard, and of no serious historical value while of slight artistic importance, but will serve to revive many kind memories and past enthusiasms. Thackeray comes into the narrative. Mr. Stevenson's "Christmas Sermon" is the only one of its kind that will be preached this year. His text is taken from the Gospel of Failure, and his meditations thereupon are better fitted, most will think, to the remorseful retrospect of the last day of the year than to the traditional jollity of Christmas. One might guess it was the gloom of Scotch Presbyterianism thus reappearing in the luckless inheritor of its traditions, and sourest, of course, at the time of a fond and superstitious observance of a festival that smacks strongly of popery. This is far from saying, be it noted, that there is not much sound sense and good morals in the rather lugubrious discourse.

—Mr. Ernest Satow, now the British Consul-General of Siam, who resided nearly twenty years in Japan, and is probably the foremost of Anglo Japanese scholars, has employed his recent vacation in Europe in a characteristic manner. Believing that in the archives of Rome, Lisbon, and Madrid there were many interesting relics of the literary labors of the Jesuit and other Roman Catholic missionaries in Japan of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, he explored these collections during the past spring and summer. He has discovered many interesting facts hitherto unknown, and documents which will throw light upon a period of Japanese history possessing the highest interest for the western world. The publication of his results may be looked for perhaps next year, though the desire for thorough work, for which this tireless scholar is noted, may prompt him to continue his researches. In Japan, also, the study of the native Christianity of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries is carried on with ardor by Mr. Séki, the Japanese editor of the *Nichi-Nichi Shimbun* (or *Day-by-day Newspaper*) of Tokio. In this paper, Mr. Séki has recently printed the results of his personal studies, made while in Italy, of the pictures and letters left in Rome by the daimios of Kiushiu, A. D. 1585. These nobles visited the Pope, journeying by way of Mexico, after a voyage of three years. Besides settling interesting points of local interest to Japanese scholars, the letters give a charming picture of St. Peter's, then fresh with the colors of Raphael and Michael Angelo. Among other discovered articles was a portrait of a Japanese noble, Hasékura, of Sendai, who also visited Rome as a Christian delegate to the Pope. This, with other paintings, was found at the house of an Italian noble. It is now within range of easy possibility that we may yet have a scholarly and unimpassioned history, by a native Japanese, of Japanese Christianity. Certainly, the popular verdict concerning the Hollanders, as well as of Taiko and Iyéyasu, needs to be revised, since nearly all that we know definitely concerning the expulsion of Christianity from Japan has been furnished by men between whom and the Hollanders and Japanese rulers no love was lost.

—The Russian Physical and Chemical Society, a committee of which organized very fully-equipped parties at seven stations for observing the total solar eclipse of 1887, has just published in its *Journal* the full report by Prof. Egoroff. The stations were scattered as much as possible through Russia and Siberia, but at only three of them was the sky propitious enough for successful observations. Petrovsk, Krasnoiarsk, and Possiet were the favored localities, the last being on the eastern Asiatic coast. Krasnoiarsk was perhaps the best station of all, the photographers obtaining no less than fourteen excellent pictures. These widely separate localities were specially favorable for the detection of rapid changes in the sun's corona, should such take place; but although nearly two hours of time intervened between the occurrence of the total eclipse at Polotsk and at Possiet, the figure of the corona did not materially change during that interval. It was a repetition of the type of corona previously observed in 1869 and 1878, and corresponded in a general way to the epoch of minimum spots on the sun. The complex coronal filaments about the solar poles are well exhibited on the Krasnoiarsk negatives, and are important as leading to generalizations about the structure of the corona, and ultimately of the sun itself. The vastly extended cloud-areas did not work so complete a wreck of meteorological hopes, although even these results are slender enough. The work of twenty-five separate stations is generalized by Prof. Hesehus, who finds the progress of the lunar shadow followed by a slight lowering of the atmospheric pressure, which is explained by a condensation of atmospheric vapor. The decline of a few degrees in air temperatures was greatest shortly after the total eclipse; and the force of the wind was somewhat diminished, perhaps also on account of condensation of vapor. The usual nocturnal effects upon plants, insects, and animals are represented as well pronounced.

THE RANDOLPH ENIGMA.

Omitted Chapters of History Disclosed in the Life and Papers of Edmund Randolph, Governor of Virginia; First Attorney General of the United States; Secretary of State. By Moncure Daniel Conway, Author of "Pine and Palm," "The Wandering Jew," etc. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1888.

In this Life of Edmund Randolph we have an attempt, as earnest as it is sincere, to restore to its pedestal in our national pantheon the effigy of a statesman who once filled a conspicuous place in the eyes of the whole country. In the elemental stir of the Revolutionary era, and in the formative period which followed it, few names gathered to themselves a more sudden brightness or shone with a serener lustre than the name of Edmund Randolph. The light of those times, fierce as it was, had discovered no public flaw in his character when, in the year 1795, even more suddenly than his sun had risen in the political sky, it went down while it was yet noon, and sank below the horizon in a cloud of obloquy and suspicion. It is the aim of Mr. Conway to rehabilitate the reputation of the distinguished personage to whom, as he thinks, the initiation and the ratification of the Constitution of the United States were especially due; and in rendering this tardy justice to a forgotten worthy he has filled up some "omitted chapters of history" pertaining to the digest of the Constitution, the organization of our Federal Judiciary, and the conduct of public affairs under the Administration of Washington.

Commencing with a lively sketch of society in Williamsburg, Va., while as yet young Randolph was a student of William and Mary College, Mr. Conway gives us a pleasing picture of his early training and high social surroundings. His father, a skeptic in religion and somewhat of a pococurante in politics, was King's Attorney for the Colony of Virginia at the outbreak of the Revolution, and fled, with Lord Dunmore, the provincial Governor, to England. Edmund refused to follow the lead of his Loyalist parent, and at the early age of twenty-two—he was born August 10, 1753—found himself left to win his own way in the world with very limited resources. In the year 1775 he was aide-de-camp on the military staff of Washington, but, having been bred to the law, he soon resigned this post, and was appointed Attorney General of Virginia in 1776. In that same year he sat in the Convention which framed the Constitution of Virginia, the first Constitution formed by any State after the Declaration of Independence. In 1777 he was commissioned as a Delegate to the Continental Congress, and thenceforward continued for several years to serve alternately as a member of this body and as the Attorney General of his State. In 1786 he was placed by the Virginia Legislature at the head of the Commission appointed to confer with similar Commissions from other States in the Annapolis Conference—that prelude of constitutional reconstruction. Later in the same year he was chosen Governor of Virginia, and in 1787 was a leading member of the Federal Convention. The large share he had in the digest of the Constitution was already matter of history, but Mr. Conway sheds new light on the constructive genius which Randolph brought to that great deliberation. It is known that he refused to sign the Constitution in the shape it finally took, but none the less gave to its ratification a zealous support when, in the Virginia Convention of 1788, the question of its adoption or rejection seemed to him the article of a standing or falling Union of the States.

On the accession of Washington to the Presidency in 1789 Randolph was appointed Attorney General of the United States. He organized our Department of Justice under the Constitution. Here, too, he showed his constructive talent by projecting amendments to the Judiciary Act as drawn by Ellsworth. While sympathizing as a Cabinet officer with the general political ideas of Jefferson, he was thoroughly national in his principles of constitutional interpretation. It was at Jefferson's suggestion that Randolph succeeded him in the office of Secretary of State in 1794. Motives of political prudence conspired with motives of political ambition to dictate the resignation of Jefferson. He could no longer bring his positive opinions into correspondence with the non-partisan policy of Washington, and was glad to quit his "hot-water office," though he did not do so without dropping in the ear of the President what Mr. Conway calls "a small deposit of distrust" as to the qualifications of the successor.

Randolph's administration of the State Department covers the aftermath of Genet's demagogy, the Whiskey Insurrection in Pennsylvania, Spanish aggressions in the Mississippi Valley, disunion mutterings in Kentucky, Indian hostilities, and the rumor of British machinations on our northern frontier, to all which was finally superadded the political ferment excited by Jay's treaty. As the official spokesman of the Administration, he was called to educe some sort of formal harmony out of all these discords. It is known that the embarrassments of his position came to a sharp crisis in the complications which attended the ratification of Jay's treaty with England. That treaty was framed November 19, 1794, and was

approved by the Senate on the 24th of June, 1795, with a reservation of its twelfth article relating to the West India trade—a reservation which would call for further negotiations if that article was to be amended and retained as an integral part of the treaty. The Federalists in the Cabinet were clamorous for an immediate ratification of the treaty, *sans phrase*. The Republicans throughout the country were clamorous for a rejection of the treaty in its entirety, as being insulting to France and detrimental to American interests. While the mind of Washington, torn with anxiety by these civic feuds, was vibrating between the advantages and the disadvantages of the Convention, a British order in council, newly revived for the seizure of the United States provision ships bound to France, suddenly came to give preponderance to his objections against the commercial part of the treaty. The Federalist members of the Cabinet were incensed at this hesitation. Randolph defended it, gave official exposition to the grounds on which it was based, and, in a letter to the President under date of July 12, drew up the project of future negotiations under this head to be conducted with the British Minister, Hammond. The President gave provisional instructions to proceed on this theory, but, before any negotiations in this direction had been opened, he went to Mount Vernon on the 15th of July. On the 22d of July he reiterated his opinion against an unconditional ratification; on the 25th of July he directed Randolph to communicate the grounds of his provisional determination to the other members of the Cabinet; and on the following day it was that Hammond changed this drift of events by placing in the hands of Wolcott, the Secretary of the Treasury, that ill-omened despatch of Fauchet which was big with the fate of Randolph and with the fortunes of the pending negotiation.

This despatch, as our readers know, was an intercepted document which had been captured at sea by a British cruiser, had been forwarded to London, and subsequently sent by Grenville, the British Secretary of State, to Hammond, with instructions to communicate its contents "to well-disposed persons in America" in such way as might be "useful to the King's service."

The despatch purported to have been written by Fauchet, the French Minister at Philadelphia, in report to his Government on the course of events and evolution of parties in the United States. On its face the paper was very damaging to Randolph's official loyalty, and, if read in an invidious sense, was not without its reflections on his personal integrity. At the points where the revelations of the document seemed most incriminating, a reference was made by the writer to former despatches No. 3 and No. 6, of which, indeed, this communication, entitled No. 10, professed to be the key and exposition.

It will be seen at once that such a paper, referring as it did to "precious confessions" alleged to have been made to the writer by Randolph, bristling throughout with injurious animadversions on the financial policy of Washington's administration, taxing his special supporters with a design to introduce absolute power under the military guise of suppressing the Whiskey Insurrection, specifically charging that certain Democratic leaders, "with Randolph, no doubt, at their head," had at one time been balancing in their minds whether they would support the Government or join hands with the Pennsylvania insurgents; and, finally, gravely alleging that on one occasion Randolph had intimated to him that with a few thousand dollars the French Republic might have made itself at this crisis master of the situation by buying up four men among the leading "patriots"—such a document, we repeat, coming to light in a time of popular giddiness and confusion, was well adapted to shake the confidence of Washington in the Secretary whose advice he was following in a critical conjuncture. The Federalists in the Cabinet, Wolcott, Pickering, and Bradford, were quick to see the handle that could be made of the weapon for destroying the influence of their Republican colleague. Accordingly, the President was hastily summoned from Mount Vernon; Pickering, with the aid of his French grammar and dictionary, got up a hasty translation of the despatch; and, on the return of Washington to Philadelphia on the 11th of August, the startling "find" was communicated to him, accompanied by the Federalist Secretaries with the free denunciation of Randolph as a detected "traitor."

At a Cabinet meeting, held on the following day, the whole question of ratifying the treaty was reopened. A hot discussion ensued between Randolph and the Federalist majority. To this discussion Washington put an end with the simple words: "I will ratify the treaty." The conditions previously meditated were dismissed from view. Not a word was dropped as to the cause of this sudden change. Randolph was directed to communicate to Hammond the decision which had been reached, and to do so at once. On the following day the preliminary papers were drawn up. On the 14th of August the President made a friendly visit to Randolph at his home. On the 15th he invited the Secretary to dinner, and repeated the same civility on the 18th; but on the following day—all preliminary arrangements for the signing of the treaty having now been completed—he laid the accusing document before Randolph in the presence of Wolcott and Pickering, with a request that he would read it (the French original was used in this ordeal) and would make such observations on its contents as he judged proper. It is admitted that Randolph read the paper through without blenching. He made at the time some running comments on its several paragraphs, and promised to give at a future day a full explanation of everything in the despatch, so far as it related to him. On the next day he resigned his post, hurried off a day or two later in quest of Fauchet at Newport (R. I.), where he was on the eve of taking ship for France; procured from him an exonerating certificate, and, on the 18th of December following, published the well-known "Vindication."

From that day to this "the Randolph case" has been one of the enigmas of our history—an enigma perplexing alike for its putative implications against the honor of Randolph, and for its putative implications against the candor of Washington in his demeanor towards Randolph from the 11th to the 19th of August, as well as against the President's justice in apparently prejudging the case against his Secretary before any examination could be had into the grounds of an indictment resting on the unsupported allegations of a soured diplomatist.

In spite of the ardent defence which Mr. Conway brings to the exculpation of his hero, it is probable that Randolph will still remain for many minds an enigmatical character, at least in some phases of his case; but that probability only enhances our satisfaction that this book has been written, and that it has been written in the spirit of a genuine biographical enthusiasm for its subject. Alike for his talents, which were great, for his services, which were sometimes as solid as they were brilliant, and for his misfortunes, which were pathetic, it was fitting that Randolph should have, even at this late day, the benefit of a motion for arrest of judgment in the grand assize of history. The case that was made out against him in the court below—a Cabinet council embittered against him by the very patriotism of its members—was a case which rested purely on "suspicions," and on suspicions drawn from a very suspicious document written by a very suspicious person, cast on our shores by the eruptions of the French Revolution in its most volcanic period. In the nature of the case, it was almost impossible to traverse charges at once so insinuating and yet so nebulous as those which left their blight on the name and fame of our second Secretary of State; but in order that the enigma which these charges create may be seen in its just proportions, it seems to us that we should carefully discriminate between the suspicions which properly relate to Randolph as a public officer, and those which relate to him as a man of truth and honor. When this distinction is clearly grasped, we shall probably find in it a solution of the enigmatical manner in which Washington addressed himself to the earlier aspects of this distressing complication; and with this clue in hand we may perhaps find a resolution of the main point at issue against Randolph himself, an issue which concerns his personal honor as something much more worth preserving than his repute for official prudence.

It is plain that Washington, for reasons discovered to him after his return to Philadelphia on the 11th of August, was suddenly minded to take away his confidence from Randolph as a safe adviser at that trying moment. Having determined to do so on the strength of the suspicions excited by the Fauchet despatch, he was probably confirmed in that resolve by another document which suddenly came to increase the involutions of this embroglio. Mr. Conway tells us that on the second day after the return of the President from Mount Vernon, the Secretary placed in his hands that most surprising despatch of July 29, 1795, the purport of which, as abbreviated by Washington, is given in the twenty-fourth chapter of this volume. Mr. Conway might have found the full despatch in the archives of the State Department. So far as we know, it has never been published. On its face it helps to make the darkness of the Randolph enigma only the more visible. In that paper Randolph writes to Monroe, our Minister at Paris, to put him on his guard against the truthfulness of any representations which Fauchet shall make to him on returning to France. It is further averred in this same communication that Fauchet, from the first moment of his career in the United States, "had wrapped himself round with intrigue"; had pretended great attachment to the President while secretly hostile to him; had associated chiefly with enemies of the Administration; had been in close league with Genet while professing to disapprove of his course; and had sought to worm out the secrets of the Government from certain members of the Cabinet, of whom, adds the Secretary, "I am not one." When it is remembered that *this* despatch, under Randolph's own hand, was communicated to Washington on the second day after the intercepted despatch had been brought to his notice, it will be easy to see that the President might well have his confidence shaken in the perspicacity of his Secretary, who, if not misleading, had confessed himself to have been steadily misled by the wily Frenchman. On the supposition of Randolph's guilt, this letter was a blind, and involved a fresh imputation on his straightforwardness. On the supposition of Randolph's innocence,

the letter was a new accusation against his prudence. It is not surprising, therefore, that the President, in view of this letter, was the more resolved to overrule the Secretary whose advice he had been following in a public transaction which called for the gravest circumspection. And certainly Randolph could not have been sufficiently circumspect if what he said about Fauchet were true. If what Fauchet said about *him* were true, then the grounds of suspicion against the Secretary were deepened. The ambiguity was bifurcated.

But it is important to observe that the decision of the public question immediately in hand did not carry with it any foregone decision of the case raised against the integrity of Randolph by the allegations of Fauchet. For, after the decision of this public problem had been reached, we find Washington frankly admitting, in his own careful study of the Randolph incident in every conceivable light (as preserved in the paper handed to Wolcott), that subsequent inquiry might result in the unequivocal acquittal of the Secretary. This fact alone suffices to show that the treaty question had been decided on grounds entirely irrespective of the question raised by the despatch as to Randolph's probity. On the decision of this latter question would depend his retention or dismissal as a member of the Cabinet. The anxiety of Washington to do exact justice in the premises is proved by the pains he took to provide himself with a conspectus of all the elements in the case. He made for his own enlightenment an elaborate abstract (indited in his own neat hand) of all the letters written by Randolph to Monroe during the period of Jay's negotiations, and later down to July 30, 1795. Then he made a careful brief of Fauchet's despatch. It is probable that this work was done in the interval between August 11 and August 19. It is certain that the abstract of Fauchet's despatch was made from Pickering's translation or from some contemporaneous recension of it, because the textual citations which Washington makes are not taken from the authentic version as published in Randolph's "Vindication." When the "Vindication" appeared, Washington made an abstract of it also.

It is, as we conceive, from a failure to make a proper discrimination between these two possible aspects of Randolph's case that Mr. Conway never essays any defence of Randolph's career which does not seem to imply that the private honor of the man was bound up with the impeccability of the Secretary; and in like manner he formulates no theory of Washington's conduct in the affair which does not proceed either on the hypothesis of Washington's decaying intellect at this period, or on the still more improbable hypothesis that Washington, in the exercise of a pitiless and remorseless patriotism, consented to the destruction of his friend as a vicarious sacrifice, offered up without blemish or spot, to appease the malignant powers then working for the ruin of the country. It seems to us that "'twere to consider too curiously to consider so." The enigma is better solved by supposing a divided duty on Washington's part adjusted to meet a divided view of Randolph's conduct as a man and as a public officer. There is nothing abstruse or disingenuous in such a psychological dichotomy. We can find an exact parallel to it in the conduct of Randolph himself. Even after he had, as he reports, discovered the criminal duplicity of Fauchet, he tells Monroe that on the eve of the trickster's departure for Europe he invited Fauchet to dinner, and made a proffer of friendly services, which, if due to him from motives of political prudence or of public duty, were certainly in no wise due to him either as man or minister.

The situation of Randolph in the hour and article of his doom lacked no element of the tragical. By his letter to Monroe of July 29 he had smutched the character of Fauchet as that of an unscrupulous villain. By Fauchet's intercepted despatch it appeared as if Randolph had been the confidant of this dissembler. Yet when confronted with the damaging paper, it was the cruel necessity of Randolph's equivocal position that he was bound to make an appeal for justification to the very man who had stabbed him, and to seek a certificate of exoneration from the diplomatic adventurer whose truth and honor he had just discredited. In the archives of the French legation at Philadelphia Fauchet always described Randolph as "an honest and upright man." In his letters home he complained that Randolph "played the sincere and made false confidences to him." Hence it is that in the matter of Randolph's guilt or innocence, we entirely concur with Mr. Trescot in dismissing from our sight the exculpatory letter given by Fauchet to the ex-Secretary. Two rays of light countering against each other make darkness, but two rays of darkness do not make light by their antithesis. Fauchet could not erase his stigma by a few scratches of his pen, for it was not the scratches of his pen which had made the stigma. The sole sting of his despatch was in the apparent circumstantiality of his statements.

The trials of Randolph did not end with his political overthrow. He was prosecuted as a defaulter, and, at the end of a long litigation, a formal judgment was entered up against him. Nothing perhaps helped more to barb the poisoned arrow of Fauchet than the well-known fact that Randolph, "the St. Sebastian of all arrows," as Mr. Conway calls him, lived in a state of chronic pecuniary embarrassment, and this from no prodigality of his own, but from pious duty to dependent relatives. To this day his name is borne on the registers of the Treasury at Washington as a debtor to the United States in the sum of $60,000. We have satisfied ourselves that the default is, as Mr. Conway represents, a purely fictitious one; that the technical claim of the Government has been more than satisfied, and that gross injustice is done to Randolph's memory by the perpetuation of this unmerited reproach.

If compelled to make our own résumé of the blended good and evil in the life and fortunes of Randolph, we should still recur substantially to the judgment of Madison. He said: "Randolph's greatest enemies will not easily persuade themselves that he was under a corrupt influence of France, and his best friends cannot save him from the self-condemnation of his political career as explained by himself." In saying that Randolph's own "Vindication" involved a "self-condemnation of his political career," Madison means that the non-partisan attitude affected by the Secretary as between the Federalist and the Republican parties, in their then existing stage of differentiation, had become impossible. In this view Madison was plainly right. Randolph's career as Secretary of State covers the birth-pang of party government in our country. Parties there had been before, but government by party dates among us from the ratification of Jay's treaty and the fall of Randolph as a professedly non-partisan Secretary. From that time forth even Washington was unable to effect a synthesis of divergent political opinions, and was constrained to rule as a Federalist chief. No Republican would take the portfolio which Randolph dropped from his hands in indignation and disgrace.

If compelled to construct a psychology of our own for the explanation of the enigmatical character of Randolph as a man and as a statesman, we should say, under correction, that with none of Wentworth's "Thorough" he had too much of Falkland's large discourse of reason and too little of Falkland's executive faculty for grasping the horns of a political dilemma when, in a time of storm and pressure, a choice must be made at the dividing of ways. Mr. Conway tells us that it is a family trait of the Randolphs to "look on the other side" of every question, and to "make the most of its claims"; that Edmund Randolph had "a refining mind"; that there was nothing of the "irreconcilable" in his nature; that he always had "a provoking ability to conceive that he might be wrong," which maimed his capacity for leadership; that he had the large mind which is long in its poise, and was "incapable of partisanship." It seems to us that the learned biographer has not made a sufficient use of his own psychological analysis in explaining the checkered fortunes of Randolph's career. We here perhaps may find the very *mot* of the Randolph enigma, if it can only be admitted that this remarkable man had the defect of his qualities. This mental peculiarity may not only explain his infelicities as a man of affairs, but may also account in a measure for the harsh delineations of his character as drawn by political friends like Jefferson, and by political enemies like Wolcott and Pickering. Even Jefferson's libellous caricature, as Mr. Conway holds it, may perhaps be blended into a composite photograph of Randolph's political physiognomy without entirely destroying its verisimilitude. What to Jefferson seemed the inconstancy of a "chameleon" may have been the receptiveness of a large mind, reflecting many aspects of opinion by virtue of its very many-sidedness. Such men are always liable to be misunderstood and will often be denounced as "trimmers"; they will often prove irresolute in action, and so, in times of stress, are liable to be crushed, as Randolph was, between the upper and the nether millstones of partisan conflict. We suspect there was a streak of *Hamlet* in the fine porcelain of Randolph's nature.

We feel so much indebted to Mr. Conway for the contribution he has made to our knowledge of an interesting and obscure epoch in American history, that we forbid ourselves to indulge in criticism on the arrangement of his materials; but there are points in his narrative where, as it seems to us, he has not duly profited by the Horatian maxim, *Tantum series juncturaque pollet.* In a second edition we would advise that the full text of Randolph's remarkable letter of July 12, 1795, should be given in explication of the even balance of opinions involved in the ratification or rejection of Jay's treaty. Nothing finer in the way of analysis ever came from the "refining mind" of Randolph. The letter to Monroe, under date of July 29, 1795, should also be given in its entirety, with a discussion of its possible relation to the nexus of events which combined to seal the Secretary's fate in Washington's mind. The proof-reading of the volume leaves much ground for complaint. We began a collection of misprints, but found that we could not cope with their number and variety.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.

As the holiday season approaches, Mr. Howard Pyle comes before us again with a book "written and illustrated" by himself. 'Robin Hood' and 'The Wonder Clock' are succeeded by 'Otto of the Silver Hand' (Scribners).

Merry England and Fairyland are followed by mediæval Germany. It is a tale of robber barons and holy monks, of peaceful cloistered days, and wild nights of fire and blood, that is here told—and well told in the main; a tale of incident that would be thrilling if only the actors had a little more vitality in them. They play their parts spiritedly enough, kill and are killed, bless and curse, and love and are made love to in a quite lively and satisfactory manner as long as they are on the scene, but they never come to life and walk off about their own business; one feels that between their exits and their entrances they are lying quite peacefully in their box doing nothing, and that when the curtain is rung down, a little change of paint and costume will fit them for other rôles to come. There is nothing kenspeckle about them, and with new properties and furnishing they may, with skilful handling of the wires, strut through many another piece.

The English is straightforward and transparent, but not as simple as is usual with the author, and the book is marred by passages of commonplace eloquence like the following:

"Beyond these squalid huts lay the rushing, foaming river, spanned by a high, rude, stone bridge where the road from the castle crossed it; and beyond the river stretched the great, black forest, within whose gloomy depths the savage wild beasts made their lair, and where in winter time the howling wolves coursed their flying prey across the moonlit snow and under the network of the black shadows from the naked boughs above."

This is "the right butter-woman's rank to market;" and the steady, jug-trot pound of the adjectives is annoying to a sensitive ear.

To create living characters is rare; to attain to perfection in style is rare. If Mr. Pyle has not done these two rare things, he has made a good story and told it in sound language, and these things also are rare enough. As far as the text is concerned, the balance must incline to the side of praise. How of the illustrations? The answer to this question depends largely upon what one may consider to be the true limit of imitation. No one can look long upon the drawings in any one of these three books of Mr. Pyle's without thinking of Dürer. The imitation is patent in style and handling. Well, it is a good style, and has been imitated before and will be imitated again; and if one has not a style of his own, he could pick up many a worse than this. And the imitation is singularly good. One admires this easy mastery of an Old-World manner by an artist of our day and country; it is strangely like the real thing Yes, it is *too* like the real thing. As one looks, a bit here and there—a stump, a wing, the rump of a great white horse—assumes a strangely familiar air, and one begins to realize that Mr. Pyle has made other use of his portfolio of old engravings than the study of a method and the absorbing of a manner. Where does this stop? Where does imitation cease and direct copying begin? What is Mr. Pyle's, here, and what is Dürer's? It is impossible to say. Much there must be of Mr. Pyle's own, and much that is good and strong enough to stand alone; but when suspicion is once aroused it covers everything alike. Mr. Pyle is an artist of ability and training. Let us beg of him to stand upon his own two feet that we may judge his stature, and not, by mounting on the shoulders of a taller man, make himself seem shorter than he is.

Mr. Chester Loomis's illustrations of Mother Goose ('Familar Selections,' E. P. Dutton & Co.) seem to invite a dangerous comparison, for their similarity in general style to M. Boutet de Monvel's delightful illustrations of French popular songs is unmistakable. It is hardly necessary to say that such a comparison would not be favorable to Mr. Loomis; but comparisons are odious, and we will not make any. Taken by themselves, Mr. Loomis's drawings have very considerable merit; they possess much delicate humor and a fine flavor of naïveté, and they show a decided decorative sense. They are, as all colored illustrations should be, in pure outline and flat tint, without modelling, and the color schemes are generally delicate and well chosen. In short, Mr. Loomis's work is altogether right and sound in style, and if not the best *in* its style, is very nearly as good as the best.

It is probably safe to assume that Mr. Palmer Cox's 'Queer People with Paws and Claws' (Philadelphia: Hubbard Bros.) will be as popular with the children as were those other queer people, 'The Brownies.' More experienced palates may find the flavor of both drawings and text somewhat crude and insipid; but little folks have simple tastes, and this food is at least pure and wholesome, and there is not an indigestion in a platter-full of it.

A juvenile classification may not injuriously be given to the stout volume called 'Library of Universal Adventure by Sea and Land,' which has been compiled and edited by Messrs. W. D. Howells and Thos. Sargeant Perry, and published by the Harpers. The is nothing to indicate the part of each editor in this undertaking, but we will hazard a guess that Mr. Perry has had the laboring oar. From the youthful point of view, this collection leaves little to be desired in point of range and variety. Capt. John Smith's captivity among the Turks, Capt. Cook's fate, Baron Trenck's sufferings, the mutiny of the *Bounty*, even the horrors of the Black Hole of Calcutta (though the last would seem to be ruled out by the editorial definition of "adventure" as something personal) are all to be found here; but we have also more modern episodes, like Louis Napoleon's escape from Ham, Dr. Judson's imprisonment in Burmah, Frederick Douglass's escape from slavery, and Owen Brown's flight after Harper's Ferry. Sport is not neglected, but Sir Samuel Baker is not drawn upon. In the American section one might have expected to find something from Lewis and Clarke.

The editing is somewhat open to criticism. In general, the condensation and abstracting resorted to impair one of the uses of such a collection, viz., the comparison of styles. Then, it is not easy to distinguish between the editorial insertion and the original narrative—to determine, for example, who is responsible for the expression, on page 519, "He was not long, however, before he made another effort to recover his liberty." Acknowledgments of the sources are not always made, nor uniformly, as at the beginning or end of an extract. This is slovenly, and so has the proof-reading been. "Two or three excepted; they were unacquainted with each other," we read on page 521; "Sièyes," on page 546; "Waterman," in the table of contents, for Waterton, etc. An error which has been adopted on trust is the spelling of Meriam with double *r*, in Owen Brown's story. But this is a slip which John Brown's latest biographer falls into. It is also misleading to say, as on page 270, that this companion of Brown's "was of the wealthy Massachusetts Merriams." The cuts are numerous, but hit or miss, being taken according to the nearest aptitude from the publishers' store of blocks. That on p. 276 is ludicrously far-fetched. Finally, should not such veteran book-makers have provided an index?

'Zigzag Journeys in the Antipodes' (Boston: Estes & Lauriat), by Hezekiah Butterworth, is marked by the excellences and faults of its predecessors in this series. The book is attractively got up, and the illustrations are numerous and excellent, but the text is far too evidently written for the pictures. As these often have nothing to do with Siam, the ostensible subject of the journeys, there is an irritating disconnectedness between the various chapters. These are simply a patchwork of stories, extracts from books or papers, and wandering reflections, pervaded with a gentle sentimentality chiefly in regard to cruelty to animals. The amount of information about the antipodes, compared with the size of the volume, is small, though no doubt correct.

The heroes of 'The Boy Travellers in Australasia' (Harpers), by Thos. W. Knox, visit the Sandwich Islands and various other groups in the south Pacific before they reach Australia and New Zealand, descriptions of which form the principal part of the volume. This earlier portion we have found more entertaining than the latter—we presume from the fact that many of the chapters on the English colonies are so packed with facts and statistics as to make the reading of them like eating pemmican. The author would have left on his young readers a far more lasting impression of the wonderful growth and present condition of these colonies, had he selected a few of the most important facts and dwelt upon them. As it is, however, this series stands easily at the head, so far as our knowledge goes, of its class of "imaginary voyages"—a field of literature which we hope is about exhausted. The book is excellently manufactured, with maps conveniently placed upon the inside covers at either end. It, together with those preceding it, might be used to advantage in schools in connection with lessons in geography.

'The Knockabout Club in the Antilles' (Estes & Lauriat), by F. A. Ober, is a rambling description of the various West Indian islands, written to accompany pictures of all degrees of excellence and appropriateness. It contains considerable information, and enables the reader to form a fairly strong impression of the life and scenery of the places visited. Had the author omitted the humorous passages in which he vainly strives to lighten the monotony of his narrative, and been more careful to avoid error in his historical summaries, his book would have been more valuable.

Considered as a story simply, 'The Cat of Bubastes' (Scribner & Welford), by G. A. Henty, is the most interesting of this prolific writer's tales which we remember. The scene is laid partly on the shores of the Caspian and partly in Egypt, forty years before the Exodus, and there are many good descriptions of the life, amusements, and religious observances of the Egyptians of that time. The author attempted too much, however, in introducing Moses into one of his chapters, and he gives a very shadowy impression of the Hebrews. Their district is invariably spelled Goschen, an innovation for which the present Chancellor of the Exchequer is probably the innocent cause. The illustrations are fair.

It is only natural that the first part of 'Children's Stories of the Great Scientists' (Charles Scribner's Sons), by Henrietta Christian Wright, should be better adapted to the reading of children than the last. The stories of Galileo, Newton, Franklin, and Linnæus, telling, as it were, of the beginnings of science, lend themselves easily to a picturesque and graphic treatment, while this is almost impossible in narrating the discoveries of Lyell, Agassiz, Tyndall, and Darwin. The author has been very successful in the early chapters, that on Linnæus being especially interesting; but in the latter she has apparently forgotten

that she was writing for the young. We have noticed more errors than should have crept into a work of this character, the most important, perhaps, being that which makes Concord, Mass., and not Concord, N. H., the early home of Count Rumford.

THE STORY OF TURKEY.

The Story of Turkey. By Stanley Lane-Poole, assisted by E. J. W. Gibb and Arthur Gilman. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1888.

THE study of history is a serious matter—not because history repeats itself, as Dr. Arnold used always to be saying, or that a knowledge of Thucydides may be as useful to an American statesman as personal experience, or because, as Hegel remarked, an historian is a prophet turned round; but because the history of the past helps to explain to us the present. D'Haussonville says: "It is certainly not in the past that we must seek the key of the future. Events succeed one another after certain rules, and are not reproduced. Even when you are most tempted to find them nearly the same, you discover more difference than resemblance." But in knowing the chain of events which link the past to the present, in understanding how and in what way any nation or country has come to exist as it exists to-day, we have the key to the contemporary politics of that country. This is the point on which Freeman and the new school of historians lay great stress, either in so many words or by implication. But serious as it is when considered in this way, history can be made very entertaining, and be so flavored as to suit the lightest palate and the most delicate digestion. Certain historical periods are so wonderfully interesting that they can be written so as to be as amusing as a novel, or can even be easily described in novel-form. From this point of view, however, we are inclined to agree with Miss Mitford that the *mémoires pour servir*, the materials for history, are more amusing than the history written from them.

Unfortunately, the book before us is not of a kind to satisfy either those who read for instruction or those who read for amusement. It is not sufficiently detailed for the latter; and as for the former, its faults may easily be imagined from its title. At first sight, one thinks "The Story of the Nations" is not a bad idea; but on a moment's reflection one sees the danger of a lack of historical perspective—that the picturesque side, the story and not the history, will be given, and that each writer will so espouse his subject as to magnify the virtues, minimize the faults, and even conceal the crimes of the nation about which he is writing. All of these faults can be found in the present volume, which labors also under the difficulty that its chief author is an Englishman; and passion for or against Turkey or Russia has so taken possession of Englishmen nowadays that it is the hardest thing in the world for them to treat either country with impartiality. Mr. Stanley Lane-Poole is, we believe, a relative of the well-known Arabic scholar Lane, the author of 'Modern Egyptians' and the translator of the 'Arabian Nights.' He is himself an Arabic scholar (which he shows too much here in preferring Arabic to Turkish spelling), and is an authority on Eastern numismatics; but apparently he had never occupied himself with Turkish history until, as his literary executor, he edited the biography of Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, which naturally gave him a strong pro-Turkish bias.

As a history, the volume before us cannot for a moment be compared with two books of about the same size, the 'Histoire de l'Empire Ottoman,' by Le Vicomte A. de la Jonquière—one of the historical manuals published by Hachette, an excellent, trustworthy, and entertaining book—or the 'Ottoman Power in Europe,' by Prof. E. A. Freeman, which, although in a certain way prejudiced, is the best book on the subject in English. Even as a story, it is below both of these books. It is made up chiefly from the 'History of the Ottoman Turks,' by Sir Edward Creasy, himself a condenser of Von Hammer's large history, and from the book of Knolles and Ricaut, published in 1680, of which Horace Walpole says: "Considered as history, it is a collection of fables; and as to style, it is the most tiresome book in the world, with periods a page long." Surely, there was no necessity for printing in black-letter a translation from Froissart; and if the book had to be made up of extracts, there were in the last century a number of men—to say nothing of Lady Wortley Montagu—who wrote amusing accounts of Turkish politics, life, and manners, although they might have to be translated from French, Italian, or even Russian. The chapter on the conquest of Constantinople is avowedly almost entirely quoted from Gibbon. It was probably the best thing that the writer could do, although modern scholars have corrected Gibbon's account in several particulars.

As to the illustrations, some, like the landscape views, the medal of Mohammed II. (pp. 102–3), the portraits of Suleiman (pp. 166, 180, and 192), and of Roxolana (p. 196) are excellent. Others, like the view of St. Stephen's Cathedral at Vienna (p. 228), and the mosaic of St. Sophia (p. 326), have nothing to do with the subject. Others, like a Turkish merry-making (p. 16), a Turkish meal (p. 66), the plan of Constantinople (p. 108), were probably interesting in the original size, but are here so reduced as to be unintelligible. Others, like the battle of Prince Jem (p. 142), may have been interesting when originally published, but, being neither contemporary pictures, nor based on a study of life at that time, are out of place. Others still are simply absurd.

As far as historical perspective is concerned, after taking out three chapters which will be considered later, there are 255 pages devoted to history, of which 204, or four-fifths, are given to the rise of the Turks; yet in all this space we are not told who or what the Turks really were, or why they rose so quickly. A picturesque episode like that of Prince Jem, to which in Hammer there are given about thirty pages of the whole eighteen volumes, and in Jonquière's about two pages out of 650, is here stretched out to fill a chapter, and is not well done in that. The part played by the Turkish navy, and especially by the great Khair-eddin Barbarossa, the understanding of which is necessary to any knowledge of Turkish history, is entirely omitted, in order to form a separate volume of the 'Story of the Corsairs,' which can be so easily abridged from the French of Jurien de la Gravière, or still better from the Italian of Guglielmotti. The story of the decadence of Turkey, which to us would be far more interesting than that of its rise, because it would explain to us the present condition of the Ottoman Empire, and why vigorous young Christian nations should be developed out of its ruins, is condensed into fifty pages. The author, in a simple-minded way, gives as a reason for this treatment that: "To tell the various stages of decay in detail would only weary the reader with a catalogue of defeats, varied by occasional reprisals" (p. 207). In the twenty-five pages called "The Sick Man," from 1812 to the present time, with the exception of the longish and rather unnecessary account of the diplomatic activity of Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, there are almost more errors than sentences, some of them dragged in arbitrarily through dislike of Russia, as where it is implied that the victory of Russia in the last war was rather owing to bribing the Turkish commanders than to good fighting, or through suspicion of Mr. Gladstone's foreign policy.

Three chapters are contributed to this volume by Mr. E. J. W. Gibb, who is favorably known for his studies on Ottoman poetry, of which the chapter on Ottoman literature is practically a summary. He succeeds in showing us how feeble and uninteresting Turkish poetry is when compared with Persian; but he gives too little attention to the prose literature. He might well have inserted some remarks about the chronicler Vassyf, and about Resmi Ahmed Effendi, who wrote a very amusing account of his embassy to Frederick the Great, as well as a history of the Turco-Russian war of 1769-1774, extracts from which appeared in *Macmillan's Magazine* for 1880. The chapter on Stambul is weak and wordy, although it endeavors to give a picture of life in the Turkish capital in the eighteenth century. That on Ottoman administration is a dry catalogue of the names of Turkish dignitaries in olden times, compiled from the well-known 'Tableau Général de l'Empire Ottoman' of Mouradjea d'Ohsson. We get tired of hearing about the Kilar Kiyahyasi, or controllers of the buttery, of the Bostanji Bashi, or of the Top Arabaji Bashi. We do not care for more than a general description of the Sultan's household in early times, but we should like to know something about the real working of Turkish administration, and especially of provincial administration before the reforms of Mahmoud II. in the early part of the present century: why those reforms were necessary, what they were, and why they have not succeeded. We are put off with a catalogue of eunuchs, gardeners, pages, and cooks; but perhaps, if we look at it philosophically, we may find in this very catalogue a partial answer to our questions.

Western China. By Virgil C. Hart, B.D. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

THE "Province of the Four Streams," or Szchuen, was once the largest of the eighteen provinces of China, and anciently contained the capital of the Empire. Though rarely visited by foreign travellers since Marco Polo's time, it is in many respects the most interesting of all the divisions of the Middle Kingdom. Its people are noted for their devotion to literature, religion, and art. Into it the Buddhist missionaries from India first came and began the propagation of their faith. In natural beauty and luxuriance, and in the evenness of distribution of the wealth of its inhabitants, it leads the other provinces. One obtains a good idea of the self-sufficiency of Chinese resources and civilization when he realizes that this western province, which is farthest from the ocean and from contact with the outside world, ranks with the best of the divisions of the Empire, and excels many of them in population and material and intellectual wealth. In its area of little less than two hundred thousand square miles it maintains a population of forty-five millions. Considering the large amount of land occupied by mountains and infertile tracts, in addition to the acreage devoted to the cultivation of the poppy for smoke, and millet and Indian corn for intoxication, the superiority of Chinese economy over that of the West is manifest.

The valuable portion of the soil is comprised within the four natural basins formed by the

rivers running north and south, and these occupy what is a rough eastern half of the area. Besides the Chinese inhabitants, the tribes of the Lolo people, with whom Mr. Baber has made us acquainted, live in those intervales and mountain-fastnesses of the western half of the province which are properly part of the high tablelands of Thibet. The feuds of centuries are still maintained, and the Chinese, unable, despite their forts and garrisons, to control these mountaineers, suffer from their man-stealing propensities, and considerable number of people in the valleys and lowlands are annually murdered or enslaved by the raiding Lolos. In addition to the abundant crops of every staple known in China, Sz-chuen is noted for its well-regulated supply of natural gas, which, after a flow of over eighteen centuries, seems inexhaustible. The "fire-wells," being near the great rock-salt deposits, are utilized to boil the kettles of brine pumped up from the strata, which are bored by native machinery of wood, bamboo, and iron.

In the municipalities of this, as of other parts of China, the habits of the people, the excess of the rapacious official class, the jealousy and intermeddling of the Government, and the lack of the proper corporations to levy taxes for the requirements and necessary expenses of city economy, tend to paralyze public spirit. Yet, despite all their discouragements and the defects of their political system, the people seem to take a noticeable pride in what we consider to be public works and ornaments. Foot-paths from village to village, broad roads wide enough for two teams and paved with flagstone between the cities, stone memorial arches and gateways, substantial bridges of masonry, colossal bronze images, and artistic metal work of an elaborate and imposing sort, testify to the local pride and artistic spirit of the inhabitants. Notable are the iron suspension bridges over torrents and high-banked streams. Mr. Hart describes the bridges as gems of native art, some of them having at one end a tablet recording the date of construction and giving the donors' names. Indeed, the number of pagodas, brick, stone, and metal structures and works of art in the province is surprising, and on and around Mount Omei, the great Buddhist centre, bewildering. It is of fascinating interest to study this primitive home of the Buddhism of Chinese Asia, and to recognize in the names of the various avatars and attributes the originals of Corean and Japanese developments. Some of the most recent phases of "Reformed" Buddhism in Japan claim to be but revivals of the ancient forms of the faith taught here.

The author, Rev. Virgil C. Hart, started from Hankow April 11, 1887, by steamer to I-chang and thence by native boat to Chung-king in Sz-chuen province, to reëstablish the mission of the American Methodist Episcopal Church, which had been so tragically closed by the riot of July, 1886. He describes the river voyage, incidents of travel, the great brine and fire wells, the historical monuments of the classic city of Chen-teu; and, after properly devoting three readable chapters to the great Buddhist monasteries, towers, pagodas, relics, and works of art on Mount Omei, winds up with a general description of his field of work and a survey of the missionary problem. A dozen illustrations, a map, and an index add to the reader's pleasure. The author's style needs brightening up, if he would win the readers he particularly desires to have; but all who are interested in China will hail this work as a positive addition to the first row of their books illustrating the great Empire. The telegraph wire is now stretched over many thousands of miles in the long-isolated land, and the inevitable railway through mid-Asia to Europe cannot long be delayed. It is certain that the "Province of the Four Streams" will be the first of the western Chinese provinces to be tapped and traversed by iron rails. Mr. Hart's accurate monograph is, therefore, not only a pleasing record of travel, but a timely picture of one of the least known yet most valuable portions of the earth's surface. Students of Corean and Japanese Buddhism will find the volume of special interest.

Old Chelsea: A Summer Day's Stroll. By E. B. Martin. Illustrated by Joseph Pennell. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

FOR upwards of three hundred years the suburb of Chelsea has attracted more remarkable people than all the other suburbs of London put together. Mr. Martin has inadvertently revealed the secret of this attraction in giving the derivation of the name—from the Saxon *chesel*, meaning gravel, and *ea*, a bank. That wise man Sir Thomas More, who built himself a great house on the river in 1520, knew well the sanitary superiority of gravel to clay, and it is safe to assume that the same knowledge influenced Pepys, Addison, Smollett, Chesterfield, Walpole, Benjamin Franklin, and the host of other worthies, male and female, to whose dwellings in Chelsea Mr. Martin's text and Mr. Pennell's admirable illustrations introduce the reader. The book is brimful of historical and other information, and leaves on the mind the impression that all the most interesting English men and women since the days of Henry the Eighth have been in some way or other connected with Chelsea. As to American celebrities, we have, besides Franklin, Philadelphia, great-granddaughter of Wm. Penn, and named from the city of her birth, who married Lord Cremorne, and died in Chelsea in 1825. Probably very few travellers from the City of Brotherly Love who in times past visited Cremorne Gardens, suspected the existence of so curious an association between their quiet homes and the dubious splendor of that particular corner of Chelsea. The gardens have disappeared into the mist of an unregretted past, but the well-advised traveller of to-day will not fail to visit Chelsea, as being a part of old London but little damaged by the march of modern improvement; and in so doing, he will find this little book an indispensable companion.

How the Peasant Owner Lives in Parts of France, Germany, Italy, Russia. By Lady Verney. 8vo, pp. 234. Macmillan & Co. 1888.

THESE half-dozen papers, collected from the *Nineteenth Century*, renew the persistent war Lady Verney wages against peasant proprietorship. She continues, as in her previous publications, to spend her strength more in contemplating and narrating ills that have existed and still exist, than in investigating what may be the possible ways of improving matters. Even if her point of view were unquestionable, and it were admitted that the miserable conditions to be found in connection with land held in such small parcels that they cannot be properly cultivated, were due solely to such tenure of land, it is none the less certain that, as long as the size of holding is considered as outside the proper sphere of immediate legislation, the tendency to division and sub-division must increase or diminish precisely to the degree in which it will be in accordance with the general economic intelligence of the nations affected by it; and consequently the discussion should turn on facts carefully chosen for their economic importance. Lady Verney is not very successful in this respect; and it is in rather a feminine tone that she expresses rather incoherent doctrines. But her writings are full of good feeling, if not of good sense.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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Arnold, Matthew. Essays in Criticism. Second Series. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Babbitt, E. H. An Introduction to German at Sight. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Bartholomew, J. Handy Reference Atlas of the World. George Routledge & Sons.
Bates, A. The Philistines. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
Bertran y Bros, P. Rondallística: Estudi de Literatura Popular ab Mostres Catalanes Inédites. Barcelona.
Bigelow, J. The Complete Works of Benjamin Franklin. Vol. X. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
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Drayton, H. S. Nervousness: Its Nature, Causes, Symptoms, and Treatment. Fowler & Wells Co. 25 cents.
English Illustrated Magazine. 1887–1888. Macmillan & Co.
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Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1887	1,417,600 13
Total Marine Premiums	$5,060,569 22
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1887, to 31st December, 1887	$3,672,331 21
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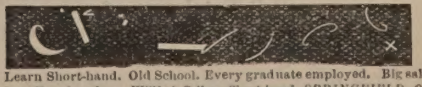

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 6, 1888.

The Week.

If the President's message of last December gave the country a surprise by its boldness, the present one will do hardly less. The Communism of Capital is the principal topic of his discourse, and in handling it he uses terms here and there which may be considered injudicious, but the groundwork of the indictment he brings against the combination, or caste, that enjoys protection and establishes monopoly under the tariff is perfectly true. If the terms employed in characterizing this privileged class seem harsh, some allowance must be made for the natural feelings of one who has good reason to believe that the recent election was snatched away from him by an unparalleled expenditure of money for the purchase of "floaters in blocks of five," and that this crime was committed by those who enjoy special favors under the revenue laws at the expense of the great body of their fellow-citizens.

In characterizing this tariff arrangement as a species of socialism, the President is within the lines of the best scientific authority of the age. There is a well-remembered passage in Bastiat's attack upon the socialism of his time, in which he showed that the doctrines of Louis Blanc were the logical outcome of protective tariffs, and that all the arguments which make for the one make for the other also. Concede that it is right to make laws to put money into the pockets of one class on the theory that their expenditures for wages and materials enrich the whole community, and you are estopped from arguing that any other use of the taxing power would not have the like effect. From these premises the doctrine was formulated in France that it was wise and judicious also for the Government to establish national workshops, and to lend money to workingmen for the same purpose. It was not a long step to declare that it was the duty of the Government to furnish remunerative employment to everybody. This is what we shall come to, if the doctrine continues in force that the Government must see to it that steel-rail-makers, sugar-refiners, salt-boilers, the owners of pine forests, and other persons make satisfactory profits. And we shall come to this complexion all the more rapidly if this doctrine shall be supplemented by the practice of extravagant and unnecessary appropriations of public money to get rid of the inconvenient surplus in the Treasury. If that portion of the message which treats of the communism of capital gives a shock to the capitalistic class, it is precisely what they need, for capital can have no secure foundation under universal suffrage except through equality of rights and privileges. The laws must not only secure such equality, but they must seem to do so. The door must be closed to dispute upon that point, and it never can be closed so long as any portion of the community is taxed for the benefit of any other.

We observe that Secretary Vilas does not explain in his annual report his reasons for withholding for a period of ten months the opinion of the Attorney-General on the subject of public lands within the so-called "second indemnity limits" of land-grant railroads, and in the meantime making rulings contrary to that opinion. A vast deal of trouble and annoyance, and great expense, have been caused both to the railroads and to settlers on the indemnity lands, the former being obliged to defend the latter in thousands of cases against claim-jumpers. If it were intended to set aside the opinion of the Attorney-General as a rule of guidance, and take the case to the Supreme Court on the chance that the opinion was wrong, we should be able to understand the erratic course adopted, although we should not see much use for an Attorney-General as a permanent branch of government if his opinions were to be habitually ignored; but in this case it appears that there was no intention to set aside the opinion for good and all, but only during the campaign. If this was the idea, it was as futile as it was unprincipled; for the land question was scarcely heard of in the political contest, being completely swamped by the tariff question.

All intimations which have come from Indianapolis during the past few weeks are to the effect that John Sherman is to be Gen. Harrison's choice for Secretary of State. Even such a devoted Blaine organ as the Philadelphia *Press* has published information, apparently drawn from authentic sources in Indianapolis, that Mr. Blaine would not be a member of the Cabinet. In view of these facts the following special despatch from Augusta, Me., in the *Tribune* of Tuesday, is interesting:

"One of Mr. Blaine's most intimate friends says that, while no formal offer has been made, there is good reason to believe that Gen. Harrison will first offer the place of Secretary of State to the man who might have been nominated for the Presidency if he would have taken it, and who is to-day the most highly esteemed Republican in the land; and, further, that Mr. Blaine, after much consideration, and after taking the counsel of several of the members of the Maine delegation and other men in whom he has confidence, has intimated to them that he would accept the Secretary of State's portfolio if it were offered him."

That so unusual an announcement as this should be made in the official Blaine organ at this time, seems to indicate some solicitude on Mr. Blaine's part concerning Gen. Harrison's intentions. It is, in fact, nothing less than a public notification to him of what Mr. Blaine and Mr. Blaine's friends expect from the new President.

In view of the reputation for obstinacy which Gen. Harrison has, this experiment by the Blaine contingent will be an interesting one to watch. It has been suspected for some time that they were not entirely satisfied with the view which Gen. Harrison takes of his obligations to them. If this despatch be as official as it seems, it forces upon the General the necessity of deciding at the outset of his Administration whether he or Mr. Blaine is to be President. He cannot put Mr. Blaine at the head of his Cabinet, after a notification of this kind, without confessing that he is not his own master. In fact, Mr. Blaine's friends have taken the course which gives the new President the best possible excuse for ignoring their claims.

The faithful Philadelphia *Press*, talking on Saturday of the value of the "Advisory Committee" as a collector and distributor of campaign funds, said, by way of accounting for the enormous size of Wanamaker's treasury:

"The legitimate expenses of a national political canvass have come to be enormous. There is a great educational work to be done; a vast literature to be created and circulated; an army of speakers to be brought into the field; various organizations to be made and mobilized; machinery to be perfected for getting out the full vote; safeguards to be provided against fraud; all the immense enginery for persuading and marshalling at every fighting point the last score among six million voters."

Well, now, this being so, why did Wanamaker and Quay, when they had finished their noble work, burn their books and accounts? Missionary, tract, and Bible societies, societies for mutual improvement and for aid to home study, lyceums and lecturing associations, not to speak of charitable and philanthropic associations, do not, after six months of unusual activity, commit all their papers, vouchers, and books of accounts to the flames. No such thing, surely, is ever thought of in Wanamaker's Bethel Sunday-school. Why, then, was it done by the Advisory Committee? Religious and educational organizations, such as the Advisory Committee seems to have been, on the contrary, when they have raised a large sum of money, and spent it in worthy ways, are usually eager to preserve and spread the record of it, that others, coming after them, may be encouraged to do likewise. In fact, the more one reflects on the Wanamaker-Quay holocaust, the more mysterious it seems.

But does not Col. Elliott F. Shepard, as religious a man as Wanamaker, and, indeed, probably the most religious Republican in the world, say that Wanamaker's Committee paid "Johnny" O'Brien or his assigns $150,000 for the purchase of three "movements" in this city, which O'Brien wickedly failed to deliver? Now, under which head did this transaction come? Was this sum devoted to "educational" purposes, or was it used in the "creation and circulation" of "a vast literature," or the hire of "speakers," or the "mobilization of organizations," or "in safeguards against fraud," or in "persuading

and marshalling"? Col. Shepard appears to think it came under none of these heads, but that it was intended to be used by certain parties not named, and was actually used, in the gratification of common physical needs, such as whiskey, tobacco, imported raiment, diamonds, light wagons, and trotters. The grief of Wanamaker when this news reached him must have been too sacred for description.

Has anybody seen in a Republican newspaper any call for a Congressional inquiry into the charges of bribery in the recent election? We have been able to find but one, the Indianapolis *Journal*, namely. What is the reason of this silence? It is very likely that an inquiry would show improper use of money by both great parties, but this does not deter Democratic Congressmen and newspapers from demanding a thorough investigation. Why are the Republicans so much more timid? No patriotic man can deny, in view of the mass of evidence on the subject, that such an inquiry is imperatively necessary, and we should therefore expect to see honorable and public-spirited men and journals demanding that it be authorized and pushed without fear or favor. There is no surer method for disproving the charges if they are false, and none more certain to arouse the public conscience to a sense of the threatened danger, than the complete exposure of them in all their details if they are true.

The Rev. Dr. Parkhurst, in his excellent Thanksgiving sermon last week, put one point regarding the demoralizing effect of the use of money in elections with remarkable force. After referring to the well-recognized evils of the practice, in making cattle out of citizens, putting our institutions more and more at the mercy of demagogues, and sapping the foundations of the republic, he brought out another feature of the matter which is not always recognized when he said:

"Suppose you contribute to campaign purposes—that is a convenient euphemism—suppose you contribute to campaign purposes $50,000, which you cannot say you *know*, but which you are *morally certain*, is going to be applied in purchasing votes. Now, you don't do that hoping for nothing again. That is business: you expect in some way to get it back again. That is investment: it is investing in futures, as you call it on the Street, as much as when you buy wheat that is not grown yet. You take stock in the prospective Administration; you lay down so much cash, and you take a trust *mortgage* on the Administration, and no matter how good a man the President may be, the first thing he will have to do when he gets established in office will be to pay off his mortgages. Men are already beginning to clamor for their dividends, and next March Washington will be crammed full of coupon-holders."

The Thanksgiving sermons of Bishop Coxe and the Rev. Dr. Storrs present a very striking contrast. Bishop Coxe, with the fear or favor of no party before his eyes, denounced in plain and indignant terms the use of bribery by both parties in the Presidential election, saying that in no previous election had there been such wholesale purchase of votes, and that when one hears on trustworthy authority that whole States were bought, the honor of American politics was indeed being degraded, and we were fast falling into a bad state of affairs. Dr. Storrs had evidently heard nothing about such a national danger as this, for he gave thanks at much length that men of high character had been chosen; that we had heard the news of their success so soon; that the vote was so decisive; that all danger of a military dictatorship had passed away, and that the solid South was doomed. The only perils which he could discern on the political horizon were the rum influence in politics, and the aggregation of population in cities. He had evidently not seen the pious Col. Shepard's statement of the failure of O'Brien to use good Republican money to buy votes in this aggregated population, nor had he ever read Col. Dudley's directions to buy "floaters in blocks of five."

Mr. Joseph G. Cannon of Illinois is the low-tariff, anti-subsidy candidate for the Speakership of the next House, if the Republicans have a majority of that body. Mr. Cannon was the first man who "made a break" against that clause of the Chicago Platform which demanded the repeal of the whiskey tax "rather than the surrender of any part of our protective system." He has been for years an uncompromising opponent of steamship subsidies, and in one case at least prevented the House from concurring in a Senate bill which had the subsidy feature attached to it. He has made his mark in such an unmistakable way that there can be no doubt what his candidacy signifies. It means the opposite of Mr. McKinley on the vital issues of the day. The latter is the candidate of the Chinese-wall protectionists. Mr. McKinley has lost ground as a party leader since the Senate Committee threw out his free whiskey plank, and adopted a bill which avowedly abandoned a part of our protective system. His election as Speaker is therefore not probable. But it may turn out that McKinley and Cannon will mutually efface each other, and let in Mr. Reed of Maine, whose position on the tariff question is satisfactory to the protected classes and the subsidy-hunters, although not so wild-eyed and fanatical as that of Mr. McKinley. This is a case for that kind of a compromise where one side gets all the fruits of victory and saves to the other side a decent appearance.

The workingmen of the country have an instructive object-lesson on the relation of tariff to wages in the conduct of the carpet-manufacturer, Higgins. During the late campaign, Higgins was a bitter opponent of the Democratic candidates, "British free trade, and pauper labor of Europe." He believed in "American markets for American manufactures, and American wages for American workingmen." The *Times* reports that he compelled his men to march in the Republican parade, and threatened them with discharge if they did not vote for Harrison. No sooner was the election over, however, than he discharged 700 of his men, and announced that he should reduce the wages of those whom he retained from 10 to 15 per cent. He was informed that he had signed an agreement not to reduce wages without giving the men two weeks' notice, and he has magnanimously consented to abide by that agreement, so that the reduction will take effect on December 17. Simultaneously with the reduction in wages comes the announcement that the price of carpet will be advanced from 2½ to 7½ cents per yard. So that the "triumph of protection" will reduce the workingmen's wages at the same time that it enhances the price of the carpet which he has to buy.

The anti-pooling clause of the Inter-State Commerce Law is discussed in the annual report of the Commerce Commission in a spirit of fairness and good sense. The evils growing out of secret rate-cutting and frequent railroad wars are admitted and commented upon. The suggestion so frequently and gratuitously made, that it is in the power of the railroads themselves to put an end to all this by mutual agreement without pooling, is also considered. The difficulty of holding all to an agreement once made, without pooling, is acknowledged; but the Commission are not prepared as yet to recommend a repeal of the anti-pooling clause. They look forward, however, to the possibility of something of that nature becoming imperative in the future. This seems to us to express pretty fairly the attitude of public opinion at the present time. It is an attitude of expectancy, and is very well exhibited in a collection of opinions just published in *Bradstreet's*, embracing those of railway officials, students of railway problems, and editors of railway and other journals. In this "symposium" it is a fact of much importance that most of the class who may be called railroad professors favor "pooling under regulation." Mr. Simon Sterne means by "regulation" the regulation of the Commerce Commission itself. Prof. E. R. A. Seligman thinks that the prohibition of pooling will end in the swallowing of the weaker by the stronger lines, and that this would be worse than pooling. Prof. Hadley says: "I should like to see pooling legalized and regulated, but do not believe that Congress will do it." Senator Reagan of Texas, on the other hand, says:

"Having in view all the Trusts, combines, and pools in nearly all the important branches of commerce, by which the great body of the people are plundered for the benefit of the few, I can conceive of no greater single wrong to the people at large than a repeal of the anti-pooling provision of the Inter-State Commerce Law."

The Court of Appeals has decided, as was generally expected, that the dissolution of the Broadway Railroad Company by act of the Legislature does not affect the rights of the mortgagees or other creditors, or, in fact, in any way affect the ownership of the property, which consists in the right to run a street railroad along Broadway, and is held in perpetuity by the creditors of the late company or their assignees. The mortgagees may in fact now either work the road themselves, or sell the right to work it. The court admits fully the right of the State to terminate the life of corporations organized under its laws, and the right of the Attorney-General

by suit to forfeit the franchises of a corporation, or to regulate and restrain it in the exercise of such franchise, but denies the right of anybody to touch the property held by the corporation. The inconvenience of this rule, where the property consists in the privilege of perpetually running vehicles in the most crowded streets of a great city, is obvious enough. Hence, the decision may be fairly called a solemn warning against the policy of bestowing such franchises as the city railroads hold. In fact, if the city does not possess the right of regulating fares, or raising the taxes so as to diminish the value of the property, it has no control over the street railroads whatever. The good it does the State or city to dissolve a railroad corporation does not, therefore, clearly appear. When any other business corporation goes out of business, its property is sold and divided, and disappears, but the property of a street-railroad company "goes on for ever." Sharp certainly builded better than he knew. He has in the Broadway Railroad a monument more enduring than brass. We have probably not heard the last word on this subject even yet.

The folly of Vermont in clinging to an antiquated system of holding elections and opening legislative sessions has just been illustrated again. Formerly the State elected a new Governor and Legislature every September, and the Legislature met on the first Wednesday in October, under an unwritten law which required adjournment on the day before Thanksgiving, which comes on the last Thursday of November. Finally the annual system was given up, and elections now come every other year, but the time for holding elections and opening the Legislature was not changed. The result is, that the Legislature is always pressed for time during the closing week, and the most important business is rushed through in helter-skelter fashion. Nor is this the only evil of the system. Every Presidential year the State has two elections—one for State officers in September, and the other for Presidential electors in November. There is absolutely nothing to be said in defence of this method, while one would suppose the argument of expense alone sufficient to compel a change. Not the least of the advantages of a change to holding all elections in November would be the fact that it would allow the Legislature to meet, like those of so many other States, in January, and sit as long as should be necessary to do the work well.

If Mr. Edison is at work, as reported, upon a phonograph which will reproduce in an audible voice a morning newspaper for every breakfast-table, he ought to reflect upon the moral responsibility which the success of such an experiment will entail upon him. He would be a reckless father who should deliberately set a phonograph of that kind a-going at his breakfast-table. Imagine, for instance, the effect upon a respectable family of listening to the first page of one of Tuesday's morning papers in which the place of honor is given to a detailed account of an adventure by a notorious gambler in a haunt of other gamblers, with full particulars of the man's disreputable career. The reader can skip this kind of news if he wishes to, but he would have to listen to it, and have his family listen also, if he had to take his news in regular order from the mouth of a phonograph. In fact, few heads of families would tolerate an infliction of current "journalism" in that form for longer than five minutes; after that they would either order the instrument out of the house, or smash it with the first heavy weapon within reach.

The Irish home-rule question harasses the British Government in every quarter of the globe. It has occupied for the last seven years two-thirds, at least, of the time and attention of the British legislators at home. It has had an unpleasant and at times dangerous influence on the relations of Great Britain and the United States. Within a few weeks it has made its appearance in a very annoying form at the antipodes. Sir Henry Blake is an Irishman, belonging to a landlord family, who began his official career as an officer of the constabulary. He was then made a resident—that is a paid—magistrate; and in that capacity had something to do with enforcing the last Gladstone Coercion Act, executing writs of ejectment, and so on. He was then made Governor of Newfoundland, and recently was promoted to the Governorship of Queensland, Australia. But no sooner is this done than the Prime Minister of the colony announces that they do not wish to receive him; that his antecedents make him obnoxious to a portion of the Queensland public, and that they think they ought to be consulted in the choice of a Governor. In other words, the Government of Queensland is afraid of the "Irish vote," and does not conceal the fact. The Colonial Office in London, while denying the right of a colony to dictate the selection of a Governor, does not care to push matters to extremities with a colony like Queensland, and therefore sacrifices Blake; but it is a bitter pill for the Unionists. The *Economist* says the incident is one of "grave importance."

The new penal code which has passed the Italian Chamber of Deputies, and is now before the Senate, has some sections bearing on modern forms of labor troubles, which are in line with the legislation towards which all civilized countries are moving, if they have not already enacted it. This new code is a revision of the one now in force, or rather a consolidation, with amendments, of the different codes of different provinces. It was laid before the Chamber by Chancellor Zanardelli, November 22, 1887, and referred to a committee whose chairman and secretary were the eminent jurisconsults, Mancini and Villa. After exhaustive study and discussion, it was passed with but slight changes, and is expected to receive the sanction of the Senate also. Among the six kinds of "crimes against liberty" which are enumerated is the class of "crimes against freedom of work." Article 156 provides a punishment of 20 months' imprisonment and a fine of from 100 to 3,000 lire in the case of any one who "with violence or threats limits or destroys in any way the free pursuit of industry or commerce." Article 157 provides the same punishment, except the fine, for those who "with violence or threats cause or prolong a stoppage or suspension of work, with the purpose of forcing, to the prejudice of either workingmen or employers, either an increase or a lowering of wages, or of terms of employment other than those previously agreed upon." Article 158 deals directly with the leaders in any such conspiracy on the part of workmen or combination on the part of employers, and provides a punishment in their cases of imprisonment for three years and a fine of 5,000 lire.

These provisions of the new law really constitute a positive gain for Italian workingmen over the existing code. Under the terms of the code of 1859, employers can be punished only when they conspire to lower the wages of workingmen, or to force new conditions of employment upon them, *in an unjust and cruel manner;* while, on the other hand, laborers become exposed to prosecution for starting an agitation without *a reasonable cause.* As will at once be seen, such statutes leave immense discretion to the judge called upon to administer the law, as to what constitutes an unjust and cruel manner or a reasonable cause. The new code proposes to do away with all distinctions between employers and workmen, and to make the provisions of the law simple and clear. As was said by Chancellor Zanardelli, in his report accompanying the new code, it goes upon the supposition that "a man's labor is a piece of property of which he may dispose, like any other, to any man, as he pleases, provided only that, in the exercise of his own rights, he does not interfere with those of another."

The latest device of M. de Lesseps to raise money for his Panama scheme is to give a preference to the last bonds issued in the matter of interest payments. If this means that the interest on the latest bonds shall be paid first, some doubt must exist as to payment of the interest on the earlier bonds. Such a plan of finance is a confessed bankruptcy. The *Économiste Français* of November 10, alluding to the practical failure of the Lesseps stumping tour in the provinces, says:

"The combinations to which the promoters of the Panama enterprise are compelled to resort ought to open the blindest eyes. In spite of the postponement of the closing of the conditional subscription, it is said that hardly one-half of the 200,000 bonds will be taken, and, to render the subscription valid according to the announced programme, recourse must be had to a financial group which shall take the other 100,000 bonds on private terms. This expedient, which must cost a round price, will support the market quotation of the securities for a few weeks. It is permissible to compare the direction of the enterprise to a prodigal borrowing at any price. Moreover, it seems that the public is deceived by the pretence that 200,000 bonds are subscribed at 350 francs, when half, if not more, are taken by a syndicate of bankers at a price not stated, and probably very low. The company persists in refusing to liquidate: it cannot escape liquidation, but it will come to it under more and more disastrous conditions."

THE CORRUPTION FUND.

As a further and additional reason for selling a Cabinet place to Mr. Wanamaker, it is now stated that he was the organizer of an "advisory committee" of business men who raised and had the handling of all the money, to the exclusion of the wicked Quay, who was not allowed to touch it. "The able, adroit, and experienced politicians of the Committee of course brought the resources of their skill into play," the Philadelphia *Press* says, "but they did it through legitimate channels." The "business men," too, whom Wanamaker called around him, "doubled their subscriptions," we learn from another source, "when they found the project in the hands of business men instead of politicians. When men bemoan the use of money," adds the *Press*, "which has become inseparable from our elections, though the amount is exaggerated, let them remember and rejoice at the movement which brings the most trusted and responsible business representatives to guide it in proper directions." We have no doubt that this "Advisory Committee of Business Men" will hereafter be a regular appendage of the National Committee.

What all this means is simply that the men who wish to buy places under a new Administration for cash mean hereafter to deal directly with the President, and not as heretofore through an intermediary. Previous to this late canvass the Chairmen of the National Committees secured the large subscriptions as best they could, in a quiet, not to say underhand, way. Their amounts and the source from which they came were not made public, and all the subscriber got for his money was a sort of shamefaced and vague understanding that when the good places came to be distributed, he should not be forgotten. The reason of this was simply that it is only since the war that the idea has sprung up that a subscription in money gave a man a "mortgage" on the Administration, to use Dr. Parkhurst's phrase. In the older days it was assumed as a matter of course, and as something due to his character, that a man who gave money to a campaign fund gave it from love of the cause, and looked for nothing personal in return. Any other construction he would have treated as an insult. After awhile, however, as money became more necessary, managers began to promise, and subscribers began to expect, something in return for the money, but did not wish to have it known. This vague arrangement, however, has not worked satisfactorily. It left the incoming President in ignorance of his indebtedness, and consequently led to his disappointing some of the large donors in ways which made them positively, but secretly, furious. They did not dare to air their wrongs in the newspapers, because the press had not yet recognized the venality of offices, and because they had nothing to show in the way of a contract; so they took their satisfaction in private cursing and denunciation of the Administration, and in vows not to be fooled again in the same way.

In the appointment of the "Advisory Committee," composed of leading subscribers who put up their money in open daylight, and are in formal and visible communication with the candidate, and who make no secret that they expect value for their checks, another and very important step towards the plutocratic system has been taken. It will hereafter be a settled practice to take one member of the Cabinet, at least, from the Committee. Of course he will usually be, as in Wanamaker's case, the Chairman. And, we may be sure, the Committee will not long be content with one place. Before very long they will demand more, and rich men will try to get into the Committee, and have their donations noised abroad, as the sure way to a "Cabinet position." There is no road in politics so well known, in fact, as that on which our Government is now travelling; it is worn with the footsteps of many nations in all ages. Wanamaker is really one of the most familiar figures in history. He has stood behind a dozen thrones, and overthrown half a dozen republics.

The New York *Times*, in supporting the suggestion that the use of money at the late election should be investigated by Congress, thinks it necessary to guard against the suggestion that the inquiry might be made the basis of an impeachment of Gen. Harrison's title to the Presidency. There can be no danger of anything of the sort. The materials for any such contest must be furnished by some State or States, as the law exists at present; it cannot be created by anything a committee of the House of Representatives could discover. Votes which come in from any State without dispute or challenge, will have to be counted, and there is no sign or prospect, or indeed a possibility, of any such dispute arising in any State that Gen. Harrison has carried. He has been lawfully elected, even if he owes his majorities to corrupt voting. There has nowhere been any question raised of fraudulent registering or counting, or of any culpability on the part of returning officers. All that is charged against the Republican managers may, we presume, be charged against the Democratic managers also. It may as well be admitted, if only for the purposes of the inquiry, that, with larger means at their disposal, the latter would not have left Quay and Wanamaker so much to boast of; but to be entirely candid it must also be said that an inquiry would not be as damaging to the Democrats as to the Republicans. A well-known legal saw says that when two parties are equally to blame, the one who has got hold of the thing in dispute is the best off as regards legal right; but this rule does not hold good when the time comes to apportion moral responsibility. The victor then gets the larger share of blame. The man who profits most by a wrong is the one who has the worst standing in the court of morals, even when he has many confederates or participators.

What the inquiry is needed for is, not to raise any dispute, or contest any claim, or introduce any disturbance whatever into the devolution of the Presidency, but to inform the public judgment touching the evil to be dealt with. The public attention is now turned to it, and there is a strong and growing disposition to deal with it, which, however, needs to be fortified by evidence of some more positive sort than is to be found in newspaper charges or the reports of individuals. As long as there is no official, sworn testimony on the subject, tens of thousands will evade the formation of any opinion about it, or giving any aid in obtaining remedial legislation. We saw during the canvass how easy it was, even for clergymen and other professional moralists, to shut their eyes to the Republican forgeries as long as the proofs of them were only to be found in the newspapers. The very same plea will avail others now in shutting their eyes to the prevalence of vote-buying. But get a few managers on the witness-stand under oath, and all the vagueness and uncertainty which now surrounds the subject would vanish in a few hours.

The Crédit-Mobilier investigation is a fair example of what an inquiry of this sort may do in throwing light on dark subjects. When it was begun, we feel sure very few people indeed supposed anything serious would come of it. Before it had gone on many days it had ruined two or three members of Congress, including the Vice-President, and terribly smirched the reputation of several others. The Blaine investigation, the Sharp investigation, and the Croton Aqueduct investigation are all examples of the great public value of the inquisitorial powers of the Legislature. The more partisan and unreliable the press becomes, the more valuable these powers are.

How unreliable, when party interests are involved, the press is considered by a great many intelligent men, may be gathered from the account given of it by the Rev. Dr. Parkhurst in his sermon on electoral corruption on Thanksgiving Day. It is true that all the knowledge most people have of public matters they learn from the daily press, but it is clearly not this kind of knowledge that makes them very indignant or rouses them to action. For this something more substantial is necessary, and it is the Legislature only that can supply it. The attention of ministers, if we may judge from Bishop Coxe's and Dr. Parkhurst's remarks, has at last been called to the subject. It is needless to say that a very large proportion of the men who supply the money for electoral corruption are either members or attendants at Christian churches, and are, or are desirous of being thought, amenable to religious influences. We must help the ministers to get at the consciences of these men, or whatever it is that does duty as their consciences; and the only way to help them is to supply them with ammunition which the sinners cannot pooh-pooh as "newspaper charges."

THE SENATE TARIFF BILL.

THE changed position of parties has given fresh importance to the Senate Tariff Bill. It is reasonable to expect that the complexion

of any measure which passes that body will give color to the entire policy of the Republican party during the next four years. At all events, it will be the best evidence attainable of the view which leading Republicans take of their victory in the recent election. The resolution of the Senate Committee to call up their bill and press it to a passage, to the exclusion of all other general legislation, is therefore highly commendable. We may infer from this action that the leaders of the party hold themselves bound by their promises during the campaign to revise the tariff and reduce the revenue, and that they would consider it dangerous to delay such action.

The fact of most importance, we might say of overshadowing importance, is the condition of the Treasury surplus. It is imperative that this should be cut down to the measure of an economical administration. All parties are agreed upon this point. The question *how* it shall be done is the great issue of the day. The views of the Senate Committee were stated in their report on the 4th of October. Their plan, we may remind our readers, consisted of two principal measures, viz., a large reduction of the duties on sugar, and a repeal of the internal-revenue tax on tobacco, the tax on cigars being reduced but not altogether repealed. The reduction of revenue proposed by them was substantially as follows:

From sugar	$27,759,783
From tobacco	24,371,460
Additions to free list	6,428,095
Alcohol used in the arts	7,000,000
	$65,559,338

Of this total sum, upwards of $52,000,000 comes from the two items of sugar and tobacco.

The Senate bill is a protective measure (except in the item of sugar) of a very glaring and offensive description. It increases the duty on wool one cent per pound, and this proposed increase comes at a time when the prices of wool are rising in all the markets of the world. A reaction has come in the market for this staple, following upon a long period of depression. During the period of low prices there was a great slaughtering of sheep both here and abroad. In some important districts the price obtainable was not sufficient to pay for shearing and transportation. The supply was therefore reduced in obedience to a natural law, and now the turn has come. Woollen-manufacturers are complaining bitterly that they cannot get back the money they are required to pay out for materials and labor. And at this crisis in their affairs it is proposed to add 10 per cent. to the cost of imported wool by statute, while natural causes have advanced it nearly 30 per cent. It is believed by good judges that an advance of 40 per cent. would shut up a large number of woollen mills that have maintained a struggling existence under the present duties on wool. We look to see the Senate Committee abandon the proposed increase of tax on wool, more especially since the chief wool-growing States showed a lessened Republican vote in the recent election.

The reduction of duties on sugar is a step in the direction of free trade, forced by the necessity of getting rid of a lump sum of the surplus. Naturally a protectionist committee would look to see where the largest reduction could be made with the least amount of squealing. The sugar-planters and the Sugar Trust are numerically a small congregation. On the other hand, the revenue from sugar is about one-half of all the collections under the tariff. We showed in a recent article that the Senate bill reduces the protection to the Sugar Trust more than the Mills bill does. The Albany *Argus* has criticised our showing, upon the ground that we have taken the wrong standard for purposes of comparison. We took for a standard 96 degrees polariscope test, the comparison resulting as follows:

	Raw. (96 deg.)	Refined.	Protection.
Present duty	$2 24	$3 50	$1 26
Mills bill	1 82.2	2 80	0 97.8
Senate bill	1 12	2 00	0 88

The *Argus* says that the standard of comparison should have been 92 degrees, because that was nearer the average of all importations for the last fiscal year. The total importation for the year was 2,781,159,645 pounds. Of this amount 1,312,655,232 pounds were at or above 95 degrees. There is considerable variation between different years as to this point, but if we take the standard suggested by the *Argus*, the comparison will stand thus:

	Raw (92 deg.)	Refined.	Protection.
Present duty	$2 08	$3 50	$1 42
Mills bill	1 69.4	2 80	1 10.6
Senate bill	1 04	2 00	96

The *Argus* admits that so far as sugar alone is concerned, the Senate bill reduces the protection to the Trust more than the Mills bill does, but contends that there is another clause in the Senate bill which nullifies all this, makes the matter worse for the public, and "guarantees the Sugar Trust all its raw material free of duty." This is the clause which puts molasses of the lowest grade on the free list. This molasses is not used by refiners directly, but is bought by them from boilers, who are protected, under the tariff as it now stands, at the rate of about 88-100 of a cent per pound of sugar produced by boiling. Under the Mills bill they would have about 82-100 and under the Senate bill about 84-100. All this will be amply discussed when the bill comes up for consideration.

It is commonly believed that no bill will be passed by both houses at this session. Although the obstacles in the way are very considerable, we do not look upon the case as hopeless. A bill embracing the sugar and tobacco clauses and the Senate free list might pass with some slight modifications; but we should think it highly improbable that the House would consent to augmentation of any protective duties at this time, or any further robbing of Peter to pay Paul.

THE CHURCHES AND THE CITY.

THERE has been a Conference sitting at Chickering Hall which began on Monday evening, and continued during the next two days, in obedience to a call signed by many of the prominent clergymen and churchgoers in the city. The fact which has called them together is this:

"The population of New York city has for years been steadily and rapidly increasing, while at the same time the number of churches has been relatively decreasing. In 1840 there was one Protestant church to every 2,000 people; in 1880 one to 3,000; in 1887 one to 4,000."

Every one will interpret this fact in a different way. That it means something by no means pleasant or hopeful, however, every one will agree. The churches contain a very large proportion of the wealth, intelligence, public spirit, and right-mindedness of the community. They are, if not the only, the chief organizations we have, whose direct aim is to exert, in the highest sense, a civilizing influence. If they are not multiplying in proportion to population, therefore, it means that the forces of barbarism are in some degree gaining on us.

It would appear from the call to the Conference that the churches are at last beginning to understand that they have ceased, or are rapidly ceasing, to be a purifying and aggressive power, and that something needs to be done about it; in other words, that if they mean to hold their own as moral and religious agencies, they must, once for all, cease to be what too many of the Protestant churches are, pleasant and fashionable Sunday clubs, where wearied business men have their intellectual palates tickled once a week with music, good society, and soothing reflections on life, and death, and judgment. Some of them have tried, with much outlay and labor, to do their duty towards the city poor and ignorant by establishing missions and outlying chapels, and so forth, and some of the subjects set down for addresses at the Conference seemed to indicate a conviction that what is needed is a further extension of this system of missionary effort. We may instance the following as being suggestive of such effort, namely, on "The Bohemian Element," "The Italian Element," "The Colored Element," "Our Duty to the Foreign Population."

One of the things we hope from the Conference is a great clearing of both the clerical and lay mind on this subject. The poor, and ignorant, and barbarous, and anarchical, and indifferent of this city, or of any other, are not what they were fifty or one hundred years ago. They cannot be any longer won, or persuaded, or raised, by simple preaching, or even by almsgiving. They have become too knowing or too cunning for that. They are envious and suspicious of the rich and well-to-do, and they are tired of the old gospel of contentment when delivered by people who have all the comforts this world can give. Nothing touches them nowadays but the spectacle of self-sacrifice. Therefore no impression, or very little impression, can be made on them by churches which worship in fashionable quarters, on $100,000 lots, in $500,000

buildings, in which sittings are bought and sold with a heavy brokerage to the sexton, at enormous prices, and reserved for occupation by the owner as jealously as his private parlor; in which the music is hired at the cost of an opera troupe in a small German city, and discussed in the same temper and with the same standards that people apply to Patti or Nilsson. It is impossible to persuade a poor man that these are really religious organizations, and that they are really meant to show mankind the way to heaven. Nor can they "corner" a poor man by asking him, as some church-goers do occasionally, how it would be possible to "run the church," human nature being what it is, without selling the pews at high rates, if not, as in some cases, to the highest bidders. He will not argue this point. He says it is for Christians to find out how to make room for him at God's altar, and he makes merry over spiritual insight which is unequal to the solution of this extremely earthly problem. In short, the attack on "the Bohemian Element," and "the Italian Element," and "the Colored Element" must begin in the churches themselves by the display of greater simplicity and of greater indifference to money, and by some approach, for at least one day in the week, to the asceticism which once conquered the world.

Two or three Protestant churches have made a step in this direction, and we know of nothing in the religious worship of the city which is half so moving as the spectacle they present when crowded on Sunday with a plainly and even shabbily dressed multitude, who truly know what that weight of care is

> "That crushes into dumb despair
> One-half the human race."

But the two or three which have turned over a new leaf work under great disadvantages as long as the majority, a few blocks away, continue to carry out the club idea, and pastor and people give Satan full swing during the hot summer months, when the poor swelter and their children perish in the tenement-houses. There cannot be two standards of fitness in Christian life. If the free church be the real thing, there must, the poor man will say, be something wrong with the club-church; and what kind of creed is it which covers both with its blessings and promises? In short, if religious organizations are to make any impression on the masses of ignorance and barbarism which are accumulating in New York, they must work under a common discipline, and with the same outward signs of sincerity and good faith.

THE SILVER QUESTION IN ENGLAND.

THE final report of the Royal Commission, charged to investigate and report upon the silver question, has reached us. As is already known, the Commission were equally divided on the question whether any steps should be taken to promote international bimetallism, six members being opposed to such steps and six favoring them. In the former list are the names of Lord Herschell, the Hon. C. W. Fremantle, Sir John Lubbock, Sir T. H. Farrer, Mr. J. W. Birch, and Mr. L. H. Courtney, all of whom are more or less known on this side of the water as men of weight in politico-economic discussions. The only names on the other side which have any recognized standing outside of their own country as masters of these questions are Sir Louis Mallet and Mr. J. A. Balfour. In addition to the double report, Sir Louis Mallet and Mr. D. Barbour make supplementary reports on their side of the controversy, which is the bimetallic side, intimating that the line of reasoning employed by their colleagues is not entirely satisfactory to them. The other side, the monometallists, recommend efforts to "sustain silver" by the issue of ten and twenty-shilling notes or certificates, based on silver at its market value and redeemable in that metal. From this project Sir John Lubbock and Mr. Birch dissent.

It is considered in England that the equal division of the Commission leaves the whole question exactly where it was in the beginning, and as though no investigation at all had been held. We think it will do rather more: we think it will impress most people who take pains to read the document with the idea that the subject is beyond the ken of all but Omniscience, and that, where so much mist and confusion are found, or can be produced, by twelve men vested with authority to send for persons and papers, it would be highly inexpedient to do anything. Without undervaluing the weighty arguments and judicial tone of the report signed by Lord Herschell and his colleagues, or the importance of the facts they have brought together, it seems to us that they have not laid proper stress upon the strongest argument that makes for their side of the case, viz.: that the monetary function of government is simply to give the force and sanction of law to that which business experience has evolved and put in practice; in other words, to agree that whatever is the law merchant shall be the statute law also; that when the former changes, the latter shall change, but no sooner.

The gold standard has come to pass in the way of nature. It was not foisted upon civilized mankind by any act of Parliament, or Reichstag, or Congress; nor could any of these, or all of them together, have so foisted it if it had not come upon us before they took notice of it. The thing being here, it is presumptively a good thing. The presumption is, also, that any attempt by Parliament, Reichstag, or Congress, or all combined, to do away with it, and to substitute something else for it, would be pernicious in the extreme, or would only be prevented from being so by the utter futility of the attempt—the utter impossibility of changing, by the mere alteration of a statute, a course of events which does not depend upon any statute, and which has come about naturally. To declare what shall be legal tender is a very different thing from prescribing what estimation mankind shall put upon silver and gold respectively. It is this estimation that makes standards of value, and unmakes them when they cease to be serviceable and satisfactory. The six bimetallists decline to discuss the ratio at which gold and silver should be coined, looking upon that as a matter of detail. So it was considered by the two monetary conferences held in Paris in 1878 and 1881, but the conferences always adjourned just before reaching that interesting point in the debate.

The *Economist* condemns *in toto* the project for issuing silver certificates in England. This is the weakest part of the Herschell report. It is part of a vague idea entertained by the Commissioners of holding silver up by the tail, another part being a general missionary effort to induce foreign countries to use more silver than they find for their advantage. What economic science demands, above all things, is that silver be allowed to find its own level, so that production and consumption, as in other things, may balance each other.

THE 'LITTLE LORD FAUNTLEROY' COPYRIGHT CASE.

THE official report of the copyright case which arose out of the unauthorized dramatization of Mrs. Burnett's 'Little Lord Fauntleroy,' has recently been published (Warne & Co. vs. Seebohm, *Law Reports*, 39 Chancery Division, pp. 73-83). This suit presents some points of more than usual interest. Mrs. Burnett published her work in the *St. Nicholas*, and arranged with Warne & Co. for its simultaneous reproduction in England, where the British copyright was registered by the plaintiffs. Neither in the arguments of counsel nor in the opinion of the Judge is it mentioned that the author is not a subject of Great Britain, nor is any notice taken of the fact that she was not at any time during the publication of her book within the territory of the United Kingdom. This is of importance to American authors, as going to show that simultaneous or first publication in Great Britain, together with registration there, will of themselves enable the author to maintain suit in defence of the copyright; and that the expense of a journey to Canada or other British territory at the time of publication may be omitted without jeopardizing the protection given by the English courts.

The defendant, Seebohm, dramatized Mrs. Burnett's story in a three-act comedy, and wrote to the author for her sanction to its representation. This she refused to grant, being under the impression that she had legally reserved to herself the right to dramatize her own work. But the domestic copyright legislation of England does not enable the author to reserve this right. Any one may dramatize another's novel and publicly represent it without the least regard to the wishes of the author of the original. The defendant, therefore, was within his legal prerogative in producing his drama on the stage; and this was conceded at the trial, the counsel for plaintiffs admitting that it was "not sought to interfere with the representation of the play." Mr. Seebohm, however, seems, in his dramatization, to have made more than "a fair use" of the original, the evidence going to show that the

principal situations in the novel were reproduced in the play, and the plot of the latter was in all its salient points identical with that of the former, while all the principal ideas were taken from the novel; a considerable portion of the dialogue was copied word for word, and explanatory and descriptive passages in the story were introduced into the play in the form of dialogue. It was also in evidence that four manuscript or type-writer copies of the drama had been made, one having been sent to the Lord Chamberlain, and the other three having been retained for the use of the actors. The plaintiffs claimed that this imitation of the original, together with the multiplication of copies, constituted an infringement, and suit was brought for an injunction and a surrender of the copies. Damages were not asked for.

Justice Stirling rendered an opinion on May 10. After having made a comparison, he concludes that the play copies from the novel to an extent which would render it an infringement in case it had been printed and distributed. But the act of 1842, still in force in Great Britain, defines copyright to be "the sole and exclusive liberty of printing or *otherwise multiplying copies* of any subject to which the said word is herein applied"; and in previous decisions, as the Justice points out, it has been adjudged that the gratuitous distribution of copies may constitute an infringement. "This being so," he continues, "I am unable to see that the multiplication of an indefinite number of copies of a play (which, if printed and published, would be an infringement of copyright), for the purpose of enabling that play to be publicly represented, can be otherwise than an infringement;" and he holds that what has been done and was intended to be done by the defendant does constitute an infringement, no less than if the latter had printed and published his play. A perpetual injunction is therefore granted to restrain Seebohm from "printing or otherwise multiplying copies of his play containing any passages copied, taken, or colorably altered from the plaintiffs' novel." But in keeping with this qualified injunction, an order for the cancellation of the existing copies, requested by the plaintiffs, was denied, upon the ground that it may not be impossible for the defendant to sever the passages which he has extracted from the novel from the rest of his work; and in order that he may have an opportunity of doing so, he was required (1) to state on oath what copies exist, (2) to extract from them and cancel all passages "copied, taken, or colorably imitated from the plaintiffs' book," and (3) to satisfy the latter that all such objectionable parts have been extracted from his drama.

How much weight this decision may have in subsequent cases turning upon the dramatization of novels is a matter of interesting speculation. But a careful reading of the official report of Justice Stirling's long and cautiously worded opinion leads to the belief that conclusions based upon early and imperfect newspaper reports of the case claimed more than was warranted. It is clear that this judgment does not decide that an unauthorized dramatization of a novel for representation is not permissible under the English copyright law; nor does it forbid the making of such copies of the play as are necessary to produce the representation. The copies in this case were not ordered to be confiscated, but simply to be expurgated of the matter contained in them which infringed the copyright of the novel, the statement being distinctly made in the opinion, that "so long as he does not print or otherwise multiply copies of the *novel*, any person may dramatize it, and may cause his drama to be publicly represented." But the decision will certainly have the good effect of forcing the dramatist to use greater caution in preparing his play, and will check the unjustifiable wholesale appropriation of the original writer's work; and it is to be hoped that when the long-called-for codification of the jumbled mass of English statutes which relate to copyright is accomplished, the author will be definitely secured an equitable control over the dramatization as well as the translation of his work.

LONDON SOCIALISTS.

LONDON, November 12, 1888.

To any one who has been in London for the last four or five years it has been a curious study to watch the development of Socialism, or, as William Morris and his associates would call it, the Social Revolution; for the movement, slight in some ways, is important enough in others.

Four years ago, if one went to Kelmscott House on the Upper Mall in Hammersmith, one heard Morris give lectures to a few friends from the Upper Mall, to Walter Crane from the other side of London, and to a handful of long-haired men from no one knew where. In the old studio, lighted by a few oil-lamps, with the designs of Morris and Burne-Jones on the walls, more in those days was said about the ancient Sagas than Socialism, except, perhaps, at the end of the principal discourse, when one of the long-haired men—comrades, Morris called them—would get up and talk social equality and economic liberty with ineffectual mildness.

I used sometimes, in these early days, to see Morris at public meetings; I remember especially the great Social Purity meeting in Hyde Park, of which Mr. Stead of the *Pall Mall Gazette* was the hero. Almost at the end of the procession of societies on foot and societies in drags and vans, there came a wagon, decked with a red flag, in which sat William Morris with his daughter, who wore the red cap of liberty, and the same friends from the Upper Mall. When the speeches began, I found John Burns in one part of the park, holding forth with his usual eloquence to a great crowd, who, as he cried down the vices of Marlborough House and praised the virtues of the workingman, listened attentively even while they laughed. In another corner was William Morris—for already these two Socialists had agreed to disagree—haranguing his daughter and the friends who had come with him. No one else stopped to listen.

But by degrees there was a decided change in the Sunday evenings at Kelmscott House. The Sagas were forgotten, and Socialism won the day. Well-known Socialist leaders came to lecture. It was there I first heard George Bernard Shaw argue with that logical coolness which occasionally makes a convert among educated men, and always fails with the people. Hyndman and Champion sometimes spoke; distinguished foreign Socialists, like Stepniak, were invited. There was usually an animated discussion after the lecture, in which both sides of the question were set forth with equal fairness. But soon William Morris himself began to take the principal part, and this meant another change in the character of the little Hammersmith meetings. For, many as are Morris's accomplishments, there is one thing he cannot do—he can neither argue nor endure argument. That he is sincere in his Socialism, no one can for a moment doubt; but that Socialism appeals to his emotions, rather than to his intellect, is as unquestionable. He is an enthusiast, or, I should say, a fanatic. His sympathies are strong, his temper quick and hot. He is so carried away by the thought of human misery and the picture of what might be under certain impossible social conditions, that he cannot stand contradiction, he cannot listen to reason. For him there is but one side to the case. His eyes have been so well opened to human wrongs, he is blind to human justice. His own lectures are wild, incoherent ravings; when he does not lose his temper outright, his favorite argument in answer to his opponents is, "My friend does not believe what he says in his heart!" This is not an argument which appeals to men whose opinions, whatever we may think of them, are the result of serious thought and study.

It seemed to me that each time I returned to Kelmscott House after an interval of absence I found fewer conservative Socialists, if I may so call them in want of a better name—I mean those who believe in working out socialistic reforms by constitutional means—and a greater number who, though they might not accept the name, were Anarchists rather than Socialists. There was less quiet reasoning; what sounded very like rank treason was talked; capitalists—a class, by the way, to which William Morris himself belongs—were threatened, the millennium announced There was a disposition to fight even upon the slightest provocation. One evening I went there with two or three Americans who were curious to hear Morris lecture. Almost upon our arrival a fiery German Socialist cried out against the *gentlemen* who wear white ties and tall hats and abuse Socialists behind their backs, but, brought face to face with them, have nothing to say.

Even at this time, while Morris's influence was lessening with people of his own class, he seemed to make no headway with the masses for whose emancipation he was working. Sometimes on Sunday afternoons in Hyde Park, I would find Champion surrounded by workingmen, to whom he was talking in plain, strong, and very sensible language. John Burns was sure to draw a crowd, as he is still. But William Morris, despite his red flags and violence, rarely attracted more than a dozen or so listeners.

It is now just a year ago since Morris publicly, through the press, protested against the execution of the Chicago Anarchists — martyrs, he called them. Yesterday a great meeting, it was announced, would be held in Hyde Park, after preliminary meetings in other parts of London, to celebrate the anniversary of their martyrdom, and, at the same time, to commemorate the famous 13th of November, when thousands of Socialists were routed by a handful of police, and Trafalgar Square was held by grenadiers and life guards. As Mr. Shaw said to me, since both the executions in Chicago and the defeat in the Square meant the failure of

the Socialists, there was not much reason for celebration. However that may be, when I reached Hyde Park, I met, coming out of the thick yellow fog, detachments of Socialists and Anarchists, with red flags flying; and once they had grouped themselves around the two wagons, the speeches began. The principal speakers were Mr. Cunninghame Graham, M. P., who, it will be remembered, was John Burns's fellow-prisoner after last year's disturbances in the Square, and who is always to be found where there is a chance of notoriety: Mrs. Parsons, the widow of Parsons, the Chicago Anarchist; and William Morris, who, as a Socialist reporter puts it, "had come there solely to stand by the widow of the man of the masses who had fallen—no matter how—in the fight with the classes." One or two leading Socialists were in the crowd, but they took no active part in the proceedings.

This crowd was made up principally of the very outcasts of society—the poor unfortunate creatures who, perhaps through no fault of theirs, have fallen so low as to be incapable, not only of reforming society, but of saving themselves from their own degradation. With them, of course, were the discontented who would not stoop to honest work under any circumstances. I noticed there was a strong foreign element present, made up mostly of Polish Jews and Germans. I saw but two or three respectable persons, the most conspicuous of whom was Sir Charles Warren himself, unrecognized, and listening with a smile to the groans that were given at every mention of his name. The talk of the people round me had a strong Anarchist flavor. There was a good deal said about the bombs to be thrown at the next meeting in Trafalgar Square. One American told me it had grown too hot for him at home, where, indeed, hardly any one would listen to him, and so he had come to England. And it is to this rabble, from whom even decent Socialists expect no help, William Morris to-day is appealing. These are the men to whom he looks for support, and who will give it to him only so long as it consists but in cheering his denunciations of the powers that be.

Morris's career has been a strange chapter in the history of Socialism in England, and is characteristic of the change the last four years have brought about. There have been innumerable splits among the English Socialists, too infinitesimal to be noticed; but one, more marked, has divided them into two parties, as opposed to each other in doctrine and policy as are the Conservatives and Liberals. On the one side are the men who are becoming daily more and more convinced that before social conditions can be bettered, man himself must be developed mentally and morally, and that the only way to accomplish this is to take advantage of existing educational and political means. Champion has run for Parliament; make-believe parliaments—and this form of make-believe is very popular with Englishmen—have been formed as a sort of training-school for aspirants to public and political life; the Fabian Society distributes leaflets, and its members give series of lectures in public West-End halls. We may think they are working for the unattainable; but we must admit that, at least, they do not believe that human nature can be changed in a day, or that, once men profess themselves Socialists, the millennium will have come.

On the other side are the Socialists who seek to gain their ends by rousing, as they express it, the masses to a sense of their wrongs, but really by inflaming the very lowest forms of class hatred. Indeed, many no longer can be considered Socialists; the Social Democratic Federation has degenerated into a red Anarchist organization. Inflammatory speeches in Hyde Park and the East End, hints or plain statements as to the necessity of using force, revolutionary talk, are their weapons of reform. They look for the successful solution of the most difficult social problems to the ignorant and degraded, who, if matters were to come to a crisis, and the capitalists and upper classes were to be destroyed, would, after their victory, hold exactly the same place in the social ranks which is theirs to-day.

It is because William Morris is so well-known and loved and respected for the great work he has given to the world, that one cannot help regretting the fact that he is rapidly becoming identified with the party of violence, rather than with the party of reform. And the worst of it is that to-morrow, if he and the crowds who listened to him in Hyde Park were in danger, these brave men, who tell you of the bombs they are going to throw but always run at the first charge of the police, would turn their backs upon him, and allow him to pay the penalty of their folly and cowardice. After having wrecked his factory at Merton Abbey, looted his shop on Oxford Street, sacked his house in Hammersmith, and burned his manor on the upper Thames, they would leave him in the lurch. The truth is, William Morris is on the horns of a dilemma.

BOLOGNA IN THE LAST CENTURY.

Bologna, November 8, 1888.

The celebration held last August in honor of Galvani (which had been postponed on account of the cholera two years ago) naturally brings one to think of what life was in Bologna a hundred years ago, when this physicist was conducting the experiments which led to his discovery of animal magnetism. For this materials are ample—in part printed, and especially in the great collection of manuscript diaries and letters belonging to the Municipal Library, which also has a good store of engravings, illustrating thus the outward appearance of the town, as well as its life. It is curious to compare a drawing preserved here of a demonstration in the anatomical theatre in 1747 with a photograph taken in the present year, or a reconstruction by G. Amato of the same subject from a miniature made in 1734. But perhaps what strikes one most at first in the old drawings is the falsity of effect in interiors as well as in street views, coming from the fact that distance and space are disproportionately magnified. It seems to be only since the advent of photography that any but an extraordinarily clever draughtsman has succeeded in putting human figures in their proper relations to a given space, as seen from a single point of view, or at least from a usual point of view.

Luigi Galvani was born in 1737, and was attached under various titles to the University of Bologna from 1763 until his death in 1798. The accident which induced him to carry on his experiments occurred in 1780. The decisive discovery was on September 26, 1786, on the terrace of his house in the street now called after Ugo Bassi; but this he chose still to verify by a variety of methods before exclaiming that the body of an animal is an organic Leyden jar. He formally published the result of his researches in 1791. These dates are mentioned simply for convenience, and to show during what period of time Galvani lived. If the materials for his biography be scanty, they are plentiful enough for that of his townsman, the Marchese Francesco Albergati-Capacelli, the play-writer, who died six years after Galvani, and was born nine years before him. On this subject Ernesto Masi has written an entertaining monograph; and from this, with the help of Corrado Ricci's recently published book on the Bolognese theatres, * and a few similar studies, it is easy to obtain a fair view of the times in which Galvani lived.

Although it was about 500 years since Bologna had placed itself under the protection of the Pope, and had, while often turbulent and disobedient, been governed by a papal legate, yet, up to the French Revolution, it kept all the forms and claimed to possess the independence of an aristocratic republic. It was called the Bolognese nation, and had at Rome an Ambassador who asserted the same rights and privileges as those of other states. When Galvani was born, the papal legate was Cardinal Prospero Lambertini, who in 1740 became Pope Benedict XIV., to whom Voltaire dedicated his tragedy of "Mahomet" (of which the presentation copy, with Voltaire's autograph, is still in the University Library), and to whom Horace Walpole erected a monument. President De Brosses saw him in Bologna in 1739, and described him thus:

"When we don't go there, we pass our evening *tête-à-tête* with the Cardinal Archbishop Lambertini, a good fellow without any airs, who tells us many good stories about women or about the Court of Rome. I have taken pains to remember some of them for use on occasion. He is especially fond of talking and hearing about the Regent and his confidant, Cardinal Dubois; and says to me sometimes, 'Parlate un poco di questo Cardinale del Bosco.' His conversation is very agreeable; he is witty and gay, and has a knowledge of literature. He has a habit of using in the construction of his phrases certain expletives little suitable to a Cardinal; and in that, as well as in everything else, he is very like the late Cardinal Le Camus, for he has excellent morals, is very charitable, and very assiduous in his archiepiscopal duties."

When Lambertini became Pope, he sent to Bologna the famous Cardinal Alberoni, whose militant disposition made him conceive plans of reform greatly distressing to the Bolognese, who feared that they should lose the last remnants of their republican institutions. Albergati, who had already been appointed Senator, held in 1753 the office of Gonfaloniere for the usual period of two months, and had the same office again in 1783, in both cases being obliged to spend large sums of money in pomp, shows, festivities, and largesses to the populace. One of his friends describes going to see him, and finding him with the distracted air of a man full of business, until he begins to speak of his Comedies and to praise them, when the Gonfaloniere becomes again polite and courteous, asks him to sit down, and offers him a cup of chocolate. On his lamenting that affairs of state should divert him from the theatre, Albergati replies:

"Listen, my dear friend; I will speak to you in all frankness. It is quite true that the Gonfalonieri ought to have very little time, and perhaps none at all, because they are supposed to use it on public business and in presiding over the affairs of the nation. But with us in Bologna matters are (to tell the truth) somewhat different. We have many persons who charitably relieve us of the weight of the government. First, at the distance of 300 miles, there is in Rome a priest dressed in white, who, as sovereign of our city, is the first to lighten our public cares. Then the priest dressed in white sends us every few years a priest dressed in red, who has under him many priests dressed in black, who have under them a layman distinguished by a fine medal which hangs from his neck, who has under him fifty or sixty persons, who, notwithstanding a terrible display

*Ernesto Masi: 'La vita, i tempi, gli amici di Francesco Albergati commediografo del secolo xviii.' Bologna: Zanichelli, 1878. 8vo, pp. 491.
'I Teatri di Bologna nei secoli xvii e xviii: Storia aneddotica di Corrado Ricci.' Bologna: Successori Monti. 1888. 8vo, pp. xxii, 737.

of arms, are really the most courteous and lovable people in the world, always seeking to embrace their likes, and to protect them from the asperities of the weather by conducting them to a perfectly safe place, where no rent is paid. The Gonfaloniere of Bologna is therefore aided by the white priest, the red priest, the black priests, the man with the medal, and the fifty or sixty courteous and amiable people who distribute among themselves all the various parts of the public administration."

Many of the Bolognese nobility went into the Church; but even the others were compelled by the constitution of the state, such as it was, to become acquainted with the methods and language of public business. Otherwise, they were given up to amusement, to good living—for was it not *Bologna la Grassa?* and to literature—for was it not *Bononia Docta?*

Literature was indeed an amusement in the eighteenth century. There were at one time in Bologna a great number of academies, *i. e.*, clubs for conversation and the reading of essays and sonnets. The name of Lelio della Volpe, the publisher, constantly recurs in the letters of the time, with most affectionate mention. It was in his back shop that the literary reformers of Bologna used to talk away their evenings, while sitting on rough, hard benches. The Abbé Roberti, when he had been sent back to his native Bassano after the suppression of the Jesuits in 1773, recalling with delight the twenty years he had passed in Bologna, the pleasant breezes of the villas, and the gossip over the chocolate, says that he never passed by Della Volpe's shop without lifting his big shovel-hat and bowing low in honor of all the wisdom gathered therein.

Literature was an amusement for women as well as for men, and Galvani had as colleagues in the university three learned ladies—Laura Bassi, who taught philosophy; Anna Morandi Manzolini, who held a chair of anatomy, and Clotilda Tambroni, who was an excellent Greek scholar. But their merits were not great enough to astonish us. The Tambroni knew Greek no better than Mrs. Browning, or many other young women, unknown to fame, whose education has been a little different from the ordinary; the Bassi was a philosopher of the same stamp as many French ladies of the last century, who, like her, corresponded with Voltaire, but not to be compared, says De Brosses, with Signora Agnesi of Milan; and the Morandi was really only a clever modeller in wax, whose skilful productions gained her business offers even from London and St. Petersburg.

The University had much fallen off from its ancient reputation; and in 1745 Pope Benedict XIV., who knew his Bologna well, wrote to a friend:

"The learned in ecclesiastical matters are of three kinds. The first have a good stock of information, read constantly, and remember what they read; so that they are not only good for conversation, but on occasion can supply useful information. But if they don't go further, they are generally in practice not only useless but pernicious. Among these (I say it in confidence) we ought to put Cardinals Passionei and Monti, and, perhaps, also, if he were alive, Mgr. Fontanini. The second are those who have no stock of learning of this kind and do not know where to put their hands in case of need, but who have a capital of good logic and of experience in judging, and know how to make good use of the information given by the first I mentioned. These have value, but not full value; partly because they cannot work without the aid of others, partly because they do not possess the principles of ecclesiastical criticism, and found their system either on authors who are not esteemed, or on documents of doubtful authenticity. In the number of these might be put even the most celebrated canonical lawyers now in Rome. The third are those who have their learning at command, remember what they have read, as well as facts, are logical, possess adequate judgment, draw due inferences, and know which are the most esteemed authors and what documents are uncontroverted. These are really the men who deserve the most consideration. Among these the first place in Italy belongs to the Abbé Muratori; and of these the Holy See has need. With tears in our eyes we say that in Bologna there is neither the first, nor the second, nor the third class; and, we may add, there never will be, these being trades, and trades of continuous hard work, which must not be interrupted by laziness, or plays, or coffee-houses, or refreshment rooms, or by running about from house to house. May God preserve you, who have no equal in your own line, and through your continual teaching may He make people learn something of the natural sciences—a strong point in Bologna—and even make ecclesiastics able at least to know that the Trinity is a mystery and not a mountain, and that the Sacraments are not military offices. Behold the reply to your last, together with the Apostolic Benediction."

The life of the upper classes was in those days one continual round of amusement. In summer they had their villa life, with private theatricals, riding parties, dances in the open air, and fireworks. In winter there were the theatres, the public conversazioni, masked balls, gambling, and their academies. Duels were frequent, gallantry was one of the chief features of life, and *cicisbei*, whether harmless or other, had become an established institution. The ladies, De Brosses said, quote "Racine and Moliere, sing the Mirliton and the Béquille, swear by the devil but scarcely believe in him." The Emperor Joseph II., when spending the evening at the conversazione of the nobility, was struck with the number of abbés at the gaming tables, and remarked: "Oh! I see, these ladies are playing with their spiritual directors." The favorite games were those of chance, although yearly forbidden under the severest penalties—a fortress for the nobles, and the galleys for the common people; but no attention was paid to the Legate's proclamation, and the penalties were not enforced. From the 1st of January the Legate permitted the nobility to wear masks, on which there was a procession of masqueraders in carriages, headed by the civic authorities and starting from the Town Hall. A few days afterwards the same permission was granted also to the common people until the end of the Carnival.

Among those most given up to private theatricals was Albergati, who had constant performances in winter at his palace in town, when he was not at Venice; and in summer at his splendid villa at Zola on the Modena road, of which De Brosses gives us a description, while Longo, in his 'Memorie,' has left an entertaining account of the life there. Albergati began by acting himself; then translated French plays; then composed pathetic tragedies in the French style; and finally—being an ardent reformer of the stage—wrote comedies after the model of Goldoni, whose friend and disciple he was. His plays are now relegated to the history of the stage, although useful as realistic pictures of the manners and morals of the time. Although he had by them exposed himself to the hatred and malice of his own caste, Zola was a rendezvous for the literary society of Italy; and he succeeded in continuing on equally good terms with Goldoni and Baretti, the two Gozzi and Bertinelli, Cesarotti, Alfieri, and Monti. He was for many years in frequent correspondence with Voltaire, whose literary dictatorship outside of France is very noticeable in all the memoirs of that time; and was protected by King Stanislas Augustus of Poland, who made him Chamberlain, Adjutant-General, and Knight of St. Stanislas. Besides French he had studied German and English, and had translated the "Discourse on Medals" and other essays of Addison. Owing to his unfortunate propensity to fall in love, his private life was full of variety. At the age of nineteen, his parents, in order to settle him, married him to a young countess; but the union was unhappy, and the wife's father made a petition for the dissolution of the marriage attended by much scandal. The Pope, who was a family friend, decided the cause himself, without giving reasons, in Albergati's favor, annulling the marriage, allowing both parties to marry, and thus restoring Albergati's honor. The unfortunate countess entered a convent and soon after died. The Pope personally announced the decision to Albergati's mother, and referred to the subject in several other letters, in one of which he says to him:

"The Countess Laura Mariscotti, our witty Bolognese lady, who died some years ago here in Rome, used to say that every woman ought to marry, so as not to miss the fine chance of possibly being left a widow. If what she said about women might be said about men, we should apply it to you, who, in the widower state in which you now are, seem to enjoy that calm which you did not enjoy when you had a wife. Keep your good friendship for us, and salute your mother, the Marchesa, in our name, and receive, both of you, the Apostolic Benediction."

A few years later, a correspondence with a literary lady at Venice led Albergati to the brink of matrimony; but when at last he went to Venice to see her, he skilfully escaped, and soon married another Venetian of the middle class, whose family was in some way connected with the stage. According to the laws of Bologna this marriage was not legal unless he gave up his privileges as a noble, to which his family, and even the Pope, would not consent; but it was a long time before the Pope would legitimize the marriage and the children born from it, and then only on the intercession of the King of Poland, who had been godfather to Albergati's eldest son. Seventeen years passed, during the latter part of which the Marchesa Cattina, as the Venetians call Caterina, was jealous and hysterical, if not worse—although Albergati concealed his domestic misery as best he could—and at last committed suicide at Zola. In spite of there being witnesses to the suicide, Albergati's enemies, the nobles whom he had satirized, made so much talk that he was imprisoned for several months on a charge of murdering his wife, but was in the end triumphantly acquitted, and a good part of the rest of his life was spent in a successful effort to be exempted from the expenses of the trial. With the youthfulness which characterizes the old men of the eighteenth century, he soon married again—this time a ballet-dancer, who survived him.

The theatre of Albergati at Zola, although the best, was but one of the many which showed the fashion of the time for acting in private. During the eighteenth century, mention is made of forty-five private houses in Bologna where plays were more or less often performed, to say nothing of villas, schools, and even convents and monasteries, the representations in these latter being of a religious or at least serious character. Even Pope Lambertini had in his youth performed with great success the traditional part of the Doctor in the old Italian comedy.

The company of Medebach came to Bologna in 1752, and acted many of Goldoni's comedies with great success. The author had been there some years before, and had gained some money by selling to the directors of these theatres copies of three of his plays; but we have no information that they were ever acted. Goldoni in his memoirs tells in a very entertaining way an incident which occurred to him just after his arrival, in the café opposite the Church of San Petronio, when he was the involuntary

but amused witness of a controversy between some of his unknown enemies and his equally unknown partisans. It was at this time that he made the acquaintance of Albergati, whose guest he was both then and afterwards, and with whom he remained in constant correspondence. Medebach's company came back again in 1772, and then acted, not only the comedies of Goldoni, but those of his great rival, Gozzi. These representations were in the new and now existing Communal Theatre, which was built after the old Malvezzi had been burnt down. The contract provided that the theatre should be closed on Friday, on the eves of the Assumption and Nativity of the Virgin; that there should be no fireworks of any kind, or anything obscene, immodest, or contrary to religion, and that due quiet and modesty should be observed. Medebach came back again in 1779; but his representations were interrupted "by most prudent order," in consequence of violent earthquakes, and were not begun again till 1782. Tragedies of Alfieri appeared on the Bologna stage only at the very end of the century—the "Antigone" in 1797, and the "Virginia" in 1798. The plays of Metastasio held possession of the stage for sixty years, from 1730 till 1790; but these were always set to music, and the same text was often sung to the music of very different composers. The music of the "Didone Abbandonata," by Antonio Mazzoni, executed in 1752, happens to be the only one of forty different scores of this opera which is not mentioned by musical historians.

But it is impossible to speak briefly of the triumphs of Metastasio, of the interesting history of the Philharmonic Academy, or even of the visit of the English musical historian, Dr. Charles Burney, in 1770, when he heard for the first time Mozart, who was just passing his examination for his admission as an honorary member of the Academy. All this has been too recently and too well treated by Vernon Lee (Miss Paget) in her entertaining book, 'Studies of the Eighteenth Century in Italy.'

The great composers whose names appear most frequently in connection with the opera are Cimarosa, Hasse, and Jomelli. The Communal Theatre was opened in 1762 with the opera of "Il trionfo di Clelia," words by Metastasio and music by Gluck; and the composer himself came to Bologna to direct the representation. It was a failure. The critics, while appreciating the regularity of the composition, found it as solemn as a requiem sung in church; and Gluck soon went away, well provided with pence, but very poor in applause, so that the loungers about Bologna used to sing,

"Dman el part el Cluch:
El va per Triest;
Ch'al faga ban prest,
Perche el è un gran Mamaluch."

which may be roughly translated:

"To-morrow goes Gluck,
He leaves for Trieste;
The soonest the best,
For he's a big Mameluke."

Gluck, however, had a return of popularity, for his "Orfeo ed Euridice" was played in 1771, and the "Alceste" was well given, with general approval, in 1778. Gluck, who was then in Milan, preparing an opera for the new theatre there, was invited to Bologna to direct the "Alceste," but he was unwilling to risk a second experience.

When Goethe was in Bologna in 1786, he kept himself aloof from society, and speaks only of the pictures and his general impressions of the place. About the local dialect, of which a specimen has been given above, he says: "The Bolognese speech is a horrid dialect, which I should never have looked for here—rough, abbreviated, and so forth. I don't understand a word when they talk together. Venetian is noonday light in comparison." This agrees with what Mme. de Staël says in 'Corinne': "Bologna is one of the towns where you find a very great number of men learned in different ways; but the people there produce a disagreeable impression. Lucile expected the harmonious language of Italy that she had been told of, and was painfully surprised by the Bolognese dialect, than which there is nothing rougher in northern countries." Exaggerations aside, the dialect is not of the smoothest; but, like the Milanese and the Bergamasque, it is interesting, as showing the influence of Northern peoples even while Latin was still a living language. It is a pity, by the way, that so many are forced to use 'Corinne' at school as one of their first French reading books. Reading it again now, especially here in Italy, and regarding it, not only as an attempted representation of Italy and Italian life before the French Revolution, but especially as showing Mme. de Staël's personal views of Italian literature and art, it is deeply interesting; and even the most careless reader must admit its charm.

But—I was going, perhaps rightly, to say unfortunately—after the Italy described by Mme. de Staël, after the charming life in Bologna in the time of Albergati, came the French Revolution, and then the invasion of Savoy in the autumn of 1792. As a conclusion of long debates the Senate intrusted the Gonfaloniere with the sum of 120 francs to protect the town, which he divided among three churches for prayers—a method perhaps as sensible as any other for expending such a large sum. The French finally entered Bologna on June 19, 1796, in perfect peace—7,000 men commanded by Augereau—the first shock that they gave to the inhabitants being that they cut in two some of the processions in honor of Corpus Domini. To show their respect for property and religion, they shot a soldier who had stolen a chalice from a church: but they emptied the public treasury; took all the artistic and scientific treasures from churches, galleries, and museums; sacked the Monte di Pietà, leaving only those pledges that were worth less than forty dollars; made great requisitions in substance; and imposed a tax of 4,000,000 livres tournois, payable in eight days, on the upper classes. This was the French manner of conferring freedom. In the reorganization which followed, our friend, Albergati, was appointed Censor of the Press and Inspector of Theatres, and was even promised a professorship of dramatic literature in the reorganized University. A certain quondam marquis, then citizen Saverio Calvi, weary of the constant demands on his purse, stuck up in various parts of the town a notice of this tenor:

"Liberty, Equality, Fraternity, &c. The citizen Saverio Calvi, finding himself in the greatest need, through lacking money enough to assist the grievous necessities of the Republic, for which the Government has imposed on him a forced Loan of 10,000 Francs; and being obliged to pay in a few days the surtax of 8 per cent., and on the 20th of December next the anticipated tax of 6 per cent., and being anxious to take every measure for giving the Government proof of his patriotism, has resolved to sell an Estate situated in the Commune of Calderara, &c., &c. If any of those many rich honest men who have not only made very great profits from the operations of the war, and who are also not included in the list of the takers of the forced loan, desire to purchase this estate, they may apply, &c."

Albergati, who had permitted the publication of this notice—either without thought or from appreciation of the joke—was removed from both his offices. Such a hubbub, however, was created that he was restored. In 1802 he was again removed because he forbade the publication of a translation of Rousseau's 'Nouvelle Héloïse,' and especially because he justified his action in the matter. His love of France and of French literature, like that of Alfieri and of every other Italian, had been cured by events. E. S.

Correspondence.

THE SECRET BALLOT AND BRIBERY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I notice that the *Nation* is of the opinion that "a secret ballot is the surest as well as the simplest remedy for bribery at the polls." Allow me to call your attention to the working of an absolutely secret ballot in Canada, where, under the Dominion Elections Act, at least two general elections have been held, under rules and regulations which render it altogether impossible to discover how an individual votes, unless he is absolutely illiterate and unable even to make a cross. It is a fact that, in the Provinces of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, bribery and corruption prevail to an enormous extent at the Dominion general and by-elections, quite as much so since the act was perfected—about eight years ago—as before, and that election expenses are continually on the increase. In one largely agricultural constituency in the Province of New Brunswick, over $30,000 is said, by well-informed persons, to have been paid by two opposing candidates for the purchase of votes at a general election under the above act, and I have every reason to believe that I am safe in saying that not a single Dominion election contest has been held in either New Brunswick or Nova Scotia, during the last eight years, without a large expenditure for the purchase of votes by one or all of the candidates. When I tell you that many voters expect to be paid for their day, as they put it, before they will vote for the party to which they belong, or with which they are in sympathy, you will understand the extent to which bribery at our Dominion elections prevails.

I do not believe that one per cent. of the votes purchased are lost to the purchaser by the operation of the secret ballot, as there is a feeling, even among men who will sell their votes, that when you have taken a candidate's money you are bound to vote for him as a matter of business, and I think the contract is rarely broken. The law with regard to bribery at elections is as stringent here as in England, and the penalties severe; and yet the law is decidedly unpopular, and election petitions are seldom carried through. Perhaps the provisions of the English Election Act, limiting the legitimate expenditure according to population, and vacating the seat for an excess even of such legitimate expenditure, and the provision under which a constituency can be disfranchised for a period, when bribery has been proved to have largely prevailed—which are not found in the Canadian act—have had a good deal to do with suppressing corruption at elections in England. Public opinion in England is also in sympathy with the law, but with us I fear the like cannot be said. Actual experience in Canada leads one to believe that one cannot depend upon a secret ballot alone to insure purity at elections. The result under the act in the Provinces of Ontario and Quebec is altogether similar to that in the maritime Provinces, and the corruption prevailing all over Canada at the last general election under a secret ballot was some-

thing colossal for a comparatively poor country. C.

November 25, 1888.

[The bribable Canadian electorate appears to be in the middle stage of corruption, as holding itself bound in honor to its purchaser, and no doubt has its analogy in our farmer class of traffickers. It is quite otherwise with the "floaters" of our great cities, who have to be plied with liquor, and actually shut up overnight, and finally driven to the polls like cattle, with ballots in view, in order to make sure of their getting but a single wage and voting as agreed. The type of this class is sometimes roiling in wealth, like John J. O'Brien, whose infidelity to his Republican hirers is now causing so much grief in moral-idea circles.—Ed. Nation.]

A PROPOSED CONSTITUTIONAL AMENDMENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As it seems to be the inalienable right of every American citizen to try to improve on the Constitution of the United States, I wish to take a hand at it myself.

To the proposition to change our electoral system to a direct vote for President and Vice-President, you have raised the very serious objection of the long delay and consequent uneasiness and loss, before the popular majority could be ascertained. Yet it must be admitted, on the other hand, that there are grave objections to the present system. The first in importance is, that the choice of Presidential candidates is practically restricted to States whose vote is supposed to be doubtful and decisive. The second is, that the larger States *really* have an undue preponderance. I say *really*, though not *apparently*. It is all right that the *people* of New York should have thirty-six votes, and those of Connecticut only six; and, in fact (since two votes are given to each State irrespective of population), the advantage *seems* to be with the smaller States. But the fact that *each State casts its vote as a whole* really makes the voting power of a citizen of New York six times as great as that of a citizen of Connecticut. A majority of 1,000 in New York means thirty-six votes—the same majority in Connecticut only six votes.

Now there is a simple change, that has always seemed to me to carry out our system of representation more symmetrically than the present system, which would do away with both these evils, without, so far as I can see, being liable to the objection you make to the popular election. Our electoral representation is based upon our Congressional representation, in which the two Senators represent the whole State, and the several Representatives their respective districts, on a basis of population. So we have our two electors-at-large, representing the whole State, and the several district electors. My proposition, then, would be this: *Let the electors be voted for by those whom they represent.* Let the two electors-at-large be voted for by the whole State, and each district elector only by those in his own district. This plan would, I think, have the following advantages:

(1.) It would preserve the principle of State equality and sovereignty represented in the constitution of the Senate, that would be lost in a direct, popular election.

(2.) It would put the voters of all the States more nearly on an equality, as the Congressional districts are approximately of equal size, and a majority in each would choose one elector.

(3.) It would destroy the preponderating influence of a few States that limits the choice of candidates, and makes some States the prey of corrupting influences.

(4.) It would destroy sectionalism, breaking up the solid South and the almost solid North into constituencies whose votes would be divided between the different candidates.

(5.) The result could be ascertained more quickly than in a popular election, though perhaps not always as quickly as on the present plan. But this difficulty cannot be absolutely avoided on any scheme, as witness 1876.

There may be difficulties in the plan that I do not see, which you or others may point out, and there is the great practical difficulty that confronts all such remedies—the difficulty of getting it adopted; since the average politician does not sit down to consider the merits or demerits of any plan in itself, but enters at once into a calculation as to the probable effect upon his party's chances. Respectfully, H.

Wilmington, N. C., November 30, 1888.

THE EXTENT OF THE SOUTHERN QUESTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: What is called nowadays the Southern question is simply this: Can the Republican party use its power in the Federal Government to bring out the colored vote in the Southern States, and to have it freely cast and fairly counted? At first glance, there being sixteen Southern States, the question looks much more important than it really is. The returns of the poll taken on the 6th of November show that in the eight States of Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, Kentucky, Missouri, North Carolina, and Tennessee, the Republicans, white and black, can well take care of themselves. There are sixty-five Congressional districts in these States, of which seventeen have returned Republican Representatives. The plurality for Cleveland over Harrison in all this immense stretch of country is about 104,000, or an average of 1,600 for each district. That does not look very "solid."

There are two other States, Texas and Arkansas, in which the majority of the Democrats over white Republicans and all negroes together is so great that there is very little motive for silencing or counting out the latter; it is not done to any great extent, and the prevention of the occasional wrongs committed in this or the other county could not help the Republicans in a national party.

This reduces the question practically to the six cotton States of South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana, with their forty districts and fifty-two electors. To the Republican politician who approaches the task of establishing "a free vote and a fair count" in these six States, three considerations will occur:

(1.) Can the necessary legislation be carried through Congress?

(2.) Will it, looked at from the mere partisan standpoint, do any good?

(3.) Will it pay all round?

The Republican majority in the lower house is very narrow. It comprises eighteen Southern members—the seventeen mentioned already and Mr. Coleman of New Orleans. All but three of them are elected by constituencies made up in the main of whites, and would endanger their reëlection by voting for any sort of a "force bill." Without sounding all of them, it would hardly be worth while to launch out upon the "new crusade."

It might not, however, be impossible to pass an act of Congress which would introduce the secret, so-called Australian, ballot (such as we have in our Louisville city elections) in the election of members of Congress everywhere, North as well as South, and thus strike a blow at bribery and the influence of capital as well as at intimidation. Anything beyond such a measure, applicable to the whole country, would only stir up bad blood, and lead to no more tangible results than the efforts of Gen. Grant with his Kuklux laws and Federal garrisons and of his United States judges with their injunctions. In fact, those Kuklux laws have been torn to pieces by the judgment of a Republican Supreme Court. It would require the very highest skill to draw up new force laws whose invalidity would not be apparent at first glance. Moreover, the cotton States can make their suppression of the colored vote strictly lawful by simply copying from the Constitution of Massachusetts the reading and writing test for the suffrage.

The third and last consideration is, Will a policy of aggression against the cotton States pay, in a partisan sense? Suppose South Carolina, Florida, Mississippi, and Louisiana can be redeemed—say thirty electors; suppose that, in these four States and in Georgia and Alabama, twenty members of Congress can be gained through the negro vote, how much will be lost elsewhere? Is it not cheaper and easier to "buy" Indiana and the two Virginias than to start on the hazardous enterprise of upsetting by force the governments of six States with their seven millions of people? Moreover, is not a bird in the hand worth two in the bush? The white Republican districts in Maryland, West Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Missouri are irretrievably lost as soon as the sectional and race issues are reopened—with the single exception, perhaps, of Houck's district in east Tennessee. Moreover, the election of Coleman in New Orleans shows that to let well alone promises good results, even in a Gulf State.

Considering all this, the Republican politicians, if they undertake a new crusade under the banner of the bloody shirt, can do so only for one reason, viz., that they wish to take up the sectional war cry to consolidate the North, being afraid of further discussion of the tariff, and deeming it impossible to keep the Northwest any longer in line for the humbug of "protection." L. N. D.

Louisville, November 30, 1888.

THE "PROTECTIVE" POLICY APPLIED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Protectionists argue that it is right and proper for our Government to guard our workingmen from direct competition with the "pauper labor" of Europe. This is done, they say, by imposing a tax on all imported articles which compete with those produced here. The tax increases the cost of the imported article, and enables the home producer to sell at a higher price than he could otherwise get. This is the only way a tariff import can "protect" anybody. It enables the home producer of competing articles to sell at a higher price. It therefore increases his profits, and hence enables him to pay his workmen better wages; or it enables him to earn an average profit, and therefore continue a business which, without this "protection," would be unprofitable.

This, I think, is the gist of the argument, fairly stated. Whether the assumptions on which it is based are true, I do not purpose to

inquire. Assuming that, if true, they justify the policy adopted, is not a "protective tariff" a very limited and inadequate application of the principle?

Whatever increased profits our manufacturers of "protected" articles get, or whatever increased wages they pay their workmen, must come from other classes—the consumers of their products. These increased profits, or increased wages, are certainly not paid by foreigners, because the highest possible "protection," hence the greatest possible profit and the highest possible wages, would result from the absolute exclusion of all foreign products which compete with those of home production. But, if it increases the general prosperity, and if it is right and proper to build up one industry at the expense of another, or at the expense of the community; or if it is right to secure to our laboring men a fair compensation by imposing a tax on consumers—why should they limit their demands to the paltry sums now paid them? If this principle is sound, the only valid objection to the Henry George system of taxation is that it is entirely too modest and moderate in its demands. On this hypothesis, the Anarchists are the only sensible people in this country, and the only true economists.

If workingmen are entitled to "fair" wages, to be drawn from a fund secured by taxation, and if they are themselves the proper judges of what is "fair," they are great fools, it seems to me, if they are content with the paltry sum they now receive. If it is right to take one dollar out of my earnings, or my accumulations, to increase the earnings of another man, it is equally right to take ten or a hundred, if the majority think it will be to their advantage.

J. N. L. S.

Dayton, Ohio.

A FARMER ON THE MISSIONARY OF FREE TRADE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I, a farmer, am greatly interested in what you say about the necessity of winning over the farmers to the right side of the tariff question. Permit me to offer a suggestion.

Before the election, in discussion with a protectionist, I asked him to point out to me the justice of taxing one class of citizens for the benefit of another class—in other words, of permitting the wool growers, for instance, to levy tribute upon all who wear woollen garments. He replied substantially, "If you put it in that light, there is nothing to be said; but *we do not look at the question from a moral standpoint.*" Do not his words express the mental attitude of most of the advocates of the present tariff? When the farmers can be made to look at the question from the moral standpoint, you will begin to win them over. The slave power was overthrown by compelling men to look at the question from the moral standpoint. The difficulties in the way of getting men to take that view of the question were enormous—well-nigh insuperable. There was not to be found, in any authoritative code of ethics, any explicit and unequivocal condemnation of slavery. The institution to which men looked for light was inconsistent and self-contradictory in its teachings. South of Mason and Dixon's line, it defended slavery; north of that line, it defended and denounced it. But whether it defended or denounced it, in doing so it contradicted itself, and so destroyed its moral influence. In spite of these difficulties, however, all classes were finally persuaded to look at the matter from the moral standpoint, and we know the result.

Now, protection is as wrong as slavery; for protection *is* slavery. The essence of slavery is, I take it, that one man, by force of law, appropriates to his own use a part (not all, for the slave must live) of the earnings of another man. If this is correct, all consumers of steel in any form are the slaves of the steel manufacturers; all wearers of woollen garments are the slaves of the wool-growers; all men who live in houses are the slaves of the lumber kings; and so on through the long list. It is a curious fact that the name "Republican," which meant, thirty short years ago, an opponent of slavery, has now come to mean a defender of the same "sum of all villanies." In the recent canvass the Republican party was the party of slavery, and the Democrats the party of freedom. Strange metamorphosis!

If slavery was wrong, protection is wrong; and "if slavery is not wrong, nothing is wrong." Protection is robbery. It steals a slice from the poor man's loaf; it strips the coat from his back; it sends his children out to face the blasts of winter in cotton rags, because if he buys woollen garments for them the wool-growers fine him and put the money in their pockets. It adds a percentage to his rent, and the lumber monopolists pocket that. On every steel tool that he buys, it compels him to pay tribute to the steel men. Part of the cost of every pound of sugar consumed in his family is tribute to the sugar planters. If, after each of the protected classes has levied its contribution, they leave the victim a living, they do no more than the slave owner.

But if your missionary would make the farmer, or anybody else, look at this tremendous question from a moral standpoint, he must *have* a moral standpoint. He must carry with him, among his documents, a code that does not contradict itself; a code that does not mean different things to different men; a code that the missionary would not only like to see other men put in practice, but one that he is willing to practise himself. He must have, in short, a distinct, explicit, and definite belief about questions of morals, which he is ready to defend in the face of the world.

Your missionary has been abroad, in fact, for many years. Why has he failed? Why are good and honest men yet to be found willing to defend a wrong so gross and palpable? Perhaps the explanation is to be found partly in the fact that the missionary of reform has no moral standpoint, has no authoritative and practical code of ethics, has no belief about ethical and kindred questions that he is willing to defend in the face of the world.

H.

Notes.

A posthumous work by the late Sir Henry Maine, on International Law, is about to be published by Henry Holt & Co. It has been edited by Messrs. Frederic Harrison and Frederick Pollock of Lincoln's Inn.

Macmillan & Co. will issue immediately 'Japan and Its Art,' by Marcus B. Huish, founded on papers in the *Art Journal*, but thoroughly revised and extended. The book, say the publishers, is the result of a year's constant intercourse with the most competent Japanese expert, and of a study of the principal European collections. It will contain upwards of 100 illustrations.

A new edition of Darwin's 'Origin of Species,' from the sixth and last London edition, is announced as nearly ready by D. Appleton & Co.

Ticknor & Co. publish shortly the autobiography of Sister M. Frances Clare, the "Nun of Kenmare."

'American History' for younger readers, by Miss Sheldon, on the plan of her 'General History,' is in the press of D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

The quarterly circular of the Librairie des Bibliophiles contains several welcome announcements. In the cheap and admirable "Nouvelle Bibliothèque Classique," Montaigne will shortly be completed by a sixth and seventh volume, the latter containing a glossary and an index; and of the twelve volumes of the Voltaire, the fifth and sixth are about to appear. In the beautiful and sumptuous "Bibliothèque Artistique Moderne," in the making of which M. Jouaust has been rivalled only by M. Conquet's most successful efforts, we are to have the "Théâtre" of Alfred de Musset, with a preface by M. Jules Lemaitre, and drawings by M. Charles Delort, etched by M. Boilvin. This will be preceded by a volume of Gérard de Nerval's short stories, and followed by the 'Chartreuse de Parme' and 'Rouge et Noir' of Stendhal, illustrated by M. Dagnan-Bouveret. In the smaller "Petite Bibliothèque Artistique" will come the 'Vicar of Wakefield,' with etchings by M. Lalauze, and 'I Promessi Sposi,' with etchings by M. Bramtot. The single-play edition of Molière, uniform with the "Petite Bibliothèque Artistique," with prefaces by M. Vitu and a most remarkable series of illustrations by M. Louis Leloir, etched by M. Champollion, goes on its triumphant career. "L'Étourdi" and the "Dépit Amoureux" have already appeared, and the "Précieuses Ridicules" will follow before the end of the year; and thereafter a play a month is the programme.

'Playwriting: A Handbook for Would be Dramatic Authors, by a Dramatist,' is the title of an ill-written and (from a literary point of view) vulgar book recently published in London. Nevertheless, it is not without merit; and its earlier chapters, on the purely practical part of the playwright's calling, are likely to be serviceable to the beginner. It is unfortunately true that, with all the writing about the stage, never more frequent than now, there is no treatise on the art of writing for the stage, although no work is more needed. The appalling ignorance of the physical conditions of the theatre revealed by many apprentice playmakers is known only to those who are asked to read their impossible productions. Therefore we welcome the present roughly written handbook. Its teachings, such as they are, may be supplemented by a study of the prefaces and 'Entr'actes' of M. Dumas *fils*, and of the two lectures of M. Legouvé on Scribe and on the author of "L'Abbé de l'Épée." Better than anything else, perhaps, would be a prolonged and regular reading of M. Sarcey's weekly feuilletons in the *Temps*.

That infinitely laborious undertaking, the ninth edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' has just been completed by the publication of vol. xxiv. (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.; New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons). The event is very properly to be celebrated by a dinner of the editor and his colaborers next week at Cambridge (Eng.). We shall return to the final volume after examination.

The Rev. E. E. Hale's classical patriotic *jeu d'esprit*, 'The Man Without a Country,' has been reissued in handsome style by Roberts Bros., with restrained and very apt illustrations by Frank T. Merrill. A product of the deep feeling of the civil war, and intended to touch the minds of the rising generation especially, it not unnaturally went to the extreme of inculcating "Our Country, right or wrong." Chaplains, in Marryat's novels at least, have been known to swear terribly in the

heat of an engagement. One of Mr. Hale's distinguished townsmen, too, hazarded a correspondingly unmoral toast, in the days of Texan annexation and slavery extension—"Our Country, however bounded." Mr. Hale's patriotism, as the late Presidential campaign showed, now bears the name of protectionism, and he is ready to treat his countrymen with reference to the mother country as poor Nolan was treated with regard to his own—*i. e.*, he would, if he could, not have them hear the name of England, or so much as read about her, and would make of the United States a nation without a human brotherhood.

The two volumes (III. and IV.) concluding the Poems in the new edition of Whittier's writings, have now appeared (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). They are divided into "Anti-Slavery Poems, Songs of Labor and Reform" and "Personal Poems, Occasional Poems, The Tent on the Beach." Any one familiar with his Whittier knows that these categories are not rigorous; that a singularly large proportion of the product of this impulsive poet might be labelled "occasional verse"; and that this is eminently true of the personal poems. Very many of these latter, however, beginning and ending with verses to Garrison, are grouped under the Anti-Slavery heading, *e. g.*, the lines to Silas Wright, Thomas Shipley, and Daniel Neall; whereas those to Charles B. Storrs are unexpectedly separated from the abolition series. The needs of the bookmaker must, of course, be consulted, but it is a pity not to have *all* the personal poems under one rubric in a noble gallery. In Volume III. the explanatory prefaces to the several poems are almost a syllabus of the history of the struggle between North and South. In this volume, too, are the two or three instances of humorous rhyming so much in harmony with Whittier's innate mirthfulness, which he seldom indulges in print. If the "To ———" is still a sacred reticence, we see no reason for keeping "J. P." (John Pierpont) a mystery in the table of contents. The appendix to Volume IV. embraces the early poems which Whittier would prefer to have forgotten. They are cunningly printed in a type so small as to discourage the majority from reading them. An index of first lines and one of titles, and a chronological list of the compositions, complete the admirable equipment of this edition. Judged by quantity, at least, this list shows no marks of age: Whittier's muse was much more prolific in 1879 than in 1869. The Prose Writings are to follow.

Many will be glad to find procurable a second edition of the late Bronson Alcott's estimate of the character and genius of his greater townsman ('Ralph Waldo Emerson, Philosopher and Seer.' Boston: Cupples & Hurd). It is a close, just, and coherent portrayal—the prose essay, of notable distinction as style, being confirmed by verse precedent and succeeding—and is an interesting two fold memorial. Likenesses of the two friends face each other, and some small cuts show us the *locus* of either genius. Finally, some stanzas on Emerson's death, by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, "The Poet's Countersign," fill out the thin volume.

That indebtedness to Emerson which Herman Grimm professed so strongly in his 'Fünfzehn Essays' (1882), he acknowledges once more in the preface to Miss Sarah Holland Adams's translation of his 'Life of Raphael' (Boston: Cupples & Hurd.) He even finds that "a striking analogy exists in the nature of these two men." The present translation has given Prof. Grimm an opportunity to revise the text of 1872, and to express his views "quite positively." The chapter on the "Camera della Segnatura" has been rewritten and condensed. Miss Adams, on her part, has omitted a few passages of historical research and some of subtle analysis. She receives Grimm's hearty commendation for the quality of her work. He is engaged, he tells us, upon a minute account of his thirty years' study of the "Disputà" and the "School of Athens," to the latter of which one of his Fifteen Essays was devoted. We may recur to the present volume.

An historical work touching its thirtieth year, 'Henry III., King of France and Poland: His Court and Times,' by Martha Walker Freer (Mrs. Robinson), has just been reissued in three volumes by Dodd, Mead & Co. Its minute particularity is not in accordance with the present fashion of writing history; nor does its length —one of the consequences of the excessive details in which the compiler indulged—recommend it to our busy age. But the importance of the epoch measurably redeems the above defects and the lack of vivid, picturesque presentation.

In a style uniform with the author's 'Memorials of Westminster Abbey'—and therefore of elegant simplicity—A. D. F. Randolph & Co. have just brought out the late Dean Stanley's 'Historical Memorials of Canterbury,' the first American from the eleventh London edition. We miss, to be sure, the etched adornments of the former work, for we can hardly call such the rather hard portrait of Stanley. There is a plan of the Cathedral.

Bartholomew's 'Handy Reference Atlas of the World' (Geo. Routledge & Sons) takes the shape which its name implies—a volume, 12mo, fitted for the ordinary shelf, and easy to hold in the hand. The maps are, of course, of moderate scale, not overloaded with details. An index facilitates search for the unknown. Finally, there is a condensed presentation of the geographical statistics of the leading States of the world. There are no innovations in the grouping of countries or sections of the globe in the map series. The United States and South America have been managed as well as was practicable. The principal cities and their suburbs are properly looked after. Altogether, this volume is good to have at one's elbow and to give away.

To any one desiring helpful suggestions for family amusement or social merry-making, Miss Lucretia P. Hale's 'Fagots for the Fireside' (Ticknor & Co.) will be a great boon. In a series of connected chapters (the "Bundles of Fagots") a circle of friends are represented as playing games, and the directions for these —more than a hundred games being described —are clearly and pleasantly given. The narrative style contributes to the graceful ease with which this is done, to say nothing of Miss Hale's literary facility. It should be added that most of the games require no further *matériel* than pencil and paper or cards.

Mr. Hugo Hirsh's 'Tabulated Digest of the Divorce Laws of the United States' (H. Gower Hose, Publisher, P. O. Box 158, Brooklyn, N. Y.) is worth having by any one who would see and compare at a glance the causes of divorce in all the States and Territories of this country. It is on a single, large, thick, strong, folded sheet in covers; and this spreads out and shuts again in a manner which is unusually convenient.

At a season when people begin to overhaul their list of periodicals with a view to subscriptions for the coming year, let us call the attention of all to *Garden and Forest*, a "Journal of Horticulture, Landscape Art, and Forestry," published from the *Tribune* building in this city. In the nature of the case, we cannot often refer to it, but we take occasion now to testify to its excellence above any publication of the kind in this country. Its very appearance would speak to all who are capable of recognizing what is first-rate. The editor, Prof. C. S. Sargent, is well known as a very high authority in horticulture and forestry, and the tone of the paper is such as to make it welcome in every cultivated family. It is full of good and very varied writing, of a practical sort, and it is seldom that a number is lacking in literary flavor. Every issue has one or more illustrations, and generally a process cut (after a photograph from nature) representing some rare flower or distinguished tree. There is no rubbish or padding, nothing to offend the intelligence or the taste of the reader. The level aimed at is maintained with ease. Such an enterprise should have no grudging or doubtful support.

We must repeat our good word for the *Technology Architectural Review* (Boston: Henry D. Bates), like *Garden and Forest* in its first volume. The latest issue has another of Mr. Emmanuel Brune's masterly drawings from the antique (a Corinthian capital), and two *projets*, one of a public library. The students of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology who are behind this undertaking are supplying something attainable nowhere else on this side of the water.

The *Classical Review* for October (London: David Nutt) announces that its arrangements with Ginn & Co., Boston, will enable its conductors to enlarge the magazine by an additional sheet, commencing January, 1889, and thus make room for American scholars, among whom Prof. T. D. Seymour of Yale, Prof. J. H. Wright of Harvard, and Prof. W. G. Hale of Cornell will serve as a cis-Atlantic editorial committee.

Sun and Shade, published by the Photogravure Co., will, in its December number, be wholly given up to plates of children, including an example of color printing.

The August-September number of the *Library Chronicle* prints the admirable address of the President of the Library Association of the United Kingdom at the Glasgow meeting, and contains also an abstract of the proceedings. While the practical side of the librarian's profession was by no means neglected, it is evident from the titles of such papers as "Elzevir Bibliography" by Chancellor Christie, "Watermarks in Collation of Fifteeners," "The Brothers Foulis and the Glasgow Press," "A Bibliographical Martyr," and others of a like nature, that more attention is given to purely bibliographical subjects than has been customary at the meetings of the American librarians. It was announced that the Borrajo prize for the best essay on the history of printing in England to the Year 1800 had been awarded to E. Doubleday of the Nottingham Library. The council of the Association was instructed to make arrangements for holding the meeting of 1889 in Paris.

In the November number of the *Centralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*, Dr. G. Knod makes a contribution to the bibliography of Jacob Wimpfeling, a noted figure in the history of German education; and Dr. T. Gottlieb furnishes transcripts of some seven or eight mediæval catalogues of Italian church and monastic libraries, none of which, however, offer anything very important to the student of mediæval bibliography or history. The recently issued third supplement to the *Centralblatt* is a bulky number of 350 pages, containing the elaborate classification of the subject catalogue of the Halle University Library. The introduction, by the librarian, O. Hartwig, gives an interesting account of the circumstances under

which the classification was carried out, and describes with considerable detail the method of cataloguing adopted. As the books are arranged on the shelves in substantially the same order as in the subject catalogue, we have here an example of a relative location system which may be compared with some of the American plans. The scheme has been very carefully worked out, and will well repay examination by those interested in such matters, though it is likely that most librarians will agree with Dr. Hartwig in thinking that, after all, only certain fundamental divisions can be looked upon as common to all libraries, and that a satisfactory system of classification for any given library must be largely an individual one, or, in other words, must be worked out with reference to the conditions and objects of that particular library. In this case, for instance, the classification of jurisprudence is carried out into an unusual minuteness of detail, and occupies more than one hundred pages, or about one-third of the volume.

The death is announced on November 19 of the Princess Elena Koltzoff-Massalsky, better known in literature as Mme. Dora d'Istria. The daughter of Prince Michael Ghika, she was born at Bucarest in 1828. On the overthrow of her uncle, the reigning prince of Wallachia, she went into exile with her father, travelled and lived in nearly every country in Europe, specially in the Balkan Peninsula, and even made a long journey in the United States, an account of which was published in the *Neologos*, a Greek newspaper of Constantinople, with the title of "Labor in America." She wrote on nearly every subject, but was especially known for her papers in various reviews and journals on the peoples of Eastern Europe, their songs and their folk-lores.

—The December *Century* has no article standing out above the general level, though that level is, as usual, one of excellence. If Henry Ward Beecher's paper on his visit to England in 1863 could have been anything more than the unfinished Aladdin's window it is, it would have been such an article, no doubt; as it is, its interest is, of course, only pathetic. It is pieced out, to be sure, by Dr. Buckley's account of Beecher's struggle with the Liverpool mob; but this, though valuable as the testimony of an eye-witness, adds nothing to what was known of the affair before. The second instalment in the series of reproductions of Italian art is given in a short article on Duccio, ornamented by three of Mr. Cole's engravings in his best style. F. Hopkinson Smith gives a half-score of his Mexican sketches in connection with a letter-press which is altogether charming in its accurate observation. So faithfully does the writer give back the true tone of Mexican life that it is only fair to presume that the slips in Spanish which disfigure his pages are the printer's fault, not his. His sketches for the most part are suggestive bits, but are far inferior to the spirited drawings, in the same field, which Mrs. Foote has given us—a sample of her fine work being shown in the frontispiece of this very number. Henry James's article on London, with illustrations by Joseph Pennell, will give pleasure to many readers. Mr. James writes more about the London of the idea than the London of actuality, and attempts to render the impressions found in his own consciousness rather than the results of gazing abroad with the physical eye; but, of course, his paper is all the more characteristic and entertaining for that. The Lincoln biography is working clear of the smoke of battle-fields, and gives in this number a highly interesting account, with some important and hitherto unpublished documents, of the way the country, through the man who spoke its will, felt its way to emancipation. The "Romance of Dollard" does not disappoint the expectations raised by the first chapters. On what theory the Irish story of Mr. Jessop is printed, it is hard to imagine. It is both vulgar and witless.

—The drawing of 'A Peccary Hunt,' by Frederic Remington, in the last number of *Harper's Weekly*, is an interesting illustration of the transitional and experimental stage of current pictorial methods in the delineation of animal locomotion. The two horses in the foreground are evidently either directly copied from instantaneous photographs, or drawn in positions made familiar to us through photography, while the more distant horses and all of the peccaries are drawn in the old-fashioned, full-spread position of the conventional sporting print. The result is very curious. When Mr. Muybridge first made public some of his photographs, it was almost universally believed that, while his results might be of scientific interest, they could be of little service to artists, whose business was with appearances, and whose conventional methods gave more of the *appearance* of motion if they gave less of the facts. So rapid, however, has been the education of eye of all who have paid any attention to the subject, that in this present drawing of Mr. Remington's our old ideas are seen to be reversed, and the positions which are demonstrably correct give a much greater impression of speed than do the conventional ones. The foremost horses not only seem to be passing rapidly before us, but the position of the feet is suggestive to the ear as well as to the eye, and one seems to hear the cadenced pound of a thundering gallop as they pass. The more distant horses, on the contrary, if they seem to move at all, seem to be gliding silently through the air, like the phantom horses in the "Walküre," without touching hoof to ground. A study of the two manners of depicting motion, here brought together within the limits of the same drawing, will go far to convince one that the total abandonment of the older one is only a matter of time. Whenever the public has become sufficiently educated in the new methods to lose the sense of strangeness, and whenever the artists have sufficiently mastered them to acquire freedom in their application—being no longer bound to the mere copying of photographs, but *possessing* a knowledge of the true philosophy of motion and applying it unconsciously—then the revolution will be complete, and a return to old methods will no longer be possible.

—Mr. Sidney S. Rider of Providence, R. I., whose name is well known in the American book-trade, resents the use of such terms as "socialist" and "communist" when comments are made upon his opposition to the International Copyright Bill which is now pending before the House of Representatives; and in *Book-Notes* for November 24, he particularizes his reasons for opposing this measure. Using the somewhat hackneyed illustration of the man who, by the labor of his hands, guided by the intelligence of his mind, produces a story or a history, instead of a wheelbarrow, he exclaims, "Is it not the property of the man who made it? Certainly it is, and it is entitled to just the same protection, as property, as it would have had had it been a wheelbarrow." There may be two kinds of property in a book, he continues, and therefore two different owners. "The author owns the literary property, while the manufacturer owns the mechanical production, to wit, the book itself. The putting of a manuscript into type and printing it upon paper, certainly can give the workman no right of ownership in the manuscript. . . . It is the *author*, not the *workman*, who did the work with the pen. Him, then would I pay. The workman has no right of property in the author s work."

—It may be inferred from these quotations that Mr. Rider is not opposed to the idea of securing by law the literary property of the foreign author. But he does object to the bill now being pushed, and his reasons are frankly stated as follows:

"Senator Chace's international copyright law refuses to recognize this literary property in English authors, unless it can be made, under the protective-tariff principle, to become a source of profit to the mere American manufacturer of the book. . . . Their ownership in their own property cannot be recognized unless the English authors produce their books through some American publisher. This arrangement is for the purpose of enabling the mere manufacturer of a book to obtain out of me, his own countryman, a larger price than he otherwise could by any fair dealing; and this twist upon me, Senator Chace, as a legislator, is assisting this manufacturer to obtain."

The advocates of the Chace bill are neither fair nor wise in calling those who do not approve of this special measure, "enemies of international copyright." One might with equal justice denounce all persons who conscientiously oppose the Blair bill, as opponents of education. No doubt the former sincerely believe the Chace bill to be the only law that can be obtained from Congress at this time; but they should not forget that this is an era of free and frank discussion, and should see that it is impossible to prevent the publication of reasons for disapproval, and that the wise course is, therefore, to meet the objections advanced with honest arguments, and not attempt to discredit those who conscientiously refuse to endorse the legislation proposed, by stigmatizing them as opponents of an equitable international copyright law.

—We have received from the American Polytechnic Company of Buffalo, N. Y., some specimen pages and a number of plates extracted from a forthcoming work entitled 'Ancient Egypt, or Mizraim,' and edited by Dr. Samuel A. Binion of Baltimore, Md. This is to be a great work, in dimensions at least, and its object is to reproduce in a single collection the treasures of engraving and colored lithography which lie buried in the imperial productions of France in Egyptology—the 'Description de l'Égypte' authorized by Napoleon I., the 'Monuments de l'Égypte' of Champollion, the 'Monuments Égyptiens' of Prisse d'Avennes, and the German 'Denkmäler aus Ægypten und Æthiopien' of Lepsius, and we presume the Italian 'Monumenti' of Rosellini—productions inaccessible to most students in England and America, and altogether beyond the use of merely English readers. A duplication of the finest pieces in these magnificent publications ought to form an incomparable portfolio, illustrating Egyptian archæology and architecture as they appeared half a century ago, more or less, some (indeed, many) changes for the worse having taken place in the monuments since then; and certainly the specimens laid before us are faithful to their originals, though perhaps somewhat more highly tinted. While most of the pioneers above-named sought only to preserve scientific accuracy, the latest, Prisse d'Avennes, went after the most beautiful things, and whatever is repeated from his hand will be artistic and attractive in the highest degree. It would be premature to forecast the success or criticise the execution of this grand work before it is finished. Dr. Binion

writes in a popular style, but here in like manner the amount of text offered us in this instalment is far too scanty for judgment. We observe, however, that he does not write the Egyptian form of the name Chefren uniformly —"Chafra" on the first page, but "Khafra" elsewhere; also, that he quotes Mr. Petrie as rendering the words *nofer nuter, neb khaui* by "the good god, the king of the two lands," in which either Mr. Petrie must be wrongly transcribed or himself guilty of the slip, for *neb khau* means 'King of Diadems,' while 'King of the Two Lands' would be *neb taui*.

—The aim of the 'New English Dictionary,' now for four years in publication at Oxford, is of the highest. It aspires, in "regard to each individual word, to show what new uses have arisen and when; to illustrate these facts by a series of quotations ranging down from the first-known occurrence of the word," etc. Seldom has it fallen below its high aim, as we have been glad to testify again and again on the appearance of each of its successive parts. But sometimes Homer nods. The word "capitol" affords one instance. In one transferred sense this word is defined, "The edifice occupied by the Congress of the United States in their deliberations." To illustrate this meaning we have the following: "1843 *Penny Cycl.* xxvii, 98. The President's house is situated at the opposite extremity of Pennsylvania Avenue from the Capitol." Only this and nothing more. The year one thousand eight hundred and and forty-three was the first occurrence of the sense above mentioned known to Dr. Murray and his lexicographical staff. This era was the thirty-first year after British troops had burnt the Capitol in Washington, and were described by their Chaplain Gleg (p. 139) as "gathered on the Capitol Hill." But the occurrence of the word "capitol" to mean a building for the Congressional deliberations is much older than 1814; it is older than the erection of such a building in the first years of this century. On October 1 (1793) Jefferson writes: "Dr. Thornton's plan of a Capitol has been produced, and has captivated the eyes and the judgments of all" (Works, iii, p. 508). More than this—in the lowest deep a lower deep—on April 10, 1791, Jefferson writes about "preparing plans for the Capitol" (iii, p. 237). It seems to Yankees rather hard that their Capitol should remain for more than forty years ignored by the very foes who burned it down. In truth, they might well be glad to forget that act of savagery.

—In respect to the other American signification of the word "capitol," namely "the state-house, or house in which the Legislature holds its sessions," the 'New Dictionary' is still more deficient. This new use of the word is illustrated by no quotation whatever. There is nothing to show either when it arose, or whether it gave rise to the national meaning of the word or was derived from it, or from what other source. But, since "capitol" has become to Americans—or at least to the politicians among them—a magic word no less than was "glory" to Frenchmen under the first Napoleon, these points deserve elucidation. The name was given to a state-house earlier than to any national edifice. Jefferson, in his 'Notes,' written in 1781, mentions "the Capitol of Virginia at Williamsburg" (p. 221); but the word had the same import there long before Jefferson was born. In 1699 the state-house in Virginia having been burnt, the Assembly passed "an act directing the building the Capitol," etc. (Henning, Statutes, vol. iii., p. 197). In 1705, after providing for a site for the building, it was ordained "that the said building shall forever be called and known by the name of the Capitol." Where the Virginian legislators obtained the word "capitol" in the sense of government-house, it may not be possible to ascertain. The word, however, had been used in that political sense, in English, as early as 1653 by Sir Thomas Urquhart, in his translation of Rabelais ('Gargantua,' §§ 2-6), "The cake-makers went to the Capitol of Picrochele." Some Old Dominion planter must have read Rabelais. But the translator had very slightly changed the original *capitoly*, written by Rabelais about 1535, and that word then and immemorially had been borne by the state-house in Toulouse. It seems clear that, from the era of Roman conquest, capitol in Provence meant government-house. Du Cange quotes Aulus Gellius as saying that the colonies were a sort of images of the Roman people, and so had theatres, baths, and capitols ("Erant coloniæ quasi effigies Romani Populi, eoque jure habebant theatra, thermas, capitolia"). The word "capitol" as a state-house has largely died out abroad, and in Great Britain never had any currency; but in our Greater Britain it has become as potent a vocable as palace or parliament-house ever was anywhere. It was therefore worthy of a less perfunctory treatment than it has received from the all-embracing dictionary of the English Philological Society.

FRANCE AND THE CONFEDERATE NAVY.

France and the Confederate Navy. An International Episode. By John Bigelow. Harper & Bros.

Mr. Bigelow's modest little book has a far higher value as history than many more pretentious volumes that bear the name. What he playfully terms an "international episode" was in truth a diplomatic intrigue of the first magnitude, in respect to the parties concerned in it as well as in the interests at stake. It was nothing less than the attempt of the Confederacy, with the active coöperation of the Emperor Napoleon III., to make France play the same part for the Confederates that she played in 1778 for the Revolutionary colonies. The story has up to this time remained buried in the captured Confederate archives, where no one seems to have thought of looking for it until Mr. Bigelow unearthed it. Parts of it were known to the individual actors, and one of these, Capt. Bulloch, the Confederate naval representative in England, has published his narrative; but, though an active an important agent, he was only a subordinate, and there was much with which he was unacquainted. Mr. Bigelow himself played no insignificant part in the story, seeing that he was the chief instrument in bringing the intrigue to nought, but his actual knowledge of the facts at the time was confined to what was essential for carrying his point—the rest he could only surmise; and even with such piecing out as Bulloch's subsequent account afforded, his story was incomplete until he obtained the Slidell-Benjamin correspondence. This filled in all the remaining gaps, and the result is like a child's puzzle, where the scattered and misshapen parts, put together by expert hands, reveal an unexpectedly perfect picture.

When Capt. Bulloch, from his agency at Liverpool, in the summer of 1862, accomplished the extraordinary feat of getting the *Alabama* to sea, in spite of the protests and the evidence of her character submitted by the American Minister, he was in reality killing the goose that laid his golden eggs. The notoriety of the incident, and the strong light that was thrown upon everything and everybody connected with it, exposed Bulloch's methods, while the long vistas of diplomatic controversy which each capture of the cruiser with its accompanying bill for damages opened out to her Majesty's Government, quickened even the Palmerston Ministry to a sense of neutral obligation. Bulloch continued his ship-building, but with many misgivings. Early in 1863 he perceived indications that the completion of the Lairds' rams would be attended with serious difficulty, and the seizure of the *Alexandra* in April increased his apprehensions. The apprehensions proved to be well founded; for though the *Alexandra* was finally released, the protracted trials kept her in durance until she could no longer be of any service, and in the following September the rams were effectually headed off by Mr. Adams's famous ultimatum. Nor was any ship-of-war ever afterwards constructed for the Confederates in England.

Bulloch had originally selected England in preference to France as the locality of his agency, because it afforded greater freedom of action, a cheaper market, and a clearer and surer knowledge of the limitations imposed by the law. The French neutrality proclamation was rigorous in its provisions, and although the Emperor was thought to be well-disposed towards the Confederates, it was likely that his disposition would depend mainly on their failure or success. Bulloch was therefore satisfied to confine his operations to England. In the latter part of 1862, however, when he saw that sooner or later he might be compelled to shift his ground, the urgent representations of Slidell, the Confederate Commissioner in Paris, led him to turn to the Continent. Slidell's report was more than encouraging. He had received most positive assurances from the highest sources that the naval projects of the Confederates would not be interfered with in France, and that any plausible representation of the builders, holding out a fictitious destination of the vessels, would be accepted by the Government.

The Cabinet at Richmond eagerly concurred in Slidell's views. Secretary Mallory of the Navy Department would thus be enabled to get his ships, and Secretary Benjamin of the State Department looked for a still more important advantage in the prospect of embroiling France with the United States. The authorization to proceed with the ships was accordingly despatched to Bulloch. The plan could not be carried out immediately, as the finances of the Confederacy were passing through one of those critical stages which unavoidably recurred at intervals, and the funds in the Liverpool Sub-Treasury were at a low ebb. In the spring of 1863, however, the Erlanger loan was floated. The method by which this was done is tersely described by Mr. Bigelow, who gives Mason's London despatches as his *pièces justificatives*. From these it appears that Mason, upon the advice of Erlanger, who was placing the bonds, authorized the latter to expend £1,500,000, or half the total amount of the loan, in "bulling" the market, in consequence of which fictitious operation the bonds advanced 4¼ per cent.

Bulloch now had money enough to begin, and in April he concluded a contract for four corvettes with Arman, a shipbuilder of Bordeaux. Arman, like Laird in England, was a member of the Legislature, and something of a personage, or at least on friendly terms with personages, and he too had secured his assurances. Accordingly, his application for permission to build the four steamers, with batteries of fourteen thirty-pounder guns, for trade in the Pacific, obtained a cordial assent from the Minister of Marine, whose professional intelligence

apparently received no shock at learning that merchant steamers required this formidable protection against the pirates of the China Seas. Emboldened by their success, and by renewed "assurances," Slidell and Bulloch made a further contract with Arman in June, for two heavily armored rams. Work on the six vessels began immediately after the closing of the contracts, two of the corvettes being sublet to M. Voruz, a shipbuilder of Nantes.

Until Mr. Bigelow brought to light the Confederate archives at Washington, no one, except the parties directly concerned, knew exactly what was the nature of the "assurances" received by Slidell, upon which he and Bulloch acted. Even Bulloch was ignorant of them, or at least professed to be, when he published his history in 1884. Mr. Bigelow's documents tell the whole story, and they tell it in Slidell's own words. Apart from its intrinsic interest as the history of Confederate diplomacy, it throws a valuable side-light upon the character and methods of the Emperor—methods which present a singular mixture of candor and duplicity, actuated solely by self-interest. First and last, he gave Slidell three interviews. The Confederate Commissioner knew his man, and in the conferences used little subterfuge. In fact, the unblushing directness in which these two—the "high concocting parties," as Mr. Bigelow aptly terms them—unmasked themselves in their negotiations, is not the least remarkable among the extraordinary revelations of the book. In the second interview, at St. Cloud, in October, 1862, the Emperor himself led up to the subject of ship-building by asking why the Confederates had not created a navy. Slidell promptly replied that the Southern leaders had not at the start favored a naval development, but that they now saw their error, and were endeavoring to correct it by building vessels; "that the great difficulty was, not to build, but to man and arm them, under the existing regulations for the preservation of neutrality; that if the Emperor would give only some kind of verbal assurance that his police would not observe too closely when we wished to put on board guns and men, we would gladly avail ourselves of it." To which the Emperor replied, with delightful candor, "Why could you not have them built as for the Italian Government? I do not think it would be difficult, but *I will consult the Minister of Marine about it.*"

It would be hard to find, in the annals of modern statecraft, a parallel for this monumental piece of imperial knavery. At this very time the Emperor, through his Ministers, was making professions to the United States of the strictest neutrality, as indeed his proclamation, apart from any further assurances, sufficiently indicated; while in a private interview with the Confederate Commissioner he was assenting to the baldest propositions for its violation, and even volunteering to consult his Minister as to the subterfuge by which his own edict could be safely evaded, and the conditions upon which he would himself connive at the evasion!

The third interview between Slidell and the Emperor occurred eight months later, in June, 1863, about the time that the contract for the rams was concluded. The same agreeable frankness was maintained between them in reference to the ship-building conspiracy. Indeed, Slidell's report of the interview treats the question rather as a matter of course, a thing touched upon by the way, about which the most perfect understanding should exist, and in fact existed. "I expressed my thanks to him," so his narrative reads, "for his sanction of the contracts made for the building of the four ships-of-war at Bordeaux and Nantes. I then informed him that we were prepared to build several ironclad ships-of-war, and that it only required his verbal assurance that they should be allowed to proceed to sea under the Confederate flag, to enter into contracts for that purpose. He said that we might build the ships, but it would be necessary that their destination should be concealed." At this Slidell demurred a little, but presently withdrew his point; and thus this precious agreement was concluded, by which the Emperor, who had by proclamation forbidden his subjects "to concur in any manner in the equipment or armament of ships-of-war" of either belligerent, secretly consented to the delivery of "several" ironclads to the Confederate agents, on the sole condition that the scheme should not be found out.

Unfortunately for the success of the conspiracy, the agents were unable to fulfil the conditions. Two months after the bargain was completed, and when the construction of the six ships was well advanced, Mr. Bigelow, at this time the Consul-General of the United States at Paris, received a visit from a man whom he designates as "M. X." "M. X." appears to have been one of those professional spies who make a substantial living in Europe as political "fences"—receivers of stolen goods in the way of State secrets. This gentleman, in the prosecution of his worthy occupation, had become possessed of a series of original letters and papers which had passed between Arman, Voruz, Slidell, Bulloch, and Erlanger in reference to the ships, which he offered to dispose of to Mr. Bigelow for 20,000 francs. As the documents were clearly genuine and the proof they contained overwhelming, and as the proposed fleet, if it ever got to sea, would work untold mischief to this country, Mr. Bigelow wisely concluded that the information was cheap at the price—in fact, it would have been cheap at almost any price—and closed at once. The documents were delivered to Mr. Dayton, the American Minister, and were by him immediately laid before M. Drouyn de Lhuys, the Minister of Foreign Affairs.

Never was there a more complete exposure. The correspondence proved beyond the shadow of a doubt that a gigantic scheme was on foot to create a Confederate fleet in direct violation of the prohibitions of the French neutrality laws and of the Emperor's proclamation. The circumstances could not fail to suggest a suspicion that the Government itself was compromised. About this, of course, nothing was said in Mr. Dayton's protest. M. Drouyn de Lhuys affected great surprise at the revelation, and perhaps not without reason, for he was probably not aware of the full extent of the Emperor's complicity. He at once assured Mr. Dayton that the ships would not be permitted to sail, and he presently caused the withdrawal of the authorization given by the Minister of Marine. He even went so far in carrying out his part in the diplomatic opéra bouffe as gently to upbraid his colleague for having given the permission, to which the latter innocently replied that he "was obliged to believe the statement of the contractor that the vessels were for service in the China Seas, and it was well known that vessels in these waters required a certain armament."

Meanwhile the Emperor kept prudently in the background. Obviously it would have been wise for the Confederate Commissioner to have done likewise. He had nothing to complain of, for the Emperor had done all that he had promised, and the exposure of the plot had made it impossible for him to go further, as indeed he had cautioned Slidell beforehand. But this, apparently, Slidell could not understand, and, with an almost inconceivable effrontery, he addressed a letter to the Emperor, intimating that the imperial Ministers, without their master's knowledge, were interfering with the ships, and expressing "entire confidence" that his Majesty, upon learning the fact, "will take the necessary steps to prevent it"; which, he, Slidell, was unable to do, owing to the confidential character of the Emperor's communications to him. He added that he was induced to write, because the subject involved "not only vital interests of the Government which he represents, but very grave and delicate personal responsibilities for himself." The letter, as might be expected, failed of its object, and, as Mr. Bigelow suggests, it is not surprising that Slidell never had another official interview with the Emperor.

There is little doubt that Napoleon III., even after the affair was exposed, would have been willing enough to let the ships go, if the Confederacy had shown any signs of increasing strength; not on account of the "delicate personal responsibilities" of any individual, but because it accorded with his policy. He coquetted with the question for six months, during which the building went on, until finally Mr. Seward sent a sharp despatch which demanded immediate attention. The contractors were then ordered to sell the ships, and in a short time all of them had been disposed of to foreign governments. One ram, the *Stonewall*, was sold to Denmark, and subsequently came into Bulloch's possession, but under circumstances for which France could not be held responsible. She was too late to be of any use to the Confederacy, and was laid up at Havana, and ultimately delivered to the United States.

This is in substance the remarkable story that Mr. Bigelow has to tell, and he has told it well. In form, his book is primarily a documentary study, three-fourths of its space being taken up by official papers; but the author's narrative, drawn largely from his personal experience, and enlivened with much caustic observation and incisive comment, connects the documents and fills out the gaps in the story. In this way he has produced a work which is not only of the first importance to students, but full of interest for everybody; while it has the special merit of giving his personal views, and at the some time presenting *in extenso* the evidence upon which the views are founded.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Story of an African Farm. By Ralph Iron (Olive Schreiner). Boston: Cupples & Hurd; and Roberts Bros.

With the Immortals. By F. Marion Crawford. Macmillan & Co.

An Iceland Fisherman. By Pierre Loti, Translated from the French by Clara Cadiot. W. S. Gottsberger.

It is no longer an open question whether the novelist shall be at once a story-teller, a critic of life, and an authoritative commentator on its primitive mystery. He and the public have settled that controversy, and he is now an autocratic judge of his own proper license and limitation. So it has come to pass that, no matter what incidental distractions the novelist who appeals to intelligence may permit himself, he elects chiefly to discourse with gravity on the beginnings of things, and to interpret sagely the humanly unknowable. Since the choice is his own, he doubtless gets much gratification out of the pose philosophical; but it sometimes seems as if the public had sold him a precious

birthright, had bartered one of its few harmless joys for a mess of pottage which, just as likely as not, turns out both heavy and sour. Yet the public is, on the whole, singularly slow to perceive the inferior quality of its pottage, and the novelist must be the blindest of leaders if he fail to secure temporary adherents to his conclusions about life and death and immortality, or worshippers for the moment of his unrecognized inconclusiveness. Should he have power and charm, hardly any one will find out that, with all his fine phrasing, he has not solved any one of the riddles of existence. His apparent solutions are adopted enthusiastically, and for a day he wears the honors due to him who has at last found truth.

Thus, if the world were not fickle and variable, most of all in its superficial religious heresies, the novelist might become responsible for much of what orthodoxy decries as stubborn and harmful error; and if the people who discover in the gloom of 'The Story of an African Farm' a finished exposition of the Ultimate were not sure to find it in greater perfection somewhere else, next month, there would be good cause for legal restriction of novelists to the field of sentimental romance. For the thought in the book, though strong, is not wide, and the truth towards which the author gropes is presented most clearly to her in a form graceless, hard, and repellant. There is no roundness or completeness in what seems to be the utterance of an eager, restless, joyless mind, thinking aloud, without any definite conception of finality, much less predetermined conviction. There is no more of breadth in the argument than in the characters of the story, and no more of conclusiveness than of continuity and climax in its construction. Story and independent reflection are similarly fragmentary and full of one-sided suggestiveness, and it is curious to observe just where the thought and its expression in action cease to be natural to the characters in their conditions, and become arbitrary assumptions of their creator. In almost all the characters one may discover the dividing line or point, and most clearly in the principals, Waldo and Lyndal.

Waldo is by nature reverential, spiritually imaginative, slow to grasp ideas, faithful to hold, ambitious of opportunities in life, but too visionary and self-distrustful to make them. Body and soul he is subjected to a discipline of tyranny always repressive and often abusive. Disappointment and bitter sorrow pursue him. It is inevitable that such a man, seeing his personal faiths, hopes, and ambitions perish, shall reason: "So perish all faiths, hopes, and ambitions. The struggle and strife of which life consists, mean nothing, for to the man as to the beetle comes the same end—each dies and returns unto dust. Immortality is a myth and God is a lie." So far, the development is the sad work of circumstance and nature; then, in comes the author, and provides Waldo with the philosophy of the Stoics, making him discover blessedness in the serenity of sky and stars, presenting his personal sorrows as needful individual sacrifice for the harmony of the whole.

In the girl, Lyndal, there is still more of the author, and less of the self-confident, untamed, pathetically ignorant child of an African farm. One cannot say that her development is impossible, because impetuous, vigorous woman nature, unrestrained by traditions or ever-watchful conventionalities, and let loose in the world, is an incalculable force. It is pitiable, yet possible, that such a creature should come to degradation through the passion of love. None the less, her cold, pedantic reasoning about her dishonor is abnormal; her treachery towards Emmy, the friend of her childhood, inconceivably mean; and her behavior in some situations monstrous. Altogether, Lyndal is less a possible, actual woman than an illustration of free-thinking run wild. With the bare possibility in view of such moral depravity resulting from liberty of thought and action to women, it is no wonder that conservatism tightens the strings round their minds and souls. Thinking is almost as dependent upon liberty and opportunity as is doing, and it is not altogether irrational to hold that if we never permit woman to think differently from us, she will never dream of doing what we disapprove.

The minor characters are more children of the soil than is either Waldo or Lyndal, and from them one concludes inferentially that, among the author's discouraging theories, that of a certain equality between brutal instincts and earthly happiness has a prominent place. Tant Samie, the gross, selfish, vituperative Boer woman, is a most unpleasantly consistent and realistic incarnation of this dogma, but Bonaparte Blenkins is only a caricature combining the personal loathsomeness of Stiggins and of Squeers, and with none of the ludicrous characteristics which give those gentlemen an excuse for being. To sum up the whole matter, if the African farm were the wide world in miniature, and the people who there come and go largely representative of humanity, then we might as well swing back to the age of cave-dwellers, for a step forward is but a step towards a yawning gulf of black despair; we should be wise to believe that there is a hideous futility about human effort, displayed in whatever direction, and might comfortably settle down to grovel with the beast that perisheth no more than we do. Happily, however, the arid and dreary African farm is not the world, and the people whose miserable lot is cast there have not conceived in the dimmest fashion the infinite possibilities which are man's heritage. The world has indeed dreary spots enough and to spare, and life has its ugly shapes. It is quite possible that the 'Story of an African Farm' may convince some people with pessimistic predisposition that the dreary spot is a comprehensive desert, and the ugly shape the whole of life; therefore it is to be regretted that so much of unquestionable power should not have been restrained until wider experience brought wider knowledge and purer light.

To read 'With the Immortals' is to be present at a prolonged moonlight symposium of select and selected souls. Mr. Crawford does not speculate about whether the soul has a future estate, and, if so, what kind of an estate that may be. He cuts the Gordian knot. After some flimsy and rather doubtful science by way of explanatory preface, he plunges us into a company of "materialized" spirits, and delivers us to the mercy of their immortal tongues. There is audacity in the experiment, and the audacities of the book do not end here. Mr. Crawford, as every one knows, has written a number of good novels, and has displayed great versatility, besides showing himself a much-travelled person; yet his most ardent admirers would hesitate to ascribe to him the keen wit and deep tenderness of Heine, the stern moral sense and ponderous vocabulary of Dr. Johnson, the sensuous grace of Chopin, and the commanding clearness of Julius Cæsar. He has dared to challenge the criticism of high comparisons, for it is to the conversation of such notable dead that we are bidden to attend. They talk about everything on the earth beneath, but preserve an aggravating reticence about the heavens above, whither each at his hour was presumably transported. The picture of the nomadic existence (seeing men though by them unseen, until Chard let loose his artificial thunderbolts and lightning) which they lead in upper air, could not discompose the most timid mortal. To the socially ambitious it may cause a prospective pang, for, lo! there are *sets* in heaven. The idea of wandering for ever and for ever in immensity, coldly excluded from the clique of one's desire, is not without its terrors. On the other hand, there is always the chance of being eternally embraced by the very best society. This is the only interesting fact about existence in space that the "Immortals" vouchsafe to us, perhaps because each is so full of supplementary ideas connected with his earthly calling, but not committed to paper before his exit from the world.

The interest of Mr. Crawford's work lies entirely in comparing the ideas and expressions which he imputes to great men of the past with those set down in their own works and ascribed to them by contemporary writers. For a few chapters this provides a novel and pleasing entertainment, and then becomes very dull. The imitation of Johnson, whose idiosyncracies were neither delicate nor elusive, is admirable, and that of Heine, the spirit of refined contrasts and the essence of subtle irony, is extremely clever. Cæsar has more of pomposity than of the confident dignity which helps to make him an imperial figure, and his everlasting, condescending smile, if once caught by Johnson, would have wrecked the circle's harmony. Mr. Crawford displays familiarity with the life and time of a number of conspicuous men of several countries and ages. He shows himself to be a man of wide reading, a pretty straight thinker, and a lively and independent critic. Probably no one will read his book through, yet there is no reason why it should not rank with Landor's 'Imaginary Conversations,' or be as long referred to by people profoundly ignorant of its contents.

"Pierre Loti's" work illustrates admirably the definition of art as life seen through a temperament. It is among the finest expressions of the realistic movement in literature, for, while the author portrays external life with careful fidelity, he also responds to the throbbing of the great heart of existence and clothes the commonest things with beauty. A nature so tuned to sympathy with mankind is irresistibly drawn towards tragedy, and instinctively lingers in scenes where sorrow treads close on the heels of joy, and where the shadow of death lies heavy across robust life. The 'Iceland Fisherman' is profoundly sad. Quite free from morbidness and artificial gloom, its pain is intrinsic. Its tragedy is not accidental, but the abiding truth for people who dwell by a northern sea and depend on it for existence. Year after year the fishing fleet sails away; but hardly ever does it happen that every boat comes back to port, or that no woman, waiting at home, passes from the anguish of hope deferred to dogged acquiescence or dull despair. The soul of Loti's work is in his identification with the permanent truth of the Breton fisher's life. Should he separate himself from that, we should have a graphic picture of a rough, honest, frugal people, living carelessly and contentedly enough, at close quarters with death; but the heart would remain untouched and the imagination cold. The physical peculiarities of his scenes give opportunity for the display of his rare and versatile descriptive ability, and at times he is marvellously vivid. One can almost feel the *Marie*, scudding before a nor'-wester, through the grey mist that for ever veils the Iceland coast; one can plainly see the spectral bark, *La Reine Berthe*, looming up from the fog, then, wraith-like, fading away. The impression made by the whole sad episode of the

young Sylvestre's voyage to Tonquin can no more be effaced from a sensitive mind than the sound of the wind, sweeping through miles of forest at night, can be lost beyond recall by a sensitive ear.

The translation renders fairly well the spirit of the original, but introduces some novelties in English idiom. We are not accustomed to say that we invent stories "upon" a person, or that we prefer you "than" some one else; and we are trying to educate ourselves beyond the tenacious "different to." The phrase "of when a child" can hardly be considered an improvement on "during childhood," and the spasmodic effort to give the sailor's talk a flavor of illiteracy produces useless discord.

MORE HOLIDAY BOOKS.

Goethe's Faust. From the German by John Anster, LL.D., with an introduction by Burdett Mason. Illustrated by Frank M. Gregory. White & Allen.

The Mirror of the World. By Octave Uzanne, with 160 illustrations by Paul Avril. London: John C. Nimmo.

Gleanings from the "Graphic." By Randolph Caldecott. George Routledge & Sons.

Log-Book Notes Through Life. By Elizabeth N. Little. White & Allen.

The Besom Maker, and Other Country Folk Songs. Collected and illustrated by Heywood Sumner. Longmans, Green & Co.

THE heavy battalions of the army of holiday books are at last in the field. In size and elaborateness the new edition of "Faust," with Mr. Gregory's illustrations, is one of the most imposing books that have appeared of late years. The page is almost gigantic, being 20½ inches by 15, and there are ten photogravure plates in colors, varying somewhat in size and shape within the limits of 15 inches by 9¾, and 18 smaller "process" plates in black and white, besides the title-page and minor decorations. The mechanical execution of the plates is excellent, and the printing of the book, while not as artistic as might be desired, is clear and good. Unfortunately, it must be added that the merit of Mr. Gregory's drawings as works of art is not at all on a level with the ambitious nature of the publication. They are introduced with a solemnity that prepares one for great things. Says Mr. Mason:

"Since the first publication of 'Faust,' it seems to have ever been the theme upon which painters and musicians have tried their skill. In those editions that have hitherto appeared, the greatest of living artists have supplemented them with their illustrations; but, strange as it may seem, it is an absolute fact that until now few efforts have been made to introduce the powerful element of color in portraying the scenes of 'Faust.' . . . In the plates accompanying the present text, the reader will not fail to remark the element of *life* that enters into the subject, and the thoughtful coloring inclines us to hazard the assertion that a new light may be thrown upon the reading of this famous work. . . . Realizing the exceeding great value of accuracy in the details of so important a book, they [the publishers] have sent the artist to the places and scenes in Germany which are so strongly linked with the story of Faust."

After this one is somewhat surprised, in looking through the volume, not to find one novel idea, one composition that is not almost as old as the poem, one detail of costume or furniture that could not be supplied from a hundred New York studios, one bit of background that might not, to all appearance, be copied from the scenery at the first performance of Gounod's opera. Mr. Gregory is not without talent. He possesses, evidently, a very considerable ability in handling water-color; his drawing, if not first-rate, is respectable; and his coloring (in so far as one can judge of it by reproduction) is pleasing if not perceptibly "thoughtful." With this equipment, acceptable work might have been done on a slighter theme: but he is miserably overweighted with his subject, and still more with this most ill-judged introduction. Probably he is responsible for neither, and must suffer for his publisher's sins. We sincerely wish him better luck next time. Let us ask, in conclusion, why no mention is made anywhere between the two covers of the fact that it is only the first part of "Faust" that is here given.

In 'The Mirror of the World' we have another book by MM. Uzanne and Avril, of the type of 'The Fan' and 'The Sunshade'—a type we cordially detest. Each page has its illustration, and each illustration is as irregular in shape as it can be made, and the text is squeezed into the remaining space; sometimes the drawings make an irruption into the margin, and sometimes the text covers half the drawing; sometimes the drawings are printed in red, sometimes in blue, and sometimes they are emblazoned with all the colors known to heraldry, and more than all the metals. M. Avril's designs are exceedingly clever, exceedingly *chic*, and in exceedingly bad taste. M. Uzanne's text is as patchy and *décousu* as the illustrations, and decidedly less clever. The book is luxuriously got up, with a magnificence of paper and printing and a thoroughness of execution worthy of better contents.

It is rather a pity that the 'Gleanings from the *Graphic*' were ever gathered together. They are only the gleanings of the lamented Mr. Caldecott's talent, and the best of his work had already been harvested. There is, of course, some of his old cleverness and humor; but the best of it is not here, and the world would be contented if it had only the best. Every man who has his bread to gain does much work that the world, and he himself, would "willingly let die," and it is a doubtful service to the dead to bring together the waifs and strays of his production. It is only from the feast spread by the greatest that we would gather the crumbs.

'Log-Book Notes' is a collection of sentimental verse from various sources, not printed, but lettered in exceedingly bad taste, and illustrated by feeble and badly executed marine compositions. It is not to be commended.

The racy English country-folk songs collected by Mr. Sumner have a charm in their very rudeness and simplicity; and the naïveté with which sense yields to rhyme or rhyme to sense is delightful. Take, for example:

"His jacket was a deep sky-blue and curly was his hair,
His jacket was a deep sky-blue, *it was, I do declare,*"

or,

"Here's the blackbird and thrush, we will join their sweet song,
We'll be jovial together now harvest is done,"

or the cadence of "Heigh down, ho down, duffle-green petticoat" and "My ducy dulcy officer." The best of all, however, is the last stanza of "The Besom-Maker":

"And when the corn grew up upon its native soil
All like a little baby bright with its waving smile,
Then I bundles up my broom cuts and I binds 'em tight and spare,
And my besoms folks they please 'ems, for I'm the darling of the fair."

This surely smacks of the soil, and its mixture of poetry and impossible grammar is inimitable.

To make his illustrations in keeping with the rusticity of the songs, Mr. Sumner has drawn them in the manner of the old-fashioned wood engraving. In the best of them the imitation is very successful, and they might almost pass for the work of Bewick. They are very uneven in quality, however, and the best are more remarkable for manner than for matter, while the worst are pretty positively bad; but these are few in number, and in the main the archaic style of the drawings harmonizes well with the text. If the lettering had been done in such imitation of old type as Mr. Howard Pyle knows so well how to manage, there would have been little fault to find with the book, which, as it stands, is a very pleasant piece of quaintness. The original music to which the songs are sung is given in every case.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.

IF we had had the ordering of the compilation from Tolstoi called 'The Long Exile, and Other Stories for Children' (T. Y. Crowell & Co.), we should have put at the very end the three parables with which the book opens. At the front should have stood the Fables and Scenes from Common Life, the Early Days, Stories of My Dogs, and Stories from Physics, Zoölogy, and Botany; in the middle, "Yermak, the Conqueror of Siberia" and "Bear-hunting Worse than Slavery"; and next to the last the inimitable "School Scenes at Yasnaya Polyana." By this gradation the young reader's progress would have been greatly facilitated, and a division would have been made between what is obviously "for children" and what is dubiously so. Even in the truly juvenile portion we meet with one passage so painfully real that we barely excuse it for the lesson of humanity and mercy it is meant to inculcate. We refer to the cruel beating of an overridden horse by the narrator himself when a boy (p. 141). There is in this something of the same pitilessness that did not spare us in 'Anna Karénina,' where, after Vronksy has broken the back of his favorite mare in the hurdle race, he kicks her to make her rise.

Quite the most charming portion of the volume is the school episode, so well calculated to make one fall in love with Russian young folks. The freedom in disorder, the earnestness to learn, the frank and sound relation between the sexes, the walks with the teacher through the snow-carpeted wood in the darkness, the rivalry in composition, in which the teacher participates, so that the story must be proclaimed "The Work of Makárof, Morózof, and Tolstóï,"—all this is in the best vein of the novelist and the philanthropist. Any teacher who will read these pages will feel a fresh stimulus at least. We should like to transcribe the whole chapter, but we must confine ourselves to the following pregnant extract, of which we would emphasize the fourth paragraph:

"In the first class we tried compositions written on some given theme. The early themes, which naturally enough first came into our heads, were descriptions of simple objects, such as corn, a cottage, a tree, etc.; but, to our extreme amazement, their labors on these subjects almost brought the tears into the pupils' eyes, and, in spite of the help of the teacher (who divided the description of corn into the description of its growth, or of its manufacture, or about its use), they strenuously refused to write on themes of such a nature, and, if they wrote, they made incomprehensible and most ridiculous mistakes in spelling, in language, and in idea.

"We tried the experiment of giving up compositions on such subjects, and all were as delighted as though we had bestowed a gift upon them. Compositions on so-called simple subjects, so much affected in schools, such as a pig, a kettle, a table, seemed immeasurably more difficult than the writing of stories based on their own experiences.

"One and the same mistake is always repeated, as in all other matters of instruction—the simplest and most common seems to the teacher to be easiest, while to the pupil only the complicated and vivid seems easy.

"All the text-books of natural sciences begin with general principles, text-books of language with definitions, history with divisions into periods, even geometry with definitions of such abstract concepts as space and the mathematical point.

"Almost all teachers, guiding themselves along such a path of thought, give out for their first subjects of composition the definition of a table or a bench, and cannot persuade themselves that for the description of a table or a bench one needs to stand on the very highest plane of philosophical and dialectical development, and that the same lad who is shedding tears over his composition about tables or benches will describe admirably the sentiment of love or hate, the meeting of Joseph and his brethren, or a squabble among his companions.

"The subjects which they best like to write about are the description of events which have taken place under their own eyes, or the repetition of stories which they have heard."

'Stories of Persons and Places in America' (George Routledge & Sons), by Helen Ainslie Wright, is an attempt, by grouping together sketches of historical events with descriptions of historical places, as well as pictures of manners and customs of the colonial days, to give a comprehensive view of this country. This aim is very fairly reached, though the method pursued gives the book a disconnected character and makes it hard to read continuously. It might serve as a text-book provided its errors were corrected. To mention a few of those which we have noted: Quebec is no longer garrisoned by the English; the Pilgrims did not spend "over four months" in exploring Cape Cod for a settlement; Louisiana does not "adjoin" Florida; the assertion that the battle of Lundy's Lane, of which perhaps not one child in a thousand ever heard, "is regarded as one of the greatest events of American history, and has been ranked as, next to Bunker Hill, the most important contest we ever had," is simply amazing. The appearance of the book is attractive, and the illustrations are uniformly good.

A most natural, pleasing, and at times touching story is that of 'Two Little Confederates' by Thomas Nelson Page (Scribners). The scene is laid in a plantation in Old Virginia at the time of the Rebellion, and the adventures described are those of two boys who, though too young to join the army, yet come freely in contact with the excitement, anxiety, privation, and sorrow which war entails. The result is a charming book for children, whether boys or girls.

The world is so well-stocked with fairy-stories that it seems foolish to add to their number unless some originality of design or beauty of execution furnish the new ones with an excuse for being; but to mix up the old machinery with modern ideas does not argue either wit or genius, and is apt to produce a tasteless hodge-podge, where what is silly and grotesque overpowers what is pleasing. An example of this is 'Prince Vance' by Eleanor Putnam and Arlo Bates (Roberts Bros.).

A bright, quaint story by Frances Eaton, otherwise "Sargent Flint," is called 'A Queer Princess and her Friends.' The "Princess" is a motherless little girl brought up by an adoring circle of elders. Queer and precocious she is, but also sweet and lovable. Her playmate and house-mate, Dick, a poor boy educated and cared for by Miss Minerva, an eccentric aunt of the "Princess," is a noble little fellow, but too refined for his antecedents. Various other child-figures add to the drollery and charm of the book, among whom Miss Flora is the greatest oddity. The story seems long-drawn-out, being a succession of scenes rather than a brisk narrative, and the style is peculiar; but the humor, good sense, and warm-hearted feeling make us forget the faults of the book.

The publishers are D. Lothrop Co., who also give us 'Romulus and Remus,' by Charles Remington Talbot. This is an amusing story of two dogs, which look so exactly alike as greatly to puzzle their respective owners. Many laughable situations arise from the mistakes made.

Children between six and twelve years will be delighted with 'Sparrow, the Tramp,' by Lily Wesselhoeft (Roberts Bros.). In this the animals and birds of a household, and an outsider in the shape of a sparrow, are made to hold converse with each other, and to make plans for defeating the mischief of Graywhis ker, the rat, and so forth. It is brightly and prettily told.

The name of Nora Perry is always a guarantee of pleasant reading, and such we find in 'The Youngest Miss Lorton and Other Stories' (Ticknor & Co.). Full of variety and vivacity, imbued with good sense and kindly feeling, these stories are not only attractive, but also well adapted to sow good seed in the mind of girlhood.

Another pleasant book for girls is Susan Coolidge's 'Clover' (Roberts Bros.), a sequel to the "Katy" books. It is something of a novelette, as it describes the wedding of one young lady and the lovers of another. Probably few of its readers will object to the heroine for being faultless, or to the story in general for being mainly compounded of sugar-plums.

'Little People, and their Homes in Meadows, Woods, and Waters,' by Stella Louise Hook (Scribners), is an attempt to convey some elementary information about insects and spiders to children under the very thin disguise of fairies, brownies, and the like. We believe in fairy stories, well told and unadulterated; and there can be no question that, for most children, the facts of natural history, so interesting and wonderful in themselves, have a perennial charm. But the two kinds of literature mix about as well as oil and water. Brought into an unnatural juxtaposition, the fairy tale is apt to seem silly, and the facts more or less fictitious. At all events, we have never seen an attempt at such a combination, and their name is legion, which was not unsatisfactory and distasteful. The present work is no exception to the rule. It contains a vast number of very interesting and, for the most part, authentic data about which it treats. If the unwise attempt to combine two incompatibles had not been made, if the stories of the various insects had been frankly and naturally told, it would have deserved, and perhaps have attained, gratifying success; under the circumstances, however, it is impossible to recommend it unreservedly, though this conclusion is arrived at with regret. Still, the mythical infusion is not very strong, and perhaps may be ignored by youthful readers. The illustrations, though a little scratchy, are fairly good. They suffer by the absence of any explanatory legend on the pages where they are printed, with one or two exceptions. It is tormenting to have to go back to a table of contents for such information. The typography is good and the binding neat, but there is no index.

The events of the year 1863 are the subject of Mr. C. C. Coffin's 'Marching to Victory' (Harper's), the second of the volumes devoted to the history of the Civil War. The greater part is necessarily taken up with an account of the military operations; but those civil events, both at home and abroad, directly connected with the war, are also intelligently treated. The author's descriptions of the great battles, especially those of which he was an eye-witness, are exceedingly spirited. He would have given a better idea of each battle as a whole, however, if many of the minor details, such as the movements and fortunes of each separate brigade engaged, had been omitted. Due credit has been given to the valor and patriotism of the Confederates, and, but for a few passages where the author's feelings have got the better of his judgment, the book will give its readers a clear conception of the magnitude of the contest, and at the same time inspire in them a true pride in the men, both North and South, who fought it. Numerous illustrations, maps, and an index add to the value and attractiveness of the volume.

The Mapleson Memoirs. 1848-1888. 2 vols. Belford, Clarke & Co.

In these two oddly named volumes we find an odd account of an odd career, and we get a "mental photograph" of an odd character. Before Mr. Mapleson, Ebers had written 'Seven Years at the King's Theatre,' and Lumley had recorded his reminiscences of the London opera; but neither of these earlier managers was as pleasantly humorous, as frankly cynical, or as amazingly impudent as the author of the 'Mapleson Memoirs.' The one book with which we thought for a moment to compare these volumes was Véron's 'Mémoires d' un Bourgeois de Paris'—and there are not a few points of analogy; but Véron was a man and a manager of another kind from Mr. Mapleson. In the main, Véron was telling the truth to the best of his ability, while Mr. Mapleson's account of his own haps and mishaps must be received as largely fiction—like the memoirs of that other amusing adventurer, Giacomo Casanova de Seingalt. In the present taste for scandal, for gossip, for personal details, these volumes ought to be popular, as their author abounds in anecdote, and he has an unequalled faculty of "giving away" everybody against whom he has a grudge. His rivals, Mr. Gye in England and Mr. Abbey in America, he hates heartily, and he assails them in season and out of season; but he reserves his sharpest stiletto for the artists who have sung under his management in Italian opera. Men and women, tenors and sopranos, are all etched by the acid of his maliciousness. If there be any who yet cling to this outworn form of musical art, we can recommend them to these volumes, that they may see what little wisdom goes to the performing of Italian opera. A tenor picked up at the door by accident, a tenor who had never read the part which he was suddenly induced to appear in, a tenor who had not the faintest idea as to the plot of the play or the meaning of the part he had been performing with success—these are the figures Mr. Mapleson sets before us, and it is with such as these that he has been giving Italian opera in Great Britain and the United States for many years. If anything were needed to show the inartistic nature of Italian opera as it lingers to-day, these revelations of one of the chief speculators in that form of amusement ought to suffice. He tells us, for instance, that Mme. Patti and Mme. Nilsson absolutely stipulate in their engagements that they shall not be expected to attend rehearsals; and he informs us that not infrequently one of the singers who appears with Mme. Patti may never have met her until they stand before the public, and that a third singer sometimes ingeniously contrives to introduce the newcomer to the lyric star in the course of the early scenes of the opera. The petty rivalries and the childish caprices of world-renowned singers surpass belief—the basses and contraltos being relatively saner and soberer than the tenors and sopranos, for

whom no freak of irresponsible eccentricity seems too extravagant.

Perhaps one of Mr. Mapleson's paragraphs may fairly serve as a specimen :

"Some rude critics having declared of Signor Fancelli's singing that it would have been better if he had made a regular study of the vocal art, he spoke to me seriously about taking lessons. But he declared that he had no time, and that, as he was making money by singing in the style to which he was accustomed, it would be better to defer studying until he had finished his career, when he would have plenty of leisure" (ii., 288).

Mr. Mapleson is at all times delightfully British in his patronizing attitude towards America, although he has a faculty for blundering about American matters, phenomenal even in an Englishman. He was pleased with his reception here, and he repeatedly asserts that he and his company, on their arrival in American cities, were greeted by thousands of citizens accompanied by military bands. Curiously enough, he omits to tell us that the President of the United States met him on the dock, or that he was escorted to his hotel by the entire American army. Perhaps this omission will be rectified in the next edition, when it would be well, also, to correct the many misprints. There is an index of proper names, which is a most welcome appendage to a book as full of anecdotes as this.

History of the Christian Church. By Philip Schaff. Vol. VI. History of the Reformation. Vol. I. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The present volume of Dr. Schaff's History treats of that period which is commonly called the Era of the Reformation. It begins with Luther and goes as far as the Diet of Augsburg, a period of only thirteen years. The last volume before this, the fourth, carried the history of the Church only to the beginning of the great war of the Investitures in the year 1073. This leaves, therefore, somewhat more than 400 years to be handled in the fifth volume, if Dr. Schaff should ever see fit to address himself to that task. This enormous disproportion will always be a source of regret to all those who believe, as we do, that Dr. Schaff's book is, on the whole, as far as it has gone, altogether the best book on church history for the use of students. The wide learning and broad sympathies of the author make his earlier volumes indispensable to any reader of English who desires to get the latest word on the great questions involved. The abundant references to literature, contemporary and modern, are perhaps the most valuable feature of the whole work.

Why Dr. Schaff, with many years of vigorous life before him, should have made so long a skip from the eleventh to the sixteenth century, may be guessed from the first words of this sixth volume : "The Reformation of the sixteenth century is, next to the introduction of Christianity, the greatest event in history." The Reformation means to him the outbreak under the lead of Luther and Calvin, and its history seems to him, therefore, a thing that can be properly told by itself. This is a point of view in which he has the example of most of the older writers on the subject, but it is one which we hoped the great work of Canon Creighton had definitely made an end of. The real interest of the Reformation to the historian is not in the outbreak so much as in the long preparation for it. The principles of the Reformation were all distinctly enunciated long before Luther ; and his true position in history is not as the great originator, but as the fiery and often inconsequent leader of the people, who dared to put into a telling, popular form ideas which were already struggling for expression.

That Dr. Schaff should have allowed himself to be governed by this view is the more to be regretted because the earlier writers, influenced, perhaps, by the same considerations, have always treated the period immediately before the time of Luther in a decidedly stepmotherly fashion. It is next to impossible to recommend to students a good book on the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. The greater dramatic interest of the following period has drawn popular attention away from a time which, if we are seeking for the really fertile age of the new ideas, is distinctly more interesting.

The best justification for Dr. Schaff's choice, however, is in the fact that he has given us a book decidedly more useful to the student than any other history of the Reformation with which we are acquainted. His personal enthusiasm for the character of Luther lends a warmth to his presentation which does not detract from its value as (on the whole) a very accurate one. He sees the faults of his hero, but he regards them as those of a man who was too much of a man not to have great faults. The work has especial interest as the first Protestant history which has met the attacks of Janssen in detail. Answers to Janssen there have been enough ; but a complete history, written by a Protestant with this latest attack in view, had not yet been written. Our author's attitude towards his opponent is dignified and fair-minded. He admits his great learning and his desire to get at "historical truth" ; but he denies his point of view from the start, and, with that denial, must reject his conclusions.

To say that this is a great or an original book would be extravagant praise. It is, however, a true and a useful book.

Montesquieu. By Albert Sorel. Translated by Melville B. Anderson and Edward Playfair Anderson. [The Great French Writers.] Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1888.

M. Sorel's study of Montesquieu is one of those pieces of literary criticism, so common now-a-days in French literature, which suggest many more questions than they answer. It is an *aperçu*, the object of which is to make a sketch, to present a picture, to give us an idea of a man, without committing the author to any particular views, or involving his judgment in serious responsibility. The fashion was set, not, as many people seem to suppose, by Sainte-Beuve — for every word uttered by Sainte-Beuve was weighty and to the point—but by a race of imitators, who failed to perceive that his manner was nothing without what lay behind it. M. Sorel does his work very well. He gives us a fair notion of what Montesquieu did, but he does not contribute much that is new. We knew before that Montesquieu was one of the pioneers of modern political philosophy; that he helped, without knowing or intending it, to pave the way for the French Revolution; and we strongly suspected that a great deal of his speculation was wholly groundless, or, rather, that the groundwork of his speculation was often flimsy and unsubstantial. Perhaps the exhibition of this weakness is the best part of M. Sorel's work.

If we ask ourselves, What did the 'Esprit des Lois' contribute to political philosophy? we do not feel very confident of more than one thing, and that one certainly of great interest to American students—the idea of the separation of the three departments of government, entirely undreamt of in the ancient world or in the middle ages, now a commonplace fact. This is one of the great political discoveries of history, as important as the representative principle or the laws of political economy. It is a curious fact that almost all the advances in political science of any importance have been made since Montesquieu's time, and to a great extent because he pointed out the way.

But what we should like to have is, not a vague impression of all this, but a definite estimate of Montesquieu's position. Was he anything more than a skilful describer of what he saw, or was he an original thinker? Was what he learned in England thought so striking on the Continent because it was strange, or because, by a comparison of French and English polity, he really brought out a contrast pregnant with political meaning? Did he owe his vogue in great measure to his literary qualities and his social position? No one can answer these questions satisfactorily but a master of the philosophy of government. A purely literary estimate will not do. We do not by any means desire to condemn M. Sorel's essay. It is very pleasant and easy reading, and has a slight individuality of style which the translators have succeeded in preserving very well.

Die Italienische Literatur der Renaissancezeit. Von Adolf Gaspary, Professor an der Universität Breslau. Berlin : Robert Oppenheim. 1888.

The writer on classic Italian literature has to complain rather of the abundance than of the scantiness of his material. So popular has the study of the national authors become with Italians of our generation, that even while a student writes, vast quantities of fresh pamphlets are incessantly accumulating, until the work of revision seems almost endless. The apparent hopelessness of the task, however, has not deterred two competent teachers from giving a connected form to the results of modern investigation. The one, Bartoli, a scholar whose taste for original research has been favored by his position in the University of Florence, began publishing in 1878 his great 'Storia della Letteratura Italiana,' of which he has now produced seven volumes (one of them unfinished), devoting the seventh to Petrarch. The other, Gaspary, a man of good judgment and philosophical bent, but forced by his situation to rely mainly on the works of others, has mastered his subject with admirable thoroughness. He brought out, over three years ago, the first volume of his 'Geschichte der Italienischen Literatur' (largely the result of his lectures in Berlin), and now offers us the second, a study of the Renaissance.

The new volume begins with Boccaccio, and should have carried us to Tasso; but three chapters on the sixteenth century, treating respectively of the *novella*, of the treatise, dialogue, and letter, and of history and biography, were crowded out of this part and left over for the third. Whole chapters are given to Boccaccio, Bembo, Ariosto, Castiglione, and Pietro Aretino; one chapter deals with Poliziano and Lorenzo de' Medici, another with Pulci and Bojardo, another with Pontano and Sannazaro, still another with Machiavelli and Guicciardini. Thus the work of each of the great masters is presented in its entirety. The writings of the less important authors are, on the other hand, assigned to their proper places in the chapters on "The Successors of the Great Florentines," "The Humanists of the Fifteenth Century," "The Vulgar Tongue in the Fifteenth Century and its Literature," "Lyrical Poetry in the Sixteenth Century," "Heroic Poetry in the Sixteenth Century,"

"Tragedy," and "Comedy." Since, however, the influence of the masters is traced in the productions of their followers, and the works of the minor authors receive some attention in the chapters devoted to the leaders, the whole book seems, in spite of its arrangement, to form an uninterrupted history of literary development in Italy. This appearance of unity could not, of course, be obtained if the author's language were at all clumsy or disconnected; but Gaspary displays here, as in the first volume, a wonderful gift of easy transition, and a clear, graceful, natural style, which makes every part of the subject appear in its proper light, and renders the book an attractive one, not only for specialists, but for all readers who have the least interest in letters.

Four Years with the Army of the Potomac. By Regis De Trobriand, Brevet-Major-General U. S. Vols. Translated by George K. Dauchy. With Portrait and Maps. 8vo., pp. xix, 757. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

THE original book by General De Trobriand was written in French and published in Paris soon after the close of the civil war. The translation by Lieut. Dauchy is exceptionally well done, and the publishers have brought the English edition out in excellent style. The author was a French resident of New York when the war began, and became Colonel of the Fifty-fifth New York Volunteers, known as the French Regiment. His service was wholly in the Army of the Potomac in the Third and afterwards in the Second Corps. His opportunities for observing were good, and he has told his experience in a very lively and attractive way. Written for European readers, the book is more full in general explanation of the causes of the Rebellion and the political phases of the struggle than would have been necessary if it had been intended for American use; but even in this part of his work the author is never dull. The most valuable and interesting matter is, of course, the personal narrative of experience.

The chapters upon the organization of the volunteer regiments in this city, the first lessons in camp life at Washington, the transfer to Fortress Monroe, the siege of Yorktown, and the battle of Williamsburg, are very telling and vivid pictures of those events. They carry with them such internal evidence of the sincerity of the author that they are authoritative and fully trustworthy. General De Trobriand was prostrated with the Chickahominy fever soon after the advance towards Richmond, and his sufferings are made to add to our knowledge of the vicissitudes of military life. His account of the practical working of the Sanitary Commission and of the devoted, untiring labors of its officers in the field, from Mr. F. L. Olmsted down, is one of the very best in print. The picture of the noble women at their work upon the hospital boats at White-House stirs one's heart to-day as if the event was of yesterday.

The author's personal estimate of the prominent men with whom he came in contact is also useful, as supplying traits of character and individual peculiarities which help us to give living substance to the important actors in the great contest. The part which suffers most by lapse of time is the general criticism of campaigns, and the apportionment of merit and blame among those in highest responsibility, both military and civil. Our means of adequate judgment to-day are many fold greater than they were in 1865; even a general of brigade had, at that time, to jump at conclusions, whenever the subject was beyond the scope of his personal knowledge. The spirit of the book is a fair and candid one, though the author was not without personal prejudices, and it is a record of honorable service in a stirring military career.

Lectures on Geography, delivered before the University of Cambridge during the Lent Term, 1888, by Lieut.-Gen. R. Strachey, President of the Royal Geographical Society. Pages 211. Macmillan & Co. 1888.

THE four lectures printed in this volume were evidently intended to call the attention of university students to the science of geography rather than to give them any detailed information concerning that extensive subject. Gen. Strachey's presentation of the general facts of geographic science is well calculated to accomplish the end he had in view. In the first chapter he gives an excellent summary of the steps in the progress of the knowledge by which geography came to be at once a science and an art. The remainder of the book is devoted to that part of the earth science which now receives the general name of Physiography. The operation of physical forces on terrestrial phenomena, the influence of the form and movements of the earth, as well as of the external features, on the condition of organic life, is in the main the theme of the three succeeding lectures. In all that relates to the application of geographic science to the interests of man, Gen. Strachey is a distinguished master of his subject, and therefore this little book, though it contains less than 50,000 words, is worth the attention of the many persons who desire to obtain authoritative short accounts of the several sciences.

The critic who seeks a point upon which to hang objections could find it in the failure of the author to dwell on the geological side of geographic history. The best results of modern geographic inquiry consist in the body of knowledge which has been gained concerning the history of continental growth. There is no subject better suited to catch the attention of university students than this, for the reason that it calls for the constructive imagination which it is the first function of academic training to develop, and it serves in an admirable manner to aid in the training of that faculty. Although our author touches upon the hypothesis of geological evolution, it does not seem to the present writer that he makes sufficient use of this department of knowledge.

The style of the book is generally good. There are a few unreasonably long parenthetical sentences, which leave the reader a little in doubt as to the author's meaning. This difficulty probably arises from printing lectures as they were delivered, when accent could qualify the phrase in a way beyond the power of punctuation. The book is excellently printed, but there is unhappily no index and a very insufficient table of contents. This is the more to be regretted as certain parts of the work have a decided value for students.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alcott, A. B. Ralph Waldo Emerson. 2d ed. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $1.50.
Allen, A. The Heart of Don Vega. Westerly, R. I.: George C. Champlin.
Barron, E. A. The Viking. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Bernhardt, W. German Novelettes for School and Home. Vol. II. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Bliss, W. R. Colonial Times on Buzzard's Bay. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Burt, B. C. A Brief History of Greek Philosophy. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.25.
Corning, C. R. Aalesund to Tetuan: A Journey. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $2.
Dimond, Mary B. A Handbook for the Pilgrims: Thoughts by the Way. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 75 cents.
Encyclopædia Britannica. 9th ed. Vol. XXIV. and last. Ura—Zym. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Fillmore, J. C. Lessons in Musical History. Philadelphia: Theodore Presser.
Fitzgibbon, H. M. Early English and Scotch Poetry. 1250–1300. White & Allen. $1.25.
Freer, Martha W. Henry III., King of France and Poland. 3 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. $7.50.
Grimm, Prof. H. Life of Raphael. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $2.
Haggard, H. R. Colonel Quaritch, V. C. A Tale of Country Life. George Munro.
Heald, Sarah E. Mother Kate and the Brownies. Philadelphia: Sunshine Publishing Co.
Kendall, H. The Kinship of Men: An Argument from Pedigrees; or, Genealogy Viewed as a Science. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $2.
Lanman, Prof. C. R. A Sanskrit Reader: With Vocabulary and Notes. Parts I., II., and III. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Law, E. The History of Hampton Court Palace. Vol. II. Stuart Times. Illustrated. London: George Bell & Sons.
Lowe, R. W. An Apology for the Life of Colley Cibber, Written by Himself. New ed. 2 vols. London: J. C. Nimmo.
Mathews, W. S. B. New Musical Miscellanies. Vol. II. How to Understand Music. Philadelphia: Theodore Presser.
McMaster, J. B., and Stone, F. D. Pennsylvania and the Federal Constitution, 1787–1788. Philadelphia: Historical Society of Pennsylvania.
Morse, Lucy Gibbons. The Chezzles: A Story. Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Murray, W. H. H. Daylight Land. Illustrated. Boston: Cupples & Upham.
Nye—Riley. Railway Guide. Illustrated. Chicago: The Dearborn Publishing Co. $1.
Parker, r. J. The People's Bible: Discourses upon Holy Scripture. Vol IX. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.50.
Personal Memoirs of P. H. Sheridan, General United States Army. 2 vols. Charles L. Webster & Co.
Reeder, A. P. Around the Golden Deep: A Romance of the Sierras. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $1.50.
Robertson, Prof. E. S. The Children of the Poets: An Anthology from English and American Writers of Three Centuries. White & Allen. $1.25.
Sharp, W. Sonnets of This Century. White & Allen. $1.25.
Sharp, Mrs. William. Songs and Poems of the Sea. White & Allen. $1.25.
Sharp, Mrs. William. Women's Voices: An Anthology of the Most Characteristic Poems of English, Scotch, and Irish Women. White & Allen. $1.25.
Shorthouse, J. H. The Countess Eve. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Simon, J. Victor Cousin. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Sladen, D. B. W. A Century of Australian Song. White & Allen. $1.25.
Sparling, H. H. Irish Minstrelsy: A Selection of Irish Songs, Lyrics, and Ballads. White & Allen. $1.25.
Stanley, Dean A. P. Historic Memorials of Canterbury. First Am. ed. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $3.
Stevens, Agnes. How Men Propose, etc. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Sylva, C. A Heart Regained: A Novel. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $1.
Taylor, L. Chess: A Christmas Masque. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
The Thoughts of the Emperor M. Aurelius Antoninus. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Thomas, C. Goethe's Torquato Tasso. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Tolstoi, Count L. N. What to Do? Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 50 cents.
Tomson, G. R. Ballads of the North Countrie. White & Allen. $1.25.
Two Gentlemen of Boston: A Novel. 5th ed. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 50 cents.
Underhill, H. G. Easy Exercises in Greek Accidence. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Upton, G. P. The Standard Symphonies: Their History, their Music, and their Composers. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Uzanne, O. The Mirror of the World. Illustrations by Paul Avril. London: John C. Nimmo. 31s. 6d.
Van Daell, A. Träumereien. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Van Daell, Dr. A. N. Heine's Die Harzreise. Boston: Charles H. Kilborn. 25 cents.
Van Santvoord, H. Half-Holidays, Elysian Dreams, and Sober Realities. John B. Alden Co. 75 cents.
Verrall—Bayfield. The "Seven Against Thebes" of Æschylus. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Von Eichendorff, J. F. Leaves from the Life of a Good-for-Nothing. Translated by Mrs. Wister. Illustrated. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $5.
Waddington, S. Sacred Song: A Volume of Religious Verse. White & Allen. $1.25.
Waddington, S. The Sonnets of Europe. With Notes. White & Allen.
Walker, Dr. T. Journal of an Exploration in the Spring of the Year 1750. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Wallace, L. The Boyhood of Christ. Harper & Bros.
Walsh, W. S. Paradoxes of a Philistine. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Ward, Mrs. Humphry. Miss Brotherton. Rand, McNally & Co.
Ward, Mrs. Humphry. Robert Elsmere. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Warner, C. D. On Horseback: A Tour in Virginia, North Carolina, and Tennessee. With Notes of Travel in Mexico and California. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Warwick Brookes's Pictures of Child Life. With Biographical Reminiscences by T. Letherbrow. $1.25.
Waugh, Ida. Bonny Cairns: Verses by Amy Ella Blanchard. Worthington Co.
Werner, E. Danira. Translated by M. J. Safford. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Wheeler, H. N. Second Lessons in Arithmetic. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 60 cents.
White, Margaret E. After Noontide. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Whitman, W. November Boughs. Philadelphia: David McKay.
Whittier, J. G. His Writings. In 7 vols. Vols. I.—IV. Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50 per volume.
Wide Awake. Vol. V. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.75.
Wiggin, Kate D. The Birds' Christmas Carol. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents.
Wight, O. W. People and Countries Visited in a Winding Journey around the World. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Wistach, J. A. The Divine Comedy of Dante. Translated into English Verse, with Notes. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Winter, W. Wanderers. Boston: Ticknor & Co.
Wood, J. G. Natural History Readers. No. V. Boston School Supply Co.

Fine Arts.

THE AUTUMN EXHIBITION AT THE ACADEMY.

We are not accustomed to expect much that is remarkable at the autumn exhibitions at the Academy. It is something to be thankful for each year if the autumn exhibition proves to be in any way better than its predecessors. So much may be said of the exhibition this year, not because of a more general excellence than usual (for the bulk of the work shown is about as cheap and uninteresting as it well could be), but because certain notable pictures show that some of the best of our painters have thought it worth while to send their best work, and their presence is sufficient, happily, to lift the exhibition to a respectable level.

Mr. William M. Chase has never exhibited a more pleasing portrait than the full-length figure of a lady in black, "Portrait of Mrs. C.," No. 315. He has painted portraits in which were to be found more precise drawing and more careful construction, but he has never painted one of more agreeable aspect or anything more successful as a piece of quiet tone. The pose of the figure is easy and natural, there is much grace in the poise of the head, and the hands are delightfully treated. It is very cleverly painted throughout, and is excellent in style. "Portrait of a Lady," No. 353, by Kenyon Cox, is a small, seated figure of a lady painted in three-quarter length. It is as different as possible in general treatment from Mr. Chase's portrait. It is especially notable for accurate drawing, and is precisely and firmly constructed. Better drawing is seldom seen nowadays than Mr. Cox's work in this little portrait, and it is painted with extreme delicacy of touch. It is excellent in color also, and entirely free from hardness in modelling. These two portraits are, each in its own way, quite equal to the best work in our current exhibitions.

Good qualities of construction and a fine sense of character are found in the profile head of a woman by Reginald C. Coxe, "Portrait Study," No. 432; and in the small "Portrait," No. 88, by Henry O. Walker, there is direct and simple drawing and refined sentiment in the expression of character in the subject, a young woman in a white dress, painted in three-quarter length. It is a trifle dry in painting, and somewhat wanting in air, but it is excellent in other respects, and is especially good in style, the gentility of the subject being expressed in every line. A portrait of fine aspect, but which is deficient in solid qualities of painting, is one of a gentleman in a fur-trimmed coat, by Jared B. Flagg, "Portrait," No. 449. Another is that of "George Bruce," No. 263, by President Huntington, but of this it should be said that the artist was, no doubt, deprived of the essential requisite for painting a portrait, namely, direct and constant study of the sitter from life. There is good drawing and good painting in the picture of a little girl in a white dress standing by a doorway in a room panelled in white wood, "Portrait Study," No. 17, by Samuel Isham, and conscientious work in the soberly treated figure of a gentleman seated at a table in a studio, "Portrait, Mr. W. B. F." No. 85, by Charles Foster. Mr. Rice shows an excellent head, freely though firmly painted, "Portrait," No. 404, and Mr. Beckwith a three-quarter length of a lady in a white ball dress, seated in a wide chair, in which there is much clever brush-work, "Portrait of Mrs. S.," No. 430. A good canvas is "Portrait of Roger Upton," No. 445, a seated figure of a young man, by Frances Hunt Throop.

Scenes of summer life in city and country are abundant at the Academy, and in no field of painting is there greater incapacity exhibited. The modern idea of painting figures in out-of-doors light—a most excellent idea when the painter who adopts it is sufficiently well-trained to cope with its many difficulties—has been seized by the tyro, and the result is distressing to contemplate in many pictures in the present exhibition.

It is needless to particularize, however; we shall do better to mention some of the pictures of this sort which are successful, and among them we find a certain number which are very good. Of these, perhaps Mr. Herbert Denman's "Girl Playing Tennis," No. 205, is the most complete. It is preëminent in its class, in the qualities of light and air. The figure of the young girl in the foreground before the net is good in movement, it is well observed in respect of comparative value with the landscape, and the landscape itself is charmingly painted. Of a more sober cast is the scene in the harvest field, "The Last Shock," No. 306, by Edgar M. Ward. The time is evening, and the figures of a man who is placing a cap-sheaf on a shock of grain, and of a young woman at his side, are relieved against a background of farm lands under the fading light of nightfall. Figures and landscape are robustly and soundly painted. Along with these two pictures, which are typical of different methods but both of which are ably and competently handled, are an out-door picture of two young ladies in light summer costumes in a boat, "Among the Lotos Lilies, Sandusky Bay," No. 51, by Charles C. Curran, in which the effect of sunlight is well rendered and the values of figures and landscape are in general well observed, but in which there is little or no charm of color; a small picture, with the facetious sort of title not yet out of favor in American art, "The Labor Question in the South," No. 286, by William Verplanck Birney, a deftly painted bit showing a black boy rolling on the grass by the side of a deserted tea cloth spread on the lawn in the shadow of overhanging trees; a breezy picture of a girl in white seated, tiller in hand, in the stern of a boat with a background of sea and shore, "The Port Tack," No. 308, by W. M. J. Rice; and a kitchen interior in an old-fashioned house with a simpering girl drawing a bucket of water, "The Old Well," No. 443 by C. R. Grant, quite cleverly painted and sinning chiefly by excessive prettiness; "Gardening," No. 108, by John J. Hammer, a pretty girl in a vegetable patch; and Mr. Denman's little picture of a scene on the East River, "Terrace of Rheinlust, Swimming Bath," No. 439, should also be mentioned.

Further, "The School Belle," No. 177, by S. J. Guy, and "Daisy," No. 362, by J. G. Brown, may be noted, as characteristic examples of the manner of two well-known illustrators of certain phases of American life. There is nothing so good in its way in the exhibition as the interior with a young woman in a red dress playing the harp, "A Solo," No. 133, by Kenyon Cox, a fine piece of color and excellent in ensemble. The hands touching the strings are expressive, though they seem a trifle large, and the head is especially good in character. More gay, and perhaps less conscientious, is another interior, "Sunlight in the Studio," No. 326, by Irving R. Wiles, which shows a girl in soft drapery of black reclining on a divan in the half-light under a canopy in a studio, with a ray of sunlight falling on the top of a writing-desk against the wall. Figure and accessories are painted with a free brush, and though it is exceedingly clever painting, it is in no way suggestive of that false cleverness which exhibits dexterous technique at the expense of truth of values and proper drawing. The picture is, moreover, pleasing in color, and is free from jarring notes, a quality that is rare enough to be noted when found in pictures of studio interiors, wherein many painters seem to delight in bringing together all sorts of incongruous elements. Mr. Ward's "Busy Tack Workers," No. 291, is a good interior, with two young women at a table under a strong light from a window, though color is not a feature of it. "Holland Love-Making," No. 90, by Henry B. Wechsler, is a good example of Munich methods tempered by honest observation of nature. The figures are well drawn, there are good qualities of light and air, and the story is well told.

The nude receives but scant consideration, and aside from an excellent "Study," No. 364, by Clifford P. Greyson, Mr. Denman's graceful figure of "Psyche," No. 366, and Mr. Rice's somewhat attenuated "Naiad," No. 231, there is nothing to note, except a decoratively treated group of two figures, "At the Fountain," No. 18, by Charles Foster, a canvas of agreeable aspect and marked by scholarly drawing. "Daphnäe," No. 367, by George W. Maynard, is a fanciful profile head of a young girl with a crown of leaves on her brow, which may be properly classed as decorative work. It is gracefully limned and delicately colored. It would be charitable, perhaps, to speak of a picture called "Eleanore," No. 324, by F. J. Waugh, as a decoration if in so terming it some excuse might be offered for its flatness of effect and its washed-out tone. It is in no way truthful in depicting objects in atmosphere, as it is entirely untruthful pictorially by reason of its photographic hardness of line. The crude attempts of honest beginners in painting out of doors are preferable to this colorless landscape and characterless figure. Genre pictures of varied subject are shown by Leon and Percy Moran, Thomas Hovenden, Constant Mayer, Stanley Middleton, B. West Clinedinst, J. H. Witt, E. L. Durand, C. Y. Turner, E. L. Henry, Charles X. Harris, and J. Wells Champney, and there is a pretty fancy, neatly painted, called "Sunbeams and Dewdrops," No. 390, by Charles C. Curran. A curious picture in a humorous vein is "The Tramps," No. 102, by S. W. Van Schaick, which shows a skilful sort of brush-work applied to a trivial motive.

In landscape and marine painting there is less than might have been expected at an autumn exhibition opened at the end of the summer's work in the country, but there is perhaps almost the usual complement, though it seems of a poorer quality as a whole than in preceding years. Mr. Harrison's sea views, Nos. 34, 360, and 422, are noteworthy, and curiously like them in scope and treatment is the "Storm," No. 122, by Frank W. Benson, though it is not without personal merit. Other marines are contributed, by Howard R. Butler, "Moonrise," No. 355; by F. K. M. Rehn, "Surf Breaking Over a Wall," No. 444; and by Alexandrina Dupré, "Broken Adrift," No. 91. A crisply painted effect, a tugboat puffing through the hazy atmosphere of the bay on a September day, is "Afternoon, North River," No. 414, by Reginald C. Coxe.

Among the best of the landscapes are those signed by H. Bolton Jones, Edward Gay, R. W. Van Boskerck, Hamilton Hamilton, H. M. Rosenberg, Carleton T. Chapman, F. De Haven, R. A. Eichelberger, and Walter L. Palmer.

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Alphabetized, first, by States; second, by Towns.

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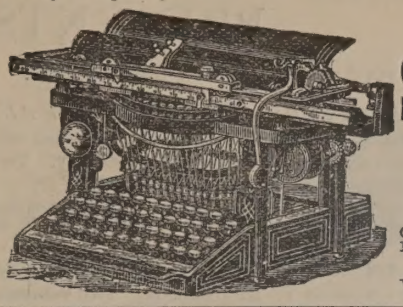

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 13, 1888.

The Week.

WE should think that President Cleveland would read the talk of Civil-Service Commissioner Edgerton, as reported in the Baltimore *American*, with more or less remorse. Mr. Edgerton denounces the system which he has been appointed to administer "as a hollow and extravagant fraud." Moreover, he has been talking this way ever since he was appointed, in 1885, without the smallest concealment, and ought to have been summarily removed when it was first heard of. He is a perfect specimen of the "old-fashioned Democrat" from Indiana, except that he is usually neatly dressed and his nose is not red. His ideas about the public service are those of the Jacksonian period; and as he was seventy years old when he was appointed, at the solicitation, we believe, of the late Chief-Justice Waite, there was not the smallest likelihood that he would change them, in the light either of experience or of any other light. From nothing, however, has the President suffered in popular estimation so much as keeping in office, as administrators of the Civil-Service Law, men who hated it and wished to make it inoperative. All the discredit wrought by these worthies has fallen on him in the shape of charges of fraud and hypocrisy. Of course honest men would not retain offices which they were not willing to execute fairly, and the consequence is that the President has had to bear the blame of a parcel of civil-service impostors, like old Mr. Edgerton in Washington, Postmaster Jones in Indianapolis, and Deputy-Collector Davis and Surveyor Beattie in the New York Custom-house, whom he ought to have got rid of promptly, as his worst enemies. Mr. Edgerton, much as he fumed, was cunning enough not to resign, however.

The *Tribune* printed on Saturday morning a column of honest indignation from Mrs. Whitney, the wife of the Secretary of the Navy, about the vile slanders circulated during the past six months by Republicans, both lay and clerical, about President Cleveland's married life. They have been disgraceful, not only to the American name, but to human nature. The particular story to which Mrs. Whitney refers—there can be no indiscretion now in saying, as Mr. Depew admits it—was told by Mr. Depew at a dinner-table in this city, as on the authority of Mr. Henry Watterson. It was the confidence with which it was produced on this occasion that led to an appeal to Mr. Watterson for the facts. Mr. Watterson answered at once, showing that the charge was an absolute invention. A copy of this letter was sent to Mr. Depew by a gentleman who was present at the dinner, with an expression of hope that he would, whenever the opportunity offered, contradict the story on Mr. Watterson's authority. This was about two weeks ago. Whether Mr. Depew has ever taken any notice of it we do not know, but we hope he has.

There is abundant material for fresh uneasiness among the Blaine followers to be found in a recent article in the Indianapolis *News*. The editor is a warm personal friend of Gen. Harrison, and even if he does not speak with the latter's knowledge, he would not make so bitter an assault as he does upon Mr. Blaine if he had reason to think that by so doing he would offend the General. When, therefore, he denounces as "insufferable" the assumption of Mr. Blaine's closest political friends, like Mr. Boutelle, that Mr. Blaine would get no more than his deserts if he were given the Secretaryship of State; when he speaks of the reception of Mr. Blaine in this city on his return from Europe as "cut-and-dried," and designed to "carry him through the campaign as the central figure"; when he says that so far as they succeeded in this design they "handicapped" the Republican campaign; when, worse than all this, he says that "Blaine is thoroughly distrusted and feared as a corrupt and unsafe man by one-half the people of the country, and has lost the confidence of the thinking element of his own party"—all this is ominous for the hopes of the Blaine disciples.

A story comes to us on good authority which throws strong light upon the current Republican view of the use of money as a political force. A rich aspirant for a United States Senatorship in a State which shall be nameless, consulted a Republican Congressman as to the advisability of investing $25,000 in a project for starting a newspaper to run against a paper of Mugwump tendencies, with the two-fold hope of driving the latter to the wall and influencing public opinion in favor of the rich man's aspirations. The Congressman had had considerable experience in efforts of that kind, and he advised against the investment of the money in that way. He was convinced, he said, that the influence of the press in politics was greatly overestimated; the chances were that if the $25,000 was paid over, it would not result in the objects desired—the paper would only live till the money was spent, and the giver would in all probability have nothing to show for it when it was gone. A much better way would be to use the money directly in getting the "right kind of men" elected to the Legislature: in that way a statesman was pretty certain to get a quick return on his investment.

Does anybody question the prevalence of this view in the Republican party? Did the Republican press or Republican money exert the more powerful influence in the late campaign? We doubt if ever there was in this country a Presidential campaign in which there was less of sincere argument in a party press than there was in Republican journals between July and November last. The tariff question, which was the leading issue, was scarcely argued at all. There were some clap-trap arguments put forward on the wage question, and many childish appeals to prejudice by pretences of British sympathy with the Democrats; but of serious argument there was scarce any worth mentioning. The documents distributed by the Republican Campaign Committee bore the same character. Certainly there was no appeal to anybody's intelligence discernible in them. Yet the Republicans won, and no intelligent observer of their methods, revealed in many ways since election, can doubt that their view of the relative power of the press and of money coincided closely with that of the Republican Congressman whose advice we have cited. They applied the money directly.

John J. O'Brien and his Eighth Assembly District Republican Association have been expelled from the party fold by a very large vote in the County Committee, and the *Tribune* declares that the "lesson taught is one that will not soon be forgotten." But what is the lesson? What have O'Brien and his associates been punished for? There is nothing in Friday night's proceedings which throws much light on this point. The first charge against O'Brien for misconduct in the last election was made in the evening Republican organ of this city, and was that he had taken from the National Republican Committee a large sum of money to be used in buying votes *en bloc*, and had not kept his agreement. This was subsequently enlarged by a statement by Mr. Nugent, a Republican candidate for Coroner, that O'Brien had collected "assessments," amounting to $30,000, from various local candidates, and had made no return to Republican candidates in votes at the polls. The sub-committee which investigated the matter put the money aspect of the case into their report, charging that O'Brien received $1,700 from the Republican candidate for Congress, and made no satisfactory return in votes. Yet in the report presented to the full County Committee on Friday night, on which O'Brien was expelled, there is no reference to money, but a vague charge that he and his associates did not "loyally support the entire Republican ticket."

Now, the only way in which O'Brien could have "loyally supported" the entire ticket would have been to have bought an equal number of votes for all candidates. It was because he did not do this that he was arraigned by the religious editor of the party; and by H. K. Thurber, who is said by Mr. Nugent to have given him $2,000 to be used in behalf of the Republican Congressional candidate; and by the Better Element of the Union League Club, whose money he has put in his pocket for lo! these many years. If he had used the money which was

given him for the purpose designed, that is, if he had "loyally supported" the entire ticket, by rolling up a Republican majority for all its candidates, would he have been expelled? How has he "converted" the Eighth Assembly District from a Democratic to a Republican stronghold? Simply by the free use of good Republican money, put in his hands by good Republicans with the distinct understanding that he was to buy votes with it. Not one of his accusers on Friday had a word to say against the methods which he used for so many years. They denounce him for "treachery" in failing to use them in the way they wished him to, but they had no harsh word for the methods themselves.

It will have been noticed by some of our readers that Col. Bliss, in a recent interview, traverses Col. Shepard's statement that $150,000 was put in O'Brien's hands the week before election for the purchase of three "movements" in this city for the Republican party. It is quite clear, however, that, in alleging that "no such sum of money was put in any one's hands for use on election day," Col. Bliss asserts more than he can possibly know. The proof of a negative is proverbially difficult, and we should therefore disregard his denial, even if he were as religious a colonel as Col. Shepard, which we fear he is not, or if he had as much money as Col. Shepard, which we presume he will not maintain that he has. When there is a conflict of veracity between two Colonels, the one who is the most religious and the richest inevitably, other things being equal, obtains most credence.

Defensive eulogies on John Wanamaker continue to reach us in Republican papers, supported by arguments showing that, as a successful business man, he would probably administer the Post-office Department successfully. This shows how difficult it is to get into the Republican editorial mind, in its present condition, the real nature of the objection to Wanamaker as a Cabinet officer. Perhaps he would administer the Post-office Department well; but there are several men in the wholesale clothing and Yankee-notion business in this city and Boston who would administer it just as well, and also be willing to pay a good round sum for the place. It would be worth $100,000 to Rogers, Peet & Co., or Devlin & Co., or Simmons & Co., as an advertisement, to furnish the Government with a Cabinet Minister. What we object to is the sale of a Cabinet office to any man, however able or however successful as a storekeeper, in return for a contribution to campaign funds. No one would have thought of Wanamaker for a Cabinet place if he had not raised money for Quay. To talk of him now for such a place is really to propose the sale of the chief offices, after every election, to the largest donor of money. The thing ought to be stopped in the beginning, and Wanamaker is the beginning. The rule ought to be, not that a man who gives freely should get high office, but that giving freely should, in common decency, disqualify a man for high office. If Wanamaker does not see this, other people must see it for him. The Republican mind at the East is completely perverted on this subject. To it corruption, as we see in this city, consists, not in buying offices, but in getting money for the purpose of buying offices, and using it for other things.

A recent pilgrim to Indianapolis gives it as his opinion that Gen. Harrison has not yet made up his mind about Wanamaker, although, he adds, the President-elect is daily receiving letters from clergymen urging him to summon the Philadelphia clothier to his Cabinet. It is altogether likely that the latter statement is correct. Nor should the fact be set down to the discredit of the clerical letter-writers. Their action and recommendations are not meant either to approve or condemn the kind of political activity displayed by Wanamaker in the late campaign. They look upon him as a sort of acquaintance or even friend. His "Clergymen's Department" has long been an established and profitable part of his business, and the frankly confidential letters sent by him to the "reverend clergy" of the United States, with disinterested advice on the subject of the purchase of clothing, and with "simple directions for self-measurement," have made his name a household word in thousands of parsonages.

Mr. Holman has offered a resolution instructing the Judiciary Committee of the House to investigate the use of money in the Federal elections, including both receipts and expenditures. We are glad to see that the Philadelphia *Press* cordially approves of this, adding the valuable suggestion that it is much better that the Senate should undertake this work than the House, as the House goes out of office in two months, while the Senate is a continuing body. It proposes that Quay, Dudley, and Wanamaker should all be summoned. It thinks that Wanamaker and Dolan will be willing to tell all they know about the money, and as to Quay and Dudley, and insists that if these worthies are examined, Brice, Barnum, and Scott must be examined too. This is all right. Everybody of prominence on both sides who is known to have raised or spent money for electioneering purposes, ought to be summoned. We are very sorry now that Quay and Wanamaker should have burned their vouchers and books of account. In all investigations about money the vouchers and the ledger and day-book are, of course, worth fifty times as much as oral testimony—are so valuable, indeed, that their destruction or concealment raises in law a presumption of fraud.

The debate in the Senate on the duty on structural iron is instructive as showing what a fearful and oppressive tangle the present tariff is. Here is a duty equal to 102.75 per cent. ad valorem, one of the greatest monstrosities in the revenue system of any country in the world. The Senate Committee propose to reduce the duty to 1 1-10 cent per pound, equal to about 90 per cent. ad valorem. Senator Plumb offered an amendment reducing it to one cent per pound. Senator Allison opposed the amendment because the duty on blooms and billets (the raw material of structural iron) is so high that the manufacturers of the latter must be compensated and something left over for them. The duty on blooms and billets rests on the duty on pig-iron, and this in turn rests on the duty on iron ore. So by successive steps we climb from a duty of 41 per cent. on ore up to 102 per cent. on beams and girders, and no part of the stairway can be removed without letting down the whole, which is not to be thought of. Then Mr. Allison and Mr. Aldrich are confident that domestic competition will eventually bring down the price, although it has not had that tendency during the past five years. This means that the plundering of the public on all the steps of the stairway, from iron ore up to beams and girders, should be allowed to continue indefinitely. The fact that there is a "combine" of the manufacturers of structural iron to prevent competition, mentioned by Mr. Plumb, was brushed aside by Mr. Allison, who had received information that new manufactories of iron and steel beams were starting, which, in his opinion, would put the law of competition in force by and by. But no guarantee was offered that the new ones would not join the combination.

The Direct-Tax Refunding Bill, which caused so much excitement and filibustering in the House last summer, will probably be passed soon and be vetoed by the President (as it ought to be), and then left to the next Administration to deal with. The supposed evil which it is intended to cure by this measure having existed for more than a quarter of a century, it will not be greatly aggravated by a few months' longer delay. The bill is a bad one, because it looks towards a distribution of the surplus among the States. The money paid under the Direct-Tax Law of 1861 was legally and constitutionally paid and received. It is not distinguishable from any other collections made by the Government as to its rightfulness. It is therefore just as proper to distribute any other money to the States as this money. No argument can be made upon legal grounds for sending back to the State of New York the money she paid under the Direct-Tax Law that would not justify sending back the estimated sum which her citizens pay in customs duties. The argument that some of the States did not pay their share, and that hence an inequality exists, may be good for collecting the unpaid shares now. Moreover, if it is a question of correcting old inequalities, there is a much older and larger one in sight, namely, the $28,000,000 "deposited" with the twenty-six States which constituted the Union in the year 1837. In order to make things equal now, this money ought to be paid back, or a proportionate amount should be deposited with the twelve States that have since been admitted, not to mention the just claims of our worthy Territories.

A new complication has arisen regarding "the Irish vote" in this country which politicians will probably find harder to deal with than any preceding one. It appears that mackerel fishing off the Irish coast has lately experienced a considerable revival, and about two years ago Irish salt mackerel began to make its appearance in this country in large quantities, but in an unsatisfactory condition, owing to the Irish ignorance of how to cure the fish for the American market. Somebody went over, however, and showed them how; and now a large supply is said to come from Ireland, and it is increasing rapidly, owing to the high price in our market. The Gloucester fishermen have therefore taken the alarm, and demand the imposition of higher duties on the imported article, and the National Convention of Wholesale Fish-Dealers are to take the matter up. How Republican politicians will meet this demand, it is difficult to see. We doubt if the devotion of the Irish to protection is so great as to make them support an attempt to crush a rising industry of their unfortunate countrymen at home. In the last canvass, the free trade they were taught to hate was "English free trade." Nothing was said to them about Irish free trade, and, so far as we know, nothing has appeared in the London *Times* on that subject, so that there is nothing to quote. What we should do in this embarrassing situation, were we in the place of these politicians, would be to forge an extract from that journal something like this:

> The news that Irish salt mackerel is making its way into the American market in considerable quantities promises, by diminishing discontent, to make the enforcement of English law in that island easier than for some time back. The exportation ought to be encouraged in every way possible, so as to silence the agitators, and extinguish what they ridiculously call the national feeling. What better use can a Celt turn himself to than catching and salting fish for Anglo-Saxons to eat?—*London Times.*

The unreasonable conduct of Sheriff Smith of Birmingham, Alabama, in defending the jail against the demands of the citizens who wanted to take out a man named Hawes and hang him to a convenient tree, led to the lamentable consequence of killing ten men and wounding thirteen others. The alley in front of the jail where this unwarrantable resistance on the part of the Sheriff and his assistants took place resembled, after the action, a hotly contested engagement of infantry against entrenchments. The ground was strewn with the dead and dying, streams of blood filled all the low ground and formed pools here and there, and the buildings and fences within range were riddled with bullets. Public indignation was roused to the highest pitch, and the Governor of the State was appealed to to bring the Sheriff to justice, which he declined to do. Nevertheless the Sheriff and the Chief of Police were arrested for murder, and they will be lucky if they escape lynching in place of Hawes. The crime of the latter has ceased to excite animadversion in Birmingham, having been overshadowed and dwarfed by the greater barbarity of the Sheriff. In the presence of this "holocaust" it is to be feared that less attention than it deserves will be given to the shooting of one Beidler in the streets of Texarkana by a boy of seventeen whose father had had a personal encounter with Beidler, in which nothing more deadly than fists and billets of wood had been used. Nor should we lose sight at such a time of the meritorious activity of the White Caps in Ohio and Indiana, who are holding night sessions of court and administering justice over large tracts of country.

The natural and proper exultation over the revival and probable permanent establishment of the Thomas orchestra should not cause forgetfulness of the fact that the great want of a proper music-hall remains unprovided for. Chickering Hall, with many advantages, has the incurable fault of being too small. The provision of a fitting place for the performance of great music is one of the first æsthetic necessities of New York. Possibly enterprise may be quickened by the knowledge that even London suffers from the same want; it has nothing between St. James's Hall, which seats only about 1,800 persons, and the Albert Hall, which seats over 8,000. The consequence is, that with a body of 8,000 to 10,000 amateur chorus singers in London, and with choral music at the highest pitch of popularity, there are almost no performances. London is suffering, as is New York, for want of a hall with an orchestra to hold say 500 of band and chorus, and an auditorium to seat 3,000 persons. Perhaps emulation, and the satisfaction of seeing New York provided with a structure which London waits for, may heighten public interest in the project of a music-hall fit for our needs.

Lord Salisbury, according to Mr. John Morley, never makes a speech without "at least one blazing indiscretion." His comparison of the Irish to Hottentots in the matter of capacity for self-government was one of these; his announcement that one of his colleagues in the Cabinet was worth more than the whole eighty-six Parnellite members of Parliament was another. He got into the way of saying such things when he was a writer for the *Saturday Review*, in the days when it made a specialty of scorn and contempt for everybody who did not keep hunters or had not graduated at Oxford or Cambridge, without distinction of race or religion, and Mr. Disraeli described him as "a master of flouts and sneers." His last indiscretion, however, appears to be likely to get him into more trouble than any of the others. Englishmen grow increasingly sensitive, as the years roll by and Russian railways creep up nearer to the northwestern frontier, about the feelings and opinions of the natives of India. Everything that can be done is being done to humor them and attach them to the British connection. A great many of the upper class are becoming Anglicized; they are educated in England, and practise at the English bar, occasionally try to get into Parliament, and distinguish themselves frequently as speakers on the stump. One of the most prominent of them, Dadabhai Naoroji, a Bombay Parsee, ran for Parliament as the Liberal candidate in the Holborn district of London at the election before this last one, and was defeated. He is an able and well-educated man and a good speaker, and has the usual swarthy Indian complexion. In a late speech Lord Salisbury ridiculed the Liberals of this district for having had a "black man" for their candidate. The East Indians have learned to swallow insults in silence, but have immense capacity for steady and protracted hate. When an Englishman sneers at one as a "black man," they know that he has in his mind the epithet "nigger," which is the common Anglo-Indian description of the Indian subjects of the Queen, and they know what contempt the epithet expresses. Consequently, the Anglo-Indian press has taken the matter up very warmly, as they think (and most English Liberals agree with them) that Lord Salisbury has been sneering at the expense of the Indian Empire.

Mexico has probably suffered more than any other country from the steady depreciation of silver, for the reason that it is her principal article of export. An attempt to help matters was made in the law of June 6, 1887, which aimed to diminish the cost of production of the metal by the removal of various domestic taxes. The resulting gain has been slight, though the miners are grateful even for that. Just now a new "blow at Mexican silver" is being aimed by Spain. Some time ago that country ordered the discontinuance of the circulation of the Mexican dollar in the Philippine Islands, and now proposes to coin a "colonial dollar" for use in Cuba and Porto Rico, as well as in her colonial possessions of the East. This will not only cut off an existing demand for Mexican silver, but will throw back upon the Mexican Government a part of the outstanding coinage. Fear of this may have been the spur urging on the Mexican Chamber to the latest law upon the subject. This measure, which passed its first reading on November 13, directs the President to exert himself to procure an agreement among the Latin countries, England, and the United States for the use of an international silver coin. The debate was only notable for bringing to light what is probably a new epithet among the many astonishing ones applied to silver; a deputy called it "the red globules in the blood of commerce." As to the project itself, it will undoubtedly come up in some shape before the coming American Congress, from which gathering more may be expected than from the simple initiative of Mexico. Among the great practical difficulties in the way of the scheme may be mentioned the widely varying monetary units of the South American States. To make a coin easily exchangeable with them all would almost require higher mathematics of the kind Robert Morris proposed to employ to harmonize the different monetary units of the Confederation.

LESSONS OF THE FIGURES.

We have compiled a table which presents at a glance the total vote cast for President at the recent election, in comparison with the votes of 1880 and 1884, in all but a dozen of the States. In most cases the figures are official; in all the rest they contain returns from all the towns of a State, and will vary but slightly from the official count, with the single exception of West Virginia, where, however, it is known that there is a Democratic plurality for President of about 1,000. We omit the figures in the half-dozen Southern States where the Republicans made no fight, as well as those for the westernmost States of the Union. The figures of the Prohibition vote are given for each year, but the labor vote so generally disappeared this year that it did not seem worth the space it would take:

	1880.				1884.				1888.			
	Rep.	Dem.	Gbk.	Pro.	Rep.	Dem.	Lab.	Pro.	Rep.	Dem.	Pro.
Maine	74,089	65,171	4,408	95	72,209	52,140	3,953	2,160	73,794	50,481	2,691
New Hampshire	44,852	40,794	528	180	43,249	39,183	552	1,571	45,708	43,358	1,585
Vermont	45,567	18,316	1,215	...	39,514	17,331	785	1,752	45,102	16,788	1,497
Massachusetts	165,205	111,960	4,548	682	146,724	122,481	24,433	10,026	183,892	151,855	8,701
Rhode Island	18,195	10,779	236	20	19,030	12,391	422	928	21,960	17,533	1,283
Connecticut	67,071	64,415	808	409	65,923	67,199	1,688	2,305	74,584	74,920	4,234
New York	555,544	534,511	12,373	1,517	562,005	563,154	16,994	25,016	650,338	635,965	30,231
New Jersey	120,555	122,565	2,617	191	123,440	127,798	8,496	6,159	144,344	151,493	7,004
Pennsylvania	444,704	407,428	20,668	1,939	473,804	392,785	16,902	15,583	526,223	446,934	20,756
Delaware	14,133	15,275	120	...	12,951	16,964	6	55	12,914	16,478	401
Maryland	78,515	93,706	818	...	85,699	96,932	531	2,794	99,986	101,108	4,700
Virginia	84,020	128,586	...	...	139,356	145,497	...	1,138	150,442	151,977	1,678
West Virginia	46,243	57,391	9,079	...	63,096	67,317	810	939	About 1,000 Dem. plurality		
North Carolina	115,874	124,208	1,126	...	125,038	142,952	...	454	147,902	155,184	2,787
Kentucky	106,306	149,008	11,499	258	118,122	152,961	1,691	3,139	155,184	183,800	5,225
Tennessee	107,677	128,191	5,917	43	124,078	133,258	957	1,131	138,989	158,787	5,969
Missouri	155,567	310,821	35,135	...	202,929	235,988	...	2,153	236,325	261,957	4,964
Ohio	375,048	340,821	6,456	2,616	400,082	368,280	5,179	11,069	416,054	396,455	24,356
Indiana	232,164	225,522	12,986	...	238,463	244,990	8,243	3,028	263,361	261,013	9,881
Illinois	318,037	277,321	26,358	448	337,474	312,355	10,910	12,074	370,427	348,302	21,441
Michigan	185,341	131,597	34,895	942	192,669	149,835	42,243	18,403	236,307	213,304	20,942
Wisconsin	144,400	114,649	7,986	69	161,157	146,459	4,508	7,050	176,553	155,232	14,277
Minnesota	86,903	53,315	3,207	286	111,923	70,144	3,583	4,684	130,220	97,209	15,500
Iowa	183,927	105,845	32,701	592	197,089	177,316	...	1,472	211,598	179,877	3,550
Kansas	121,949	59,801	19,851	25	154,406	90,132	...	4,495	182,914	102,738	6,779
Nebraska	54,979	28,523	3,950	...	76,912	54,391	2,899	108,650	80,646	9,552

The feature of this table which is most likely to arrest attention is the remarkable shrinkage which the Republican vote suffered in 1884, as compared with the dimensions which it should have reached, according to all the laws which govern such matters. Take New York, for example. It has always been claimed that the Republican candidate for President in 1884 received tens of thousands of votes which had always before gone to the Democrats, and which were cast for Hancock in 1880; and yet the Republican candidate for President in 1884 received only 562,005 votes, against 555,544 thrown for Garfield in 1880, which shows that the normal Republican vote of 1884 was smaller by tens of thousands than it should have been. In Connecticut the Republican candidate had received 67,071 votes in 1880; despite a considerable increase in population, the Republican candidate in 1884 polled but 65,923 votes. Massachusetts in 1880 had given the Republican candidate 165,205 votes; the State contained a great many more voters in 1884, but the Republican candidate was supported by only 146,724 of them.

The figures for 1888 emphasize this showing. In New York the Republican vote, which, despite the large accessions from the Democracy, increased by only about 6,000 from 1880 to 1884, was 88,000 larger in 1888 than in 1884. Making due allowance for the many thousands of votes which Harrison secured from the Democratic side through the alliance with the saloons and through the use of "boodle," it yet remains true that the normal Republican vote this year shows the large increase reasonably to be expected every four years in this great and growing State, but which was not shown in 1884. In like manner in Connecticut the Republican vote, which fell off 1,148 from 1880 to 1884, has risen again, so that it shows in 1888 the gain of 7,513 over 1880, which might fairly be expected in eight years. Massachusetts furnishes the most impressive illustration of the same fact. The Republican vote in 1888 is 18,687 larger than in 1880, but at the same time it is 37,168 larger than in 1884. Before the election just held, there may have been excuse for some doubt as to what it was that defeated the Republican party in 1884; but in the light of these figures no candid person can longer question that it was the candidate of 1884 who was responsible. The verdict of history on that matter is rendered by the returns of the election of 1888.

As regards the tariff issue, the showing is altogether encouraging to the friends of reform. It was the tariff issue which finally elected Garfield in 1880, after the failure of the bloody-shirt cry in the September election in Maine had forced a change of base. But observe how much less effective the tariff scare was this year than eight years ago. In 1880 Garfield carried New York by more than 21,000 plurality; in 1888 Harrison would not have carried it except for the Harrison and Hill saloon-vote combination. In 1880 Garfield carried Indiana by 6,600 plurality; in 1888 Harrison, with "State pride" to help him and an unexampled boodle fund, has only 2,300, and Gen. Hovey, the Republican candidate for Governor, frankly confesses that they could not have got that if the President's record on the pension question had not given them the votes of thousands of Democratic soldiers. In 1880 Connecticut gave the high-tariff candidate over 2,500 plurality; in 1888 it gives its electoral votes to the low-tariff candidate. In 1880 New Jersey gave only 2,000 plurality against the high-tariff policy; in 1888, over 7,000. Rhode Island gave nearly 7,500 plurality for the high tariff in 1880; only about 4,500 in 1888. New Hampshire, over 4,000 eight years ago; less than 2,500 now,

The same thing holds true among Republican States at the West. For example, in Ohio over 34,000 for the high-tariff candidate in 1880; less than 20,000 in 1888. In Illinois, over 40,000 in 1880; only 22,000 in 1888. In Wisconsin, almost 30,000 in 1880; only about 21,000 in 1888. In Iowa, 45,000 for the high-tariff candidate over both the Democratic and Greenback tickets in 1880; less than 32,000 in 1888. East or West there is nothing discouraging to those who believe in a thoroughgoing reform of the tariff.

But the tariff reformers must be prepared to lose electoral votes in the South which they have hitherto had. The half-dozen States which lie nearest the North are drifting towards Republicanism, and towards Republicanism on the tariff issue. Both Virginia and West Virginia almost crossed the line this year; neither can any longer be counted among sure Democratic States. Some of their neighbors incline to keep them company. It is extremely unlikely that the old slave States will ever vote together again in a Presidential election.

The tariff reformers have two sources of strength for the future. One is found in the older manufacturing States of the East, where the workingmen are already getting their eyes open. New Jersey and Connecticut ought to be retained, and New York put where we believe it would have been if the issue had been presented free from complications this year, while New Hampshire and Rhode Island ought to be won over. The other field to cultivate is the agricultural States of the West. Indiana believes in tariff reform, Illinois is missionary ground, other States in that part of the country are not hopeless. A readjustment of party lines in such directions as we have indicated is greatly to be desired. A Republican State or two in the South would do more than anything else to eliminate the sectional issue from our politics, and to enable the Democrats, on a good platform, to carry one or two of the great Western States.

AN EDUCATIONAL TEST.

An immense deal of stuff regarding the "Southern question" has been published in the newspapers, both South and North, since Harrison's election, but for the most part it has not deserved serious attention. Two Southern journals, however—the Charleston *News and Courier* in South Carolina and the Montgomery *Dispatch* in Alabama—have advocated a policy which merits thoughtful consideration. It is the establishment of an educational test for the suffrage.

The *Dispatch*, which was first to suggest this policy, declared that the ills which have befallen the Southern States since the war have come chiefly from the dense ignorance which pervades so large a proportion of the electorate, and it pointed out that Northern States, like Massachusetts, shut out ignorance from the ballot-box. It advised Alabama to follow the example of the New England State. "If a mere consideration of expediency, an abstract respect for the dignity of the ballot," it said, "has induced Massachusetts to withhold the right of suffrage from the illiterate,

the incompetent, and the corrupt, considerations a thousand-fold more imperative urge us to adopt that policy." The *News and Courier* admitted that South Carolina had rudely established a certain sort of educational test in what is known as the eight-box law, under which the ballots for different officers must be deposited by the voter in different boxes appropriately inscribed, and no vote placed in the wrong box is counted; the result being that the ignorant voter is pretty sure to make mistakes, as nobody is ever allowed to help him out of his trouble—at least if he is a negro. But the Charleston paper frankly confessed that this was an evasion, after all, and advised grasping the difficulty squarely at once, and amending the State Constitution so as to impose an educational qualification.

The *News and Courier* appears to take it for granted that such a change would result in diminishing the State's representation in Congress and in the Electoral College, under the provisions of the Fourteenth Amendment, but insists that it would be better to lose a Congressman or two than to go on as at present. But it is by no means certain that the establishment of an educational test would operate in this way. The section of the amendment in question reads as follows:

"Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, Representatives in Congress, the executive and judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion, or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens, twenty-one years of age, in such State."

It will be seen that everything would depend upon the judicial construction put upon the expression, "denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, or in any way abridged." What is required to constitute such denial or abridgment? In many Northern States the right to vote is restricted in various ways. In New York, for example, nobody can vote who has "not been an inhabitant of this State one year next preceding an election." This, of course, cuts off every year a number of men who would otherwise be entitled to vote. Moreover, a man must have resided in the county for at least four months. He might have lived in the State to old age, but if he had lived on one side of the East River until last August, and then moved to the other side, he would not have been able to vote anywhere in November. Still further, in New York city a man must be registered, and that requires his personal presence at the place of registration on one of four specified days. Every year it happens that men lose their votes because, although well enough to go to the polls on election day, they were too ill for some time previous to go to the place of registration. There is no doubt that in New York at least 3 per cent. of "the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age and citizens of the United States," are prevented from voting by these restrictions upon the suffrage, and if the basis of representation were to be reduced in proportion, the State would lose one of its thirty-four Congressmen and of its thirty-six electoral votes; but no reasonable person would claim that the amendment to the Federal Constitution was intended to be construed in that way.

Take the case of the poll-tax, payment of which, as well as the ability to read, is required by Massachusetts. This requirement debars a considerable number of men from voting. Either they cannot afford to pay the money as election day approaches, or they would rather save the money than enjoy the privilege of casting a ballot. Thousands, and even tens of thousands, of dollars are put out by the party committees in Boston for the payment of poll-taxes in every closely contested canvass; but nobody would maintain that Massachusetts ought to lose one of her twelve Congressmen because one in twelve of her voters may be kept from the ballot-box by this poll-tax test.

As to the educational test. The census of 1880 showed that there were in Massachusetts 496,692 white males above the age of twenty-one, of whom 30,956, or almost one-sixteenth, were unable to write. Nearly all of these were of foreign birth, and many of them had not lived long enough in this country to become naturalized. But suppose that all of the 30,956 in question were citizens, otherwise entitled to vote: could the State be punished by the Federal Government for their illiteracy?

Suppose that South Carolina or Alabama gave notice in 1889 that on and after the fall election of 1890 no man should vote who could not read the Constitution in the English language and write his name—to copy the Massachusetts test: would that be, in any proper sense of the words, either a denial or abridgment of the right to vote? At least a year's notice would be given, and the capacity to read could be acquired by any man in a year. Would the fact that a number of men did not acquire the capacity be ground for mulcting the State?

Our Government was established upon the theory of popular intelligence; it was expected by the founders that everybody who voted would know how to read his ballot. The idea of leaving an election to be decided by men of whom a majority cannot write their names is intolerable; and yet in South Carolina more than half the men above the age of twenty-one in 1880—106,934 out of 205,779—were so ignorant as this. It was nearly as bad in Alabama, 120,858 out of 259,884. Certainly the nation ought not to punish a State for trying to introduce intelligence into its government.

The really serious difficulty in the way, we suspect, will be with the whites. This is not a question which applies solely to the negroes, although, of course, it would chiefly affect them. Almost one-sixth of the white men in South Carolina, quite one-sixth in Alabama, were unable to write their names eight years ago. It was still worse in North Carolina—almost a quarter. It may well be doubted whether the evils of negro rule will appear terrible enough to cause white men to disfranchise themselves.

RICH BOYCOTTERS.

One of the ablest economists in England, Mr. Henry Sidgwick, the author of 'Methods of Ethics,' in an address before the British Association defended the theory of protection against those who denied the moral right of governments to impose taxes for the purpose of promoting domestic industry; but at the end he ruined his argument for protectionist purposes by laying it down that no nation in the world had virtue or self-restraint or ability enough to administer a system of protection through legislation. It was sure to debauch, he held, both the legislature which enacted the tariff and the "interests" which profited by it. There is nothing new in this argument. It owes whatever force it has in Mr. Sidgwick's mouth to the fact that it comes from a man who attaches no importance to the moral objections to protection of which some free-traders make a good deal. But it is an argument which gives new weight to the considerations urged by Mr. Cleveland in his last message—that high tariffs, maintained for the benefit of the rich, teach socialism to the poor, and make them eager to get hold of the Government, that they, too, may fill their pockets through class legislation.

Curiously enough, too, they seem to lead to the adoption by the rich of some of the practices by which the poor tyrannize over their fellows in pursuance of socialistic aims. Nobody has yet forgotten the fight we had in these parts, over two years ago, with the trades-union boycotters. They asked to be allowed to enforce a system of exclusive dealing by which anybody who did not agree with their views about wages and hours and the methods of work should be, if a laborer, prevented from getting any employment, and if an employer, prevented from selling his goods. Before public sentiment was thoroughly roused against them, and the law brought into play to restrain them, they had made the lives of thousands of laborers miserable, and threatened scores of employers with ruin. They rioted in the streets, and blocked them up, and stopped the traffic on great lines of railroads, and in some districts, as during the great Southwestern strike, produced an almost total suspension of industry. When all was over, and they found the law too strong for them, they actually tried, as in this State, to get the law changed so as to make their attacks on persons and property legally justifiable, or at least harmless.

Those who recall the public indignation at these tactics on the part of Labor, will be astonished to learn that Capital shows signs of designing to resort to them also, in defence of its present legal privileges in this country. The Home-Market Club, which has its headquarters in Boston, and includes most of the New England manufacturers, is said to have been so much exasperated and alarmed by the attack on the tariff made by the Democrats in the last

election, that it proposes a "plan of campaign" not unlike that to which the slaveholders resorted before the war, with the view of warding off assaults on their property as contained in "the peculiar institution." That is to say, they propose to enter into an agreement to consign their goods for sale in this city to none but Republicans, to employ in their mills only Republican superintendents who control the voting hands, and to add to their existing black list of turbulent laborers the names of noted Democrats. Our older readers will be reminded by this of the blacklist of Northern wholesale houses which used to be made up in the slave States, so that Southern dealers might avoid them, and of the blackmail which Southern newspapers used to levy on timorous Northern traders and publishers, to pay for exemption from denunciation as "abolitionists" or enemies of the South and her institutions. That was a very painful chapter in the history of the country, and, indeed, one may say, in the history of human nature, and one which probably no one who saw slavery crushed, ever expected to see repeated here in defence of any cause or "interest."

It is hard for boycotting to flourish on American soil. The manners, the feelings of the people are utterly opposed to it. But it is everywhere the chief weapon of a privileged class which finds itself assailed in its property or in its privileges. It was the chief defence of the landlords in England against the abolition of the Corn Laws. It was the chief defence of the slaveholders against the attacks on slavery, and it will doubtless play a large part in the defence of the tariff. To assail the tariff is, in the eyes of a great many people, to assail their property and consideration in the community, and the whole system of things in which they find their mundane happiness. They, therefore, repel it with the utmost bitterness. The man who questions its sanctity is an incendiary and leveller, a confederate of foreign enemies and rivals. They want to drive him out of the community, to close his mouth on the platform, stop the circulation of his books and newspapers, and discredit his morals, exactly as the slaveholders used to do with the abolitionists, and the landholders with Cobden and Bright. In fact, the work is so odious that they cannot conceive of anybody engaging in it without being paid for it, and therefore to the other charges against him they add that of being a hireling.

What is this privilege, defended with such desperation? It is the privilege of selling goods to people who do not want them at a price fixed by yourself, and of preventing their going to any other market than yours. But is it not unprecedented that a claim on its face so unreasonable should be defended with such fierceness and even malignity? Not at all. The more unreasonable a claim is, the more ferociously does a man assert it. The claim to hold men in chattel slavery was much more unreasonable, and was maintained at the cost of filling a whole continent with blood and fire. The claim of the exclusive right to sell bread to the English people at prices fixed by the men who grew the wheat, was pushed to the verge of civil war, as essential to the maintenance of the British monarchy. We have seen in this city and all over the country large bodies of men ready to maim, kill, and burn in defence of the right to stay in another man's service against his will at wages fixed by themselves.

In fact, the desire to live on one's neighbor is as old as human history. It shows itself in new forms in every generation. It is universal, potent, and apparently indestructible. It has survived the attacks of all the great religions and systems of philosophy. It furnishes all the most serious problems of government and of morals in our day, and has managed in this country to-day to form an alliance with both religion and patriotism which makes it exceedingly formidable, and calls for extraordinary patience and good temper on the part of those who think they have a right to spend their earnings in their own way.

THE FRENCH SPOLIATION GAME.

The newspapers from time to time call the attention of the public to the reappearance, often under some new form, of some amusing old "game," by means of which trustful countrymen are taken in and done for by city sharpers. Bunco, the gold-brick swindle, the sawdust and panel games seem to have an eternal lease of life, and no amount of experience on the part of the public, or exposure by the press, impairs their popularity or success. In many cases, to be sure, the victim is himself simply a would-be sharper over-reached by a more cunning student of human nature, and therefore has no special desire to set the machinery of justice in motion; but in others he is innocent of all intention to do wrong, and it is this innocent class—the worthy men who are tempted by old though dimly remembered friends to drop into a picture exhibition for a few minutes; or who, to facilitate a real-estate transaction, draw their money out of the bank and place it in the hands of what the lawyers call a "gratuitous bailee"—on whose steady support and confidence the greatest reliance of the merry dogs who take them in is placed.

It is curious to notice that, while games of this sort carried on by private persons attract a great deal of notice in the press, practical pecuniary jokes of equal ingenuity and much greater magnitude, perpetrated by sovereign governments, are treated as a matter of course; and instead of bright, newsy accounts of them being written up by the best reporters, they are dismissed in a paragraph or item the force of which few persons but those immediately interested comprehend. This would be easy to understand if the victims in these cases were always, as they are sometimes, foreigners. When a Government plays the well-known and favorite repudiation game by borrowing a sum of money abroad and meeting the demands of the creditors by pointing out to them that it is a maxim of the common law of the borrowing country that it cannot be sued, and that consequently a claim for money had and received will not lie, it is natural enough that the newspapers of the borrowing country should not enlarge upon the matter. It would be unpatriotic and short-sighted to do so, as it would spoil the market in the future. But when the game is played by a Government upon its own citizens, the case is different. We should expect the press to take the matter up, and the papers in opposition, at least, to make a noise about it—especially so, in the case of one of the oldest and most favorite games (or "rackets" as they are now generally called) played by any modern Government. One which has now gone on for about a century has been managed with surprising skill by every political party which has obtained possession of the Government, has enriched the Treasury with the spoils of four generations of "claimants," as the victims are amusingly called, and bids fair, in some form or other, to be played quite as long as bunco, or the three-card monte trick, or the panel-game. We refer to the manner of dealing by the United States Government with what are called the French Spoliation Claims.

The first step in the French-claims racket, as in all these cases, was, of course, to obtain possession of the claimant's property; and this was done by means of what, as we look back upon it, must be regarded as a comical trick. A large number of American merchants had suffered a variety of depredations at the hands of French cruisers, for which there was no cause or excuse. Vessels had been seized, taken into prize courts and condemned, cargoes had been destroyed, and damage had been inflicted to the extent of several millions of dollars. There was no state of war between the two countries, and, when called upon for an explanation, the French only gave the somewhat depressing reply that their patriotism was aroused to such a pitch that they could not readily distinguish between the vessels of their enemies, the English, and those of a people "speaking the same language and having the same habits." There was no remedy except through the Government, and the Government was quite equal to the occasion. "Bring the claims to us," it said; "file your documents and proofs, and you need give the matter no further thought." Accordingly, the merchants and the insurers and the consignees all brought in their claims and filed them, while the Government went to work to obtain redress. And obtain redress it did. In season and out of season it urged upon France in the gravest way the wrong and injustice which had been done; in season and out of season it loudly demanded, in the name of justice, honor, international law, and all the other abstractions which figure so much in these cases, that France should settle these claims; and finally a settlement was made of a very peculiar description. France had certain claims against us for having broken treaties made with her in 1778. Our Government had no claims of a similar character against France, but it represented, as an attorney might, the claims of its citizens for the marine spoliations. A happy thought suddenly struck it. Why not

barter away the claims of its citizens against the French, and get France to relinquish her national claims against the United States? No sooner said than done. As old Timothy Pickering tersely put it, our Government "applied the merchants' property to buy off those old treaties." By these proceedings, according to familiar principles, not only of justice, but of international law, the United States became liable to its citizens for their property, which it had put to such excellent diplomatic use.

Then the fun began. The Government having assumed the liabilities of France, the only remaining thing to be done was the payment of them. But when the claimants asked for the money, they began to realize that it was one thing for the Government to assume the claims, and quite another to get them paid. The early way of meeting the claims was as follows: One year a bill would be introduced into Congress for the payment of the claims, and would be passed by the House; but, lo and behold! it would be thrown out in the Senate. Another year the bill would pass the Senate, but then it would be thrown out in the House. When it failed to pass the Senate, the House was always sorry; when it failed to pass the House, the Senate deplored the result; when, as on one or two occasions happened, it passed both houses, then the President vetoed it, and both houses deplored his action. Forty-five favorable reports of committees, seven bills passed by the Senate, and two by the House, encouraged the claimants. The failure of all these efforts depressed them. The victims, of course, got quite excited and anxious over it, and their excitement afforded for a long time a great deal of sport. They always seemed to be just on the point of getting their claims paid, when, presto! the legislative thimble, under which the measure had last been seen, was lifted up, and there was nothing whatever beneath it.

And so the game went on year after year. One generation of impoverished claimants died and another came on the scene, claim-agents advertised and took powers of attorney, the hopes of the victims were stimulated to just the point necessary to keep the fun alive, and still the claims were unpaid.

It was obvious, however, that the game could not be kept up for ever in this way. In the course of time the claimants, however innocent, and however well satisfied of the justice of their claims, would see what it all meant, and cease to make any claims. Then the joke would die out; for the joke consists, not merely in getting and keeping what belongs to somebody else, but in encouraging him to believe that you are determined to see that he gets it back, meanwhile slyly frustrating his eager efforts to do so. A few years since, however, it became plain that the old racket could not be worked to advantage any more. The claimants were getting tired, and in a tedious way were beginning to complain that the whole thing was a swindle, and it looked as if they might pretty soon abandon the claims altogether. This would never do. Clearly some step must be taken to revive their waning hopes, and accordingly a device was hit upon which shows that the ingenuity of the sons is at least equal to that of the fathers. It consisted of the passage of a bill sending all the claims to the Court of Claims (a thing repeatedly asked by the claimants), with a direction that the court should determine their validity and certify the amounts due from the Government. Such was the bill actually passed by Congress, and signed by President Arthur in 1885. The claimants were delighted. At last, they cried—such of them as were left to cry—justice will be done us! At last we shall get our dues! Accordingly they went into court and made their arguments; and the Government was heard on its side gravely contending that there was nothing in the claims (it is the duty of the Attorney-General to see that no injustice is done to the United States, and that no one cheats or circumvents it or imposes upon its confidence), and finally the Government's own court solemnly decided that the claims were valid and ought to be paid. But have they been paid? Not at all. This was the point of the whole thing. The act made no provision for their payment, but only for a discussion of the question whether they should be paid, and jocosely reserved to Congress the right to refuse to pay them at all. In the solemn language of the court:

"So peculiar a jurisdiction was probably never before imposed upon a strictly judicial tribunal. The rights of the claimants, if any exist, arise from the acts of the political branch of the Government, done in the protection and aid of the nation. For such rights there can be no remedy other than that granted by the Legislature. In this instance the Legislature has elected to transmit to the judiciary, under certain restrictions, the examination of the claimants' demands, with the proviso that the conclusion reached in this forum shall not be finally binding upon either party, but that the defendants, as well as the claimants, have reserved to them an appeal, not, in the regular line of judicial procedure, to the Supreme Court of the United States, but back again *to that body from which alone any remedy can come to the citizen for wrongs done him by his Government.*" (Davis, J.)

Does the amusing character of the French spoliation game now become apparent? For two years, the Court of Claims has been examining and certifying judgments on French spoliation claims; that is, the court passes the claims, and, like other judgments of the court, they are included in the annual appropriation bills. But then, for some mysterious reason, there is such a difficulty between the two houses in coming to an agreement upon the items of the appropriation bills that the French claims are at the last moment left out. When the bills reach the President, he finds that these items are not included. The time has come for raising the thimble. What do we find beneath it? Nothing at all? As before, ladies and gentlemen, nothing whatever.

THE EUROPEAN PROSPECT.

EUROPEAN statesmen and financiers are again discussing, as they discussed last year, the chances of a Continental war next spring. The London *Economist* goes over the ground carefully in its last issue, and warns the investing public that the eagerness just now of various governments to raise loans, and the readiness of the great bankers to recommend them, contain no assurance of peace. The great bankers who put the loans on the market are, it says, satisfied, and reasonably satisfied, that there will be no outbreak of hostilities during the next few months, or long enough to enable them to place the bonds, and further than this they do not look; but ordinary investors must look further. If they do look further ahead, it maintains, they will see good reason to fear war before long, either through a collision between Austria and Russia on the Danube, or through a revolution in France and the rise of a dictator who will be compelled to go to war in order to secure his seat.

That a crisis of some kind is rapidly approaching in France, the *Economist* feels very sure. Boulanger is gaining ground in popular respect; the meetings of the Chambers are becoming more and more disorderly, and the Ministry are giving way as to the need of revising the Constitution. When the Constituent Assembly meets for revision, nobody knows what will happen. And that Russia's patience over the loss of her influence in the Balkan peninsula is fast reaching its limits, and that the Czar's disposition to meddle in Bulgaria has been greatly increased through the accession to power of the Radical or philo-Russian party in Rumania, is very probable. Then there are troubles in Servia which may bring about an Austrian occupation of Belgrade, which would be sure to precipitate Russian interference; Finally, the armaments of all the great Powers are so heavy that statesmen have begun to doubt "whether a war, terrible as its results would be, would be more injurious to their people than a protracted continuance of the present condition of extreme preparation, under which every fifth man in Europe is a drilled soldier, liable to be called out for an actual campaign."

All these are things which of course it behooves everybody who thinks seriously of investing in new Russian, French, Italian, or Hungarian loans to take into account; but they might very well cause him to put his money into something else without feeling really apprehensive of an outbreak of hostilities in the spring. The larger considerations are really as strongly in favor of peace now as they were a year ago. It is true that the future is very uncertain in France, and that a revision of the Constitution might bring Boulanger to the top, in the character, if not of dictator, of a sort of lord protector of the Republic. But anyone who thinks Boulanger would rush into war, and would have the French people at his back in doing so, overlooks the fact that the French have undertaken no war, since they repelled the Duke of Brunswick's invasion, without having either a tried military leader, or an army whose superiority to all other armies was not questioned by Frenchmen. There is no such leader now, and there is no such army. For the first time Frenchmen doubt the ability of their troops to save France from invasion. That the army did not save France in 1814

and 1815 was accounted for by the fact that it was exhausted by twenty years of victory. In 1870 there was no such excuse, and the national pride has not recovered from 1870. The enormous size of the present army does not reassure the public; for the larger the army, the greater the talent needed to direct its operations, and there is not a man in France, fit for active service, who has given proof of ability to manœuvre 50,000 men in the field. Finally, the stories of corruption in the civil service, of which the air is full, naturally dispose people to ask, What is the state of things in the supply departments of the military service? What would a declaration of war bring to light? Boulanger has not given any sign of capacity to dissipate these doubts.

In the next place, although it may be true that European statesmen are asking themselves whether actual war would not be a relief from the terrible burdens of the present state of preparation, it is also true that they have been asking themselves the same question for the last forty years, during which the remedy of war has been tried several times without bringing relief. After the wars of 1859, 1866, 1870, and 1877 the armaments continued steadily to increase. In fact, the lesson of every war to military men during the last half-century has been the need of more men and guns and horses. Whether a Power be victorious or vanquished, immediately after the peace it sets about adding to its army and navy; so that the world does not look on war any longer as a means of so settling disputes as to do away with the need of increased preparation for hostilities. The war of 1866 increased both the Austrian and Prussian armies. The war of 1870 increased the French, German, and Italian armies. The war of 1877 increased the Russian army. The people now know this very well, and do not look to war as a lightener of burdens.

There is no doubt that the situation on the Danube looks doubtful. Gen. Gourko, the hero of the Balkan campaign in 1877, and now Governor of Warsaw, recently made a speech at a dinner in that city in which he openly threatened both Austria and Germany, and said that, should the occasion arise, the Russian Army would know the road both to Vienna and Berlin. But probably nowhere is the uncertainty of war more strongly felt than among Russians, and especially in the mind of the present Czar. The war of 1877, which was a great military success, left Russia worse off on the Danube, and further away from Constantinople, than she was before she undertook it; and yet she had nobody to deal with but the Turks in the field and the British on paper. What would be the issue of a collision with the combined Austrian and German armies, nobody can guess—the Czar no better than anybody else. Statesmen do not run over all these considerations in public; but that they weigh heavily on their decisions there can be no doubt. To call out the strength which every nation now puts into military operations, involves responsibility so tremendous that the men who will lightly venture on it will probably become rarer and rarer. There is no man now on the European stage who has the kind of courage that it needs except Bismarck, and most likely advancing years have taken it even from him.

THE GUADALUPE VIRGIN.

RECENT events in Mexico have called unusual attention to the patron saint of that country, Our Lady of Guadalupe. A native writer has taken advantage of the popular interest, and has published what may be called an attempt to give the natural history of the famous apparition of 1531. Every volume of Mexican travels, from Bernal Diaz to the compilations of the latest newspaper correspondent, has given an account, in one way or another, of the miraculous appearance of the Virgin to Juan Diego on the spot where now stands the shrine built in her honor; and the details of the story are familiar to all readers. Such narratives get scant courtesy at the hands of intelligent men nowadays. Curt dismissal, as but a new instance of a popular delusion, or a fabrication of the priesthood, is the most they can expect. But such a study as the one referred to, which seeks in contemporaneous records the raw material out of which the story grew or was framed, must always have an interest of its own, if only as being a new triumph of reason over superstition.

Considerable importance attaches to the very name Guadalupe. By this name, so the story runs, the Virgin directed that her miraculously painted picture should be called. But she was talking to an Indian, and presumably in one of the Nahua dialects. Now, it is affirmed by competent scholars that the letters *d* and *g* do not occur in those languages, and that the nearest an Aztec could come to saying Guadalupe would be *Tecuatalope*. The ancient name of the hill where the apparition is said to have taken place was Tepeyac. Whence, then, came the name Guadalupe? No certainly-traced connection can be made out, but it is a fact of great significance that Spain had her own Lady of Guadalupe, before the Conquest. According to the 'Monarquía de España' of Salazar, a Virgin known by that name was the object of special worship in Cáceres, a small village of the Province of Andalusia. Very suggestively, though at the same time very aggravatingly, since the clue leads to nothing, the historian says that Hernan Cortes was much given to the service of this Virgin, and that he had placed in her shrine a silver lamp and a scorpion of gold encrusted with emeralds. This last, of course, was a votive offering. Now, Mexican history reveals no connection at all between Cortes and the Mexican Virgin of Guadalupe; yet, under the circumstances, it is easy to believe that one existed of which all trace has been lost. At any rate, it is worth knowing that a Virgin of Guadalupe was no novelty to the conquering Spaniards. In fact, a report of a Viceroy to Philip II., in 1575, says that the Mexican Virgin was called Guadalupan, from her resemblance to one of the same name in Spain.

Among the direct antecedents of the special cult of the Virgin on the hill of Tepeyac must be taken into account the well-established fact that the same spot had long been the scene of pagan rites of great religious importance. The Indians regarded the place as sacred long before they were taught to venerate it by the priests of Spain. Sahagun, for example, relates that the temple to the Virgin but succeeded an older one of the Aztecs in the same locality. The same Catholic historian also says that, just as the Indians now gather from leagues around to share in the great festival of Guadalupe Day, December 12, so in pagan times thronging multitudes used to go yearly to the same place to join in one of the greatest of the heathen feasts. More striking still is it to notice the deity formerly worshipped on the spot where now the Virgin is held in such veneration. It was one of the seats of Tonantzin. That word is variously translated "Mother of the Gods" or "Queen of the Virgins." Thus no violent wrench in the religious ideas of the natives was required in their transition from one faith to another.

As indicative of the willingness of the monks who accompanied the Spaniards to utilize the preconceptions of the Indians for their own purposes, it is worthy of mention that the Franciscans early had a hermitage upon the hill of Tepeyac. This they had dedicated to the special worship of the Virgin Mary, though she was not yet known as the Virgin of Guadalupe. Even after the apparition was said to have taken place, and the Christian service had been introduced, many of the old Indian rites, dances, songs, etc., continued to be in use, as is attested by writers who were scandalized by the fact. Thus the good monk Sahagun says of the Indians: "And still they come great distances to seek their Tonantzin, just as they used to do, and this devotion is highly suspicious, since there are churches of Our Lady everywhere, but they do not go to them; yet they keep on coming leagues to their Tonantzin"; and Tanco witnesses to the mixture of heathen with Christian ceremonies that long prevailed at the Guadalupe shrine. Add the fact that others of the modern holy places of Mexico have borrowed no small part of their sanctity from foregoing pagan times—this is the case, for example, with the seat of the other renowned Mexican Virgin, Our Lady of Remedios—and it will not be hard to imagine how deft fingers put the new Christian patch in the old pagan garment.

It was not until 1757 that the Holy See granted the request of its Mexican subjects, and gave permission for the religious celebration of Guadalupe Day, assigning the proper prayers and offices. Even in the decree conceding this, Benedict XIV. used language which is very cautious, and does not commit the Church to actual belief in the apparition. This was observed by Juan Bautista Muñoz, who read an essay on the question before the Royal Academy of History of Madrid in 1794. And the Academy itself, in the "notice" which it prefixed to the essay in its published proceedings, said: "The careful and reverent criticism with which this scholar examines the origin and growth of these popular legends, demonstrating by means of trustworthy documents their want of solid truthfulness, and, at the same time, the reasonableness of the worship paid the sacred painting, always to be held in respect even if it never appeared in the way alleged, is wholly in keeping with the reserve and distrust with which the Holy See looked upon the popular belief." In close, if surprising, keeping with this is the pastoral of the Mexican Bishop of Tamaulipas, dated October 15, 1887. Its material parts are as follows:

"Inasmuch as certain priests have asked what they ought to say to those believers and sceptics of their respective parishes who inquire of them if the apparition of Our Lady of Guadalupe must be considered a dogma of faith defined by Benedict XIV., or at least by the present Archbishops of Mexico, these priests saying that the difficulties raised by the Protestants on this point are causing great harm to the faithful, the Most Illustrious and Reverend Bishop makes the following reply:

"'The Catholic Truth is as clear as noonday, and so should be its preaching and teaching to all believers. We desire and command that all our priests imitate the Apostle Paul in knowing only *Jesum Christum et hunc crucifixum* (1 Cor. 2, 2). Neither we nor any other Bishop, except the Roman Pontiff, can give definitions of faith. Benedict XIV. simply conceded, what was besought, that by the mediation of Our Lady of Guadalupe our prayers might be offered before the Throne of God, assigning also the proper offices; which act signifies only that such a service is pious and good, without saying anything in reference to a private belief. Therefore our priests must not confound a private faith in the apparition at Guadalupe with the sacred articles of Catholic faith, nor hesitate to say, when the circumstances call for it, that believers are not obliged to accept the apparition. Let them honor with solemn services the most holy Mother of God, under the national name of Guadalupe, as our Patron and Protector, but in their conversation and preaching, let them not speak of the apparition of Tepeyac.'"

This pastoral letter was called forth amid the general excitement aroused a year ago by the proposed temporary transfer of the Guadalupe painting to the Cathedral of Mexico. Archbishop Labastida desired to make extensive repairs in the Guadalupe church, and afterwards to restore the sacred figure to its beautified resting-place. He had a precedent for such action in the similar measures taken in 1836, when the painting of the Virgin was for a time in the convent of the Capuchins. But it was strongly suspected that the Archbishop was determined to give the great demonstrations, sure to be made on such an occasion, a political turn. It was feared that the scheme was a trump card of the reactionary party. Consequently, great opposition to the plan was manifested. Prominent Liberals petitioned the Government to prohibit the intended public procession, erection of triumphal arches, coronation of the Virgin, etc. What steps the Government took is not accurately known; but the Archbishop was, in some way, led to defer the solemnity, which had been fixed for the 31st of last December, until a time when, to use his own words found in the edict which he issued, "the public mind shall have calmed."

It only remains to add that the Bishop of Tamaulipas has been compelled to eat his own words. A second pastoral letter on the Guadalupe Virgin appeared under date of August 8, 1888. It runs as follows:

"His Excellency, Cardinal Monaco, Secretary of the Sacred Congregation of Rites of the Roman and Universal Inquisition, in an official note of July 9, just received, writes as follows: 'Their Excellencies, the Cardinals Inquisitors General, have severely condemned thy manner of conduct and speech in opposition to the miracle or the apparition of the Most Holy Virgin Mary of Guadalupe.' And inasmuch as we have never intended to separate ourselves by so much as a jot from the teaching and determinations of the Holy See, or of its worthy Tribunals or Congregations, we say to all those who may have read our writings, that we also severely condemn our manner of conduct and speech in opposition to the miracle or apparition of the Most Holy Virgin Mary of Guadalupe, and that we recall, annul, and disown all our writings in which anything may have appeared, express or implied, against the miracle or apparition of our Lady of Guadalupe."

THE *TIMES* COMMISSION.

DUBLIN, December 1, 1888.

THE *Times* Commission is dragging its slow length along. We are now at the twenty-second day, and seem little nearer the conclusion of the accuser's case than we were at first. As yet there has been none of that irrefragable proof we were led to expect of the direct connection of Mr. Parnell with the crimes of the last ten years in Ireland. The *Times* has now at its disposal all the accounts and proceedings of the National League, and all the Land League documents still existing. Still we hear nothing of consequence that the newspapers did not tell us long ago. It is, in fact, not individuals that are being tried, but a country in a state of revolution; and hitherto the evidence has rather gone to strengthen a case for that revolution. As an Irish statesman lately said in Parliament, we are now having laid before us in a concrete form the deplorable results of misgovernment in Ireland.

Until the establishment of the Land League, Ireland lay helplessly bound in the fetters of a land system that paralyzed her energies, and prevented real advance in civilization. Left to herself, or the force of her own public opinion, she would long ago gradually, and without what would have been felt to be loss to the landlords, have modified the social order to her own needs. No minority could continue to hold a majority to such a system; but Ireland was held down by the irresistible power of England, which at the same time was not influenced by her opinion. Nay, so great is the chasm in Ireland itself, resulting from the middle and upper classes being enabled to depend entirely on England, that they also, living beside or among the Irish people, were ignorant or careless regarding the land customs that were crushing the country. Go back as far as we like, and we find the same force at work—a hopeless, grinding increase of rent upon the tenants' own improvements. Inglis, the traveller, was a singularly acute observer and by no means sympathetic. When he travelled in Ireland in 1834, it was the same story all over the country—excessive rents repeatedly raised. Opening the book at random the other day, I came upon a passage where, in the County Wexford, he found the people making a brave struggle to live in a civilized manner: "I went into the house of a farmer owning forty acres when he and his family were about to begin dinner. It consisted of potatoes, buttermilk, sweet skimmed milk, barley bread and butter. The farm had been four generations in the farmer's family. His great-grandfather paid six shillings per acre, his grandfather ten shillings, his father one pound, and he paid two pounds." Ten years later we had the Devon Commission, with its terrible disclosures. But nothing was done. Checked for a time by the famine, the screwing up of rent continued. The landlords held that the tenants were entitled to only a bare subsistence. Efforts at decency and improvement were regarded as proofs that there was a margin upon which the rent could be increased. "You are not the kind of tenant we want," said an agent to a cousin of mine who remonstrated against a rise. "You, with your style of living, may not be able to live and pay: we want a different class of tenant, who will be satisfied to live humbly and pay more." I heard upon good authority of a farmer's rent being increased because, while taking a son to an English school, he had the misfortune to meet "the agent" on board the steamer. If he could afford to give his son English schooling, he could afford to pay a higher rent. Ireland was kept at starvation point, and in famine times had to beg round the world.

Lord Kenmare's agent, giving evidence a few days ago before the Commission regarding those Elysian pre-Land-League days, said that then he often knew the tenants to be "blue with hunger." They were "blue with hunger," and yet there was little outrage, and, as Mr. Gladstone has put it, like people in a beleaguered city, they blindly clutched, each man regardless of his neighbor, at the only means of support available. This was all only nine years ago: how was it that we in Ireland, not connected with the land, failed to perceive how impossible it was that such a state of things could be continued? Even those who had given their lives to the study of the question, had lost hope of a remedial settlement. Outraged humanity must in the end assert itself, and the explosion came. And it is really this explosion that the *Times* Commission is trying. So long as the people continued in mute and hopeless ignorance, regarding it as manifest destiny—that state of life to which Providence had called them, to be like sponges squeezed for the benefit of others—of course they were in the main quiet. In the main: from time to time and here and there, where oppression was worse than ordinary, took place acts of violence before which would pale most that have since then occurred. The moment those arose who unsparingly denounced the system and put their hand to its destruction; the moment a great organization was started to unite the tenants and work for reform, that moment it was inevitable that the flood-gates of the dammed-up indignation and realized sense of wrong and bitterness of generations should be opened, and we should have the ocean of horrors now being depicted. In the ferocity of the people too often evidenced (men even dancing around the blood of a murdered landlord) is shown, as in a mirror, the hatefulness of the system producing such results. Without a movement of like vehemence, reform was impossible; and, looking back at all that has since occurred, and all that has been accomplished, I for one marvel at the comparative bloodlessness and absence of suffering with which the change has been effected.

We have the extraordinary spectacle of the Law Courts in London trying the revolution, while all over Ireland the courts are busy utilizing it, and helping thousands, alike the poorest tenant and the families of chief justices, to wring from their landlords the benefits it has secured. If there were any sincere non-political belief in the unrighteousness of the land agitation as a whole, those who profess to disapprove ought not to share the advantages due to it.

So far, the revelations before the Commission have tended to strengthen and consolidate the Irish National party, and inspire it with greater confidence than ever in its leaders. The judges seem to be against Mr. Parnell and inclined to favor the *Times*. It is difficult otherwise to account for the admission of so much apparently irrelevant and redundant evidence. What will be their decision? If it be purely legal, if the circumstances of Ireland be ignored, the judges may easily, from their standpoint, conclude that there was a combination against the landlords, resulting in outrage, which the leaders failed to do their best to suppress. If it be a judgment on the reasonableness of and necessity for the movement, this will be largely influenced by the strength of the case for the defendants.

There is something cruel in the costs to which the latter are subjected. £23,000 have already been collected, almost entirely in Ireland. When all comes in from the States, Australia, and England, supposing we have £50,000, that will hardly be too much. This is a small sum compared to what is being spent in law expenses by the tenants through the litigation to which they are forced in Ireland before the commissions and courts to seek reductions in their rents. An effective, statesmanlike settlement of Irish affairs is being continually postponed, and we are plunged more and more deeply into a chaos of litigation, uncertainty, heart-burning, and demoralization, upon which batten an increas-

ing number of lawyers and a widening circle of officialism. The *Times* has, besides practically boundless resources at its back, the whole force of the Government. This is an issue between the people of Ireland and a newspaper, in which the Executive might be expected at least to remain neutral; yet so used are we to our paid officials and Castle system of government being pitted against the people, that we are hardly struck by the entire Irish Executive being practically placed at the disposal of the *Times*. A small army of police and magistrates and persons in Government employment has been maintained in London upon full salaries for weeks, and will doubtless be renewed and maintained so long as there is a chance of dragging down the character of the people who pay them, and the representatives in whom that people trust.

Apart from the possible decision of the judges, it is difficult to say what will be the general effect of the proceedings of the Commission upon the British public. We should have little fear if they were fully reported in the papers; but editors generally omit those passages which tell against their own views; and even the *Times*, which was wont to report correctly, has not been altogether free from making slight alterations in its own favor. The reduction of the Conservative majority at the Holborn election on Thursday does not look as if the action of the *Times* was serving the Government, and there is something to show that the English people are getting tired of this eternal round of coercion and bickering. The abandonment of the Van and Wheel Tax and of the Irish Drainage Bills; the evident shock to the House of Commons at the attempt of an Irish police constable, by a ruse, to serve Mr. Sheehy, M. P., with a Crimes Act summons within the House itself; the small majority on Mr. Bradlaugh's motion regarding that unfortunate Mr. Moroney who, for refusing to be sworn in an inquiry into some plan of campaign proceedings, has been kept nearly two years in prison—these may be but straws in the wind, it would be possible to attach too much significance to them; nevertheless, in estimating the drift of British opinion, we cannot put them out of consideration.

Besides the Commission, there is not much to remark upon here at present. Agrarian crime has perhaps diminished, but everything is pervaded by the canker of coercion, distrust, hatred, and unsettlement. One of the latest efforts of the dominant party to extend peace and good will through Ireland is advertisements that have appeared in the newspapers from one of the chief land-agent firms of numerous farms to be let—"Protestants only need apply." The opposition of the Parnell and Liberal parties to a further grant of £5,000,000 for the extension of peasant proprietary under Lord Ashborne's Act rests mainly upon political grounds and questions of general expediency. Were it not so strongly advocated and urged by Mr. Smith and Mr. Balfour, it would have the approval of some who now, at least, stand neutral in the discussion. D. B.

A BAVARIAN PEASANT PLAY.

LEIPZIG, November 19, 1888.

IT is with a fine touch of traditional contempt that we Anglo-Saxons are wont to accord to the Frenchman a superiority over ourselves in the pleasant art of acting. Like George Eliot's "Mr. Craig," we have "heard tell" that one Briton can lick ten Frenchmen, and we would not willingly deprive such feeble creatures of any inferior advantage that nature may have bestowed upon them. With respect to the Germans, however, the case is different. They enjoy somewhat the same physical advantages as ourselves, they have no reputation for the *spirituel*; and yet, with them also, we are compelled, I think, to the same admission. American acting is, as a rule, better than British; but such players as can be heard in almost any small German city are not to be found in America outside of two theatres in New York, nor in all England away from Mr. Irving's establishment in the Strand. Nor is acting the only point in connection with the theatre upon which we of the Anglo-Saxon race are open to the accusation of inferiority. If I were attempting an article upon the "present condition of the stage" (which Heaven forbid! the topic has been overdone) I should find it instructive to note that here in Germany the plays of Shakspere are repeated at least five times for every once they are given in England, and, making due allowance for the representations of wandering stars, twice as often as they are performed in America. Goethe, Schiller, Lessing, and the other native dramatists are as frequently, but no more so, before the eye of the public; and the small street-boy, for the equivalent of five cents, can hear the masterpieces of his country's literature performed by competent actors. Perhaps the roseate view of the German stage that this calls up will be clouded for some when I add, as devotion to historical accuracy compels me to do, that Offenbachian opéra bouffe, long since dead in its native land, still flourishes here, and may be heard at a slightly increased cost of admission. The correct principle of political economy here displayed, in taxing a luxury higher than a necessity of life, will have to be counted in excuse of the performance.

But the German stage does not run all to classical drama, any more than it does entirely to free-and-easy opéra bouffe; and it is in the middle ground lying between these two extremes that one must dig, if he is seeking something novel and representative to talk about. Most modern German plays which occupy the largest acre in this middle ground, share with most modern German novels a common defect—they are distinguished for nothing in particular. The best one can say for them is that they are pleasing, and the worst, that they are apt to be sentimental. But if few will be found to claim for them any striking originality, there will be still fewer willing to deny that they testify to a healthier state of public taste than do the wretched burlesques and idiotic extravaganzas that appear to fill most English and American theatres. The extravaganza could never succeed in Germany: its flimsiness of structure is too fatally at variance with the national appetite for solidity—in amusement as well as in other things.

If, however, it is still the mission of the stage to depict more or less faithfully, according as it is able, the manners and customs of the day, then we may be grateful for a class of plays that exists in Germany, and for one company, at least, in whose behalf it may be claimed that they in great measure fulfil this lofty purpose. They concern themselves, indeed, with only one class of people—the peasants; but as this class is a very numerous one, and as its present customs are likely, in common with all other customs not conforming to the standard set for all by this great century of democracy, soon to disappear, one need not so much regret this limitation. Indeed, the limitation is essential when one comes to consider that these plays, in order to be true to the life, must be spoken in dialect, and that it is not easy to find actors equally at home in the language of the field and mountain and that of the drawing room. It was my good fortune, a few weeks ago, to see one of these plays performed by the company to which I have alluded—an admirable organization of actors, whose home is in Munich, but who spend most of their time in travelling from city to city. The name of the play was "The Crucifix-Carver of Ammergau," and the scene was laid, as in all the other plays of the troupe, among the peasants of Upper Bavaria. The story told was a simple one, containing, however, incident enough to prevent the action from ever flagging, and plot enough to bar any accusation of its having been written merely as a setting for some pretty dancing and singing. Nothing is made to occur that could not very well take place among the simple mountaineers with whom the play is concerned; and, if we except the fact that geniuses, among painters as among peasants, are becoming rare nowadays, none of the personages display qualities above their station.

The first scene, which takes place in the public room of the inn at Ammergau, introduces us to all the principal characters of the little drama. The landlord, who has just been chosen burgermeister, is receiving the congratulations of his fellow-townsmen. His foster-daughter *Loni*, and an incorrigible peasant-girl employed as her assistant in the kitchen, are serving the guests with beer. On the stove in the corner is seated an old man, of ragged and unshorn appearance, who cuts splinters from a bit of wood, and contributes, from time to time, chips of wisdom to the conversation. He and *Loni* appear to be great friends, and the young girl, who has all the country robustness of body and roughness of speech, treats him with a tenderness that she shows for no one else. Among the landlord's visitors are *Trandl*, an old woman with a great deal to say for herself, and her son *Pauli*, who brings with him a crucifix that he has just finished carving on an order from the innkeeper. The crucifix is much admired, and while it is being exhibited, *Fritz Baumeister*, an artist who spends his summers in the village to paint the scenery there, comes in and declares it to be the work of a genius. *Baumeister* offers to take *Pauli* to the city with him to study; but the lad is in love with *Loni*, and, although she has nothing but hard words in return for his patient devotion, he cannot make up his mind to go away and give her up.

While the artist is talking to *Pauli*, *Loni* is the subject of a conversation between the new burgermeister and one of his neighbors, who asks the girl's hand for his son *Muckl*. The match is considered a very desirable one for *Loni*, who is only a foundling left at the door of the inn when a small baby. But the girl, advised by *Lehnl*, the old man on the stove, and following her own inclinations as well, declines *Muckl*, a self-assured, blustering fellow, after first making fun of him, and the landlord refuses to compel her against her will. *Muckl* himself comes in in time to hear of his defeat, and he carries it off with an assumption of raillery that only partially conceals his chagrin.

The next scene shows the cow-keeper's hut on the hillside, where *Loni* sleeps alone in order to lead the cattle early to pasture. A young girl, or *Deandl* (the peasant word for *Mädchen*), is yodling, as *Loni* and old *Lehnl* come up the hill. *Pauli* and the artist come down from the mountain, where they have been painting all day, and some of the villagers, among them a half-witted boy who is always asking for a present from every one he meets, pass by on their way home from work and exchange greetings. When all the others have gone,

Lehnl remains to talk to *Loni* about *Pauli*, whom he wishes her to marry. The better to persuade her, he reminds her of her lonely position in the world, and this leads her to reproach her parents for having, as she thinks, heartlessly abandoned her. The old man tells her that she cannot divine her parents' motives, and he speaks with so much passion of the nature of parental affection that she guesses a part of his secret, and he is obliged to confess that he once had a child, whom misery and want and the death of his wife had compelled him to abandon. Of course, the audience at once understands that *Loni* is this child, but he does not tell her so, and she goes into the cabin, while he disappears in the wood close by. As soon as both have disappeared, *Muckl* comes on the scene and creeps stealthily towards the hut. Unfortunately for his ends, he overturns something on the bench in front of the door, and the noise of the fall brings old *Lehnl*, who has not gone far, back to the hut. *Muckl* tries to escape without being seen, but as the old man is in the way, he gives him a push that causes him to fall over backwards and strike his head against a sharp stone. The sight of blood alarms *Muckl*, and as he hears footsteps approaching, he conceals himself in the woods, from which he sees *Pauli* emerging. *Pauli* comes to *Lehnl's* rescue, and bathes his wound with water from the spring near by. The old man, who thinks he is going to die, speaks of *Loni* as his child, and *Pauli* promises not to betray his secret. *Muckl*, who has heard it all, escapes, and *Pauli* takes *Lehnl* to his own cottage.

At the beginning of the third act, we are introduced to the official appointed by the village to assume charge of all the wedding arrangements for the year. He it is who announces the matches, delivers the invitations, engages the band, and draws lots to see who shall be partners in the dance. When there has been no *Verlobung*, or engagement ceremony, for a long time, he takes it upon himself, in order that his administration may not be discredited, to provide one, and assists young people to make up their minds and come to an understanding. He is a jolly old man, profusely decorated with colored ribbons, and has a series of jokes, of the order we eloquently describe as "gags," all written out beforehand for use on the festal occasion. The scene represents one of these occasions, when several young couples have been betrothed, and the whole village is gathered to dance and drink to their honor and future bliss. Each village character is called out in turn to hear what the Master of Ceremonies has to say about him, and to be laughed at by his comrades. The jokes relate, for the most part, to his personal appearance, and are not, as a rule, witty enough to bear repetition. Before the lots are drawn for partners in the dance, *Muckl*, who has thought of a plan to conceal his part in the affair of the previous evening, persuades the Master of Ceremonies to put the names of *Pauli* and *Loni* together on one of the slips of paper. The old official has long had his eye on this pair, and he readily consents.

When the announcement is made, *Loni* is very angry, and declares that she will not dance with *Pauli*, whose fashion of quiet, long-suffering love-making has greatly exasperated her. All the peasants cry out at her refusal, and tell her that the lot is the will of God. *Loni* is obstinate, however, and then *Muckl* comes forward and impertinently asks her why she keeps up such a pretence when the whole village knows that she is going to marry *Pauli*. *Loni* declares that this is a lie, and then the coward asks her, in the hearing of all the others, what *Pauli* was doing the evening before on the hill by the cowherd's hut. The poor girl grows crimson with shame at the insinuation, and is angrier with *Pauli* for having given occasion for such a reflection on her character than she is with *Muckl* for making it. Just then the young crucifix-carver, who has heard of his good luck at old *Lehnl's* bedside, runs in to claim his partner in the dance. *Loni* turns upon him furiously, and slaps his face in the presence of the assembled villagers. *Pauli* stands for a moment dazed by the blow; then he realizes who it is that has done him the harm, and tells *Muckl* that he will know how to punish him. As for *Loni*, he tells her that she shall dance that dance with him, and after that he will never speak to her again. With his strong arm he lifts the girl bodily off the floor, and sets her down at the other end of the room. Then he rushes out, leaving *Loni* to bear the gaze of all the eyes turned upon her, and the curtain falls. As he is an excellent actor, it is only fair to observe that he has a chance to return two minutes afterwards and bow his thanks to the audience. *Loni* on this occasion comes forward with him, and they both smile and appear very happy. You see, this is an absurdity common to peasant plays and Shaksperian tragedy.

In the next act there is a session of the Common Council of Ammergau at the inn, and an excited dialogue is carried on between the burgermeister and the next leading citizen. No one else is given a chance to speak, and one member slumbers peacefully until somebody mentions refreshment, when he wakes up, and declares that he must clear his throat with a little beer. Some time is supposed to have elapsed since the scenes of the last act, and *Baumeister*, the artist, is anxious to return to the city. He wishes, however, to take *Pauli* with him, and as he has tried in vain all other means to get the young man to consent to go, he determines at last to make *Loni* speak to him. The girl demurs at first, but when she understands how important it is for *Pauli's* future, she reluctantly consents. Then follows an amusing scene between the two young people. *Loni* has had time, since *Pauli* has ceased to come near her, to find out that she loves him. She begins now by asking him to go away, because it is for his own good, and because his presence in the village is embarrassing to her. *Pauli* is naturally very angry, but he replies that he will go because the place has become hateful to him. Then *Loni* discovers that she has brought about just what she does not want to have happen. In despair, she suddenly bethinks herself of his old mother, and tells him, with as much show of sincerity as she can command, that he ought not to leave her. This is very transparent, *Pauli's* mother being abundantly able to take care of herself, and the young man is somewhat mystified. *Loni*, however, takes courage to beg him to shake hands with her; and once their hands have touched, explanations follow quickly, and the question of *Pauli's* departure is indefinitely postponed. The play might well come to an end with this scene of mutual understanding, but another act is taken to explain old *Lehnl's* relations to the newly-betrothed pair. The old man, who is now recovered from his wound, will not hear of remaining to humble his daughter in the eyes of the village by declaring himself to be her father. He wishes to go away, and holds *Pauli* to his promise not to tell *Loni* his secret. While they are arguing about it, *Loni*, who has learned the truth from *Muckl*, steals up behind them and embraces *Lehnl*, claiming him as her father. After this, there are no more intricacies to be unravelled, and the curtain falls on the usual picture of felicity.

This is the story, and there remains to be said only a word or two about the characters. Some of them are very amusing, and have evidently been studied in their setting. First, there is the half-witted boy *Loisl*, to whom something desperate is always happening, and who pervades the play with his cry of "'Schenk mir etwas!" (Make me a present of something.) A long, bony lad, with a curious peaked face, always holding out a hand for something to be dropped into it—he would be a striking figure on the canvas of any painter. Then there is *Resl*, the kitchen-maid at the inn. (The similarity of masculine and feminine proper names among German peasants is constantly misleading.) *Resl* is one of the sulky sort of *Dienstmädchen* that look daggers at you whenever you express a desire, and are animated on all occasions by a spirit of obstinacy that is simply mulish. For instance, *Resl* comes in with her broom, and insists upon sweeping the floor upon which the company has assembled to dance. Even after the dance has begun, she pursues her intention, and is not satisfied until she has caused the burgermeister to trip and nearly fall to the ground. As a specimen of the loquacious old peasant woman, superstitious and a gossip, *Pauli's* mother, the *Lohner-Trandl*, as she is called, is a character very well drawn. Losing her temper, with her prayer-book in her hand, she bangs it against the table to enforce her words, and then, remembering what book it is, she lifts it up and kisses it passionately, in hopes of soothing its injured feelings. *Pauli* himself is of course somewhat idealized, as a stage hero must be; but *Muckl*, his rival, is an excellent example of the ease-loving, swaggering peasant, good-natured, and at bottom good-hearted, but liable to be carried away by his passions, and capable of any meanness to protect himself from the consequences. *Lehnl*, the old pedler, belongs to the class of general dramatic conceptions rather than to that of particular types, but it is noteworthy that he is represented with no qualities above his class. The landlord, the master of marriage ceremonies, the village teacher, and the artist are all characters sketched with care enough to take their places in the background of a canvas by Defregger.

J. K. P.

Correspondence.

INDIFFERENCE TO CORRUPTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The discussion invoked by the lavish and effective use of money in the late election has so far been characterized by a lassitude of expression which bodes ill for the immediate correction of the evil. It may be pleasant enough to attribute this coolness in the presence of a danger which menaces the perpetuity of our institutions to an ignorance of it, or to the usual reluctance of the defeated to confess before the victor to the pangs of defeat. But there is noticeable about the whole discussion a want of hopefulness which is not accounted for by either of these explanations. Is it because people do not grow indignant over what they think to be hopeless, or remote of remedy; or, worse still, because they are indifferent to it? Certain it is that we hear nowhere a voice full of that burning indignation which stirs masses of men to remedial action.

I believe the true explanation to be that thoughtful men see in the appearance of Mr.

Wanamaker and his like in our national politics the symptom, not of a temporary evil, but of one inherent in free government, the remedy for which is not the makeshift of legislation, but the slow growth of an intelligent civic virtue. Where men have come to worship wealth, as they have in this country, they learn to hold their freedom as their property, but without the obligations of property; and there will always be found those who will sell their freedom, and ambitious rich men to buy it. What sort of rich men these are who find in the ignorance and corruption of voters a way to gratify their detestable ambitions, we all know. Wanamaker is only a type of them, long ago described by Ben Jonson in his "Magnetic Lady," where Sir Moth, enumerating the manifold uses of wealth, says:

> "Wealth gives a man the leading voice
> In all conventions, and displaceth worth,
> With general allowance to all parties.
> It makes a *trade* to take the wall of virtue,
> And *the mere issue of a shop* right honorable."

Was Ben Jonson a prophet? Did he see "the mere issue of a shop" in years to come assume the shape of a Cabinet officer of "the greatest nation on earth"?

Respectfully, ROGER W. CULL.

BALTIMORE, December 7, 1888.

THE BASIS OF AN INVESTIGATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Before it is too late to collect the evidence, would it not be a good plan to start a preliminary investigation into the use of money at the last national election, especially in New York? The report of this investigation could be made the basis of a well-signed petition to Congress, such as could not be ignored, asking for a committee of inquiry, with full powers to summon witnesses and compel the production of documents.

The testimony of the committees of both parties, the accounts of the banks where they made their deposits, and the examination of some of the business men who raised money, and of the John J. O'Briens and Barney Biglins who received it, would, it seems to me, arouse the public conscience.

The preliminary investigation would require funds, and I am encouraged to believe that the necessary amount can be raised if a subscription is properly started. Would not your paper undertake the charge of the preliminary investigation and the request for funds?

Could there be any better work for reform just now than this?—Yours truly,

R. H. DANA.

BOSTON, December 7, 1888.

THE CHOICE OF ELECTORS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the last number of the *Nation* your correspondent "H." suggests a Constitutional amendment for choice of Presidential electors by Congressional districts, instead of, as at present, by whole States.

This amendment was highly recommended in an article in the *North American Review* for January, 1877 (vol. 124, 1) by the late Richard H. Dana, jr., and it seems to have no small advantages over any other plan. Up to the present, this reform has not received the attention it appears to deserve, and one objection to it seems to have been that, if carried out, it would have worked to the disadvantage of one party or the other. Just now, however, seems to be a peculiarly favorable time for urging the change. We have seen the evils of confining the contest for President to a few large doubtful States, as in the last election, under the present system; and to-day the Congressional districts are nearly evenly divided between the parties, and also the majority of electors, if chosen by districts, would be on the same side as if chosen by States.

Yours truly, D.

BOSTON, December 8, 1888.

REFORM IN ELECTIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The readers of the *Nation* will probably be interested to hear of another successful experiment in municipal reform. The last Legislature passed a bill applying to elections in the city of Louisville the principles that have been repeatedly advocated in your columns, and the measure received its first thorough trial last Tuesday. The law provides that the ballots be printed by the city and arranged in the form of a stub-book. The voter's name, after having been verified on the registration books, is recorded on the stub from which the ballot is torn. The ballot is then indorsed by the clerk and handed to the voter. The latter retires to an apartment where he is completely hidden from view, indicates by a cross the candidates of his choice, and places the ballot (folded) in an envelope, which is then deposited in a sealed box. No one, except the officers of the election and a representative of each candidate, is permitted within fifty feet of the polls; nor is there any possibility that any one of these can know how the ballot has been cast except in the case of blind voters.

The law, though apparently intricate, is, as the above sketch will show, really very simple, and it worked admirably. The election of last Tuesday was the first municipal election I have ever known which was not bought outright. As a matter of fact, no attempts at bribery were made, and a few comparatively unimportant infringements of the law will be severely handled.

A law of this kind does more, however, than prevent bribery: it prevents in the first place, intimidation, which is all the more galling because it is felt by those whose dearer interests will not allow them to record their honest convictions. How far motives of this kind have in the past led to results which do not represent the wishes of the voters themselves, there is, of course, no means of telling. It is cowardly, to be sure, to yield to such considerations; but it can never be prevented by any denunciation, however severe. The law now in operation, by removing all witness of a voter's action, makes intimidation of any kind impossible.

In the second place, the election proved that when the market for the floating vote is cut off, voters of this character become altogether indifferent to their privilege of suffrage. The bill creates a precinct for every 350 regularly registered voters, and in the precinct where I vote I suppose there are between fifty and a hundred colored voters, and perhaps more; yet I was informed by a friend who was representing a candidate at the polls that up to three in the afternoon only three negroes had voted. It will be evident at a glance how much this fact can accomplish, not only towards making the intelligent vote effective, but also towards bringing it out in full strength. The danger of their being outvoted by hirelings once removed, the opportunity of making their influence felt is again extended to the better classes.

But no reform, however salutary, can be secured except at the price of constant vigilance, and, for the benefit of those interested, I will detail a scheme by which it is proposed in the future to restore to the purchasable element its former power. It is arranged that some early voter shall, instead of enclosing his ballot in the envelope provided, deposit an empty envelope, or one containing a blank slip of paper. This ballot, filled now by some one on the outside, is to be handed to a hireling with instructions to place it in the envelope and bring back the ballot which he receives from the clerk; and this blank ballot, when handed to the bummer without, will witness that he has fulfilled his contract and entitle him to his due reward.

The plan seems plausible enough, though it will require considerable astuteness in the manager, and rather more intelligence in the purchased voter than that unsavory individual is ordinarily endowed with. A single break in the chain would necessitate a new start; and a traitor would possess unimpeachable evidence of the whole plot. Still, a change has been suggested which would reduce to nothing even this chance for fraud. The envelope can be dispensed with; and, with a little mucilage, the ballot may be folded and sealed. This, of course, would prevent all fraud by interfering with the original operation. F.

LOUISVILLE, KY., December 8, 1888.

THE ST. LOUIS CONGRESSIONAL ELECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your readers are so accustomed to see that the *Nation* bases its opinions and conclusions only on correct and proved premises, that those of us in this city who value its great influence for good were greatly astonished at the articles in your issues of November 21 and 28, in which you ascribe the large Republican majority for Governor at the last election here solely to the saloon influence.

Of the saloon in politics, we, alas! all know; but we also know, and we need only to point to your columns for the assertion, that the saloon is for itself first and all, and next only for that party, be it Democratic or Republican, which holds its caucuses or primaries there, spends most money, and pays most liberally for helping to run the Machine. Granted that the German beer-saloon is more sought after, on the average, by Republican statesmen, it must be equally granted that the Irish-American whiskey saloon is the arena where the Democratic Machine men fight their most effective battles. To contend that at that election the Democratic workers attained such a degree of moral purity as to keep aloof disdainfully from all saloons is, to say the least, a delusion.

Per contra, it is well known here that the most powerful liquor interest in this city, the brewers', employing and influencing, directly and indirectly, thousands of voters, exerted itself to the utmost, openly and earnestly, in favor of Francis, the Democratic candidate for Governor. It is whispered that they did this in return for Francis's assurance that prohibition, which is being strongly agitated in the State, will find no favor from him as Governor. Be that as it may, that fact would seem to eliminate the beer-saloons as the "only factors" that brought about the Democratic defeat.

As to the Sunday liquor law, the alleged enforcement of which you say was resented by the united saloon influence against Francis, you are greatly misinformed. That law took effect only a few months ago. It was enacted over thirty years ago, but had been treated, under an old police justice's decision which nobody had contested, as a dead letter by every city administration, Mr. Francis's included. A Prohibitionist unearthed it, made a test case, and brought it up to the Supreme Court, which

affirmed its legality and ordered its enforcement, with which latter Francis had nothing to do, inasmuch as that lies with the Police Commissioners, to whom the mandate of the court was directed.

The *Nation* undoubtedly took its information from the columns of the St. Louis *Republic*, an ably conducted Democratic paper, whose energetic, though sensational, warfare against the slums and political saloons has the approbation of all decent men of both parties. But the purity of purpose of that paper is slightly tarnished by the fact that it had nothing to say on that subject until after the election and after the defeat of its party. As Goethe says: "Man merkt die Absicht und man wird verstimmt," or, badly translated, One divines the purpose and gets out of humor with it.

The signal defeat of the Democrats can be easily explained, though it must be confessed that the most ardent Independent did not hope for such a crushing verdict against the dominant party. The forces that were at work to bring about this result were many; but foremost of all of them was the growing disgust and bitterness, by leading citizens of all parties, against a low, corrupt Democratic ring in this city, the like of which, in brazenness, venality, and open defiance of every moral standard in politics, cannot be exceeded by its prototypes in New York and Baltimore, whom the *Nation* has so often and so effectively pilloried in burning words. This ring controls all primaries, barters offices, and invites the highest bidder for nomination to municipal, judicial, and Congressional positions. Its leader and "boss" is a low, vulgar, and ignorant blacksmith, to whom Governor, Mayor, Aldermen, nay, even Judges, bow and scrape, whom they address as "Colonel," with whom they shake hands—most of them would want to wash them afterwards—and whom none would hire as a porter.

Of the existence of this ring all decent Democrats are intensely aware and intensely ashamed; and two years ago, when the Congressional elections revealed the most astounding registration frauds, a committee of leading citizens, with Democrats in the majority, met and determined to investigate them and to bring the perpetrators to justice. Funds were subscribed, the best legal talent engaged, the frauds were ferreted out, and submitted to the Federal Grand Jury, ending in the indictment of forty or more "workers," and in the trial, conviction, and sentencing of most of them—the prosecuting United States District Attorney being a Democrat. At the investigation of these frauds, and in the course of the contest by Mr. Frank, the then Republican candidate for Congress, and by Mr. Kline, candidate for a judgeship, it was proved on actual count of the ballots that, irrespective of the fraudulent registry votes, these gentlemen were elected by absolute majorities. After two years' useless wrestle in the courts and before the Congressional Committee, each abandoned the contest in disgust. Both of them were elected this year to the same positions by sweeping majorities.

The registration officer under whom these frauds were committed was promptly discharged by the then Governor, and a new officer appointed, a highly respected, honest, and fearless man, against whom, though an old Democrat and ex-Confederate, the ring levelled its most venomous shafts, denouncing him as a renegade because he would insist on executing the registration laws in an honest way. He resisted successfully; and this time, at least, all decent citizens were assured that the registry books did not contain names of dead men nor copies of hotel and boarding-house registers.

That the Independent vote was the largest factor in this result is shown by the simple fact that Cleveland received in this city two thousand votes more than Francis, clearly indicating that two thousand Democrats, sick of the ring, voted with the Republicans. The Democratic nominee for Public Administrator, who had filled that office with great credit for the last two years, received, though on the same ticket with Francis, six thousand votes more than the latter—surely showing an independent appreciation of a good officer, which had nothing to do with saloon influence.

The fact is, that the conviction had grown silently in this community that the too long continued power of one party had led to its corruption, as it always does, to the absolute and arbitrary rule by ringsters, Machine men, and bosses, who had tried bills of prices on all nominations from highest to lowest, on laws to be enacted, and on franchises that were asked for. That this conviction was deep-seated, and extended over a larger circle of earnest Democrats than anybody had any idea of, is shown by the result. The saloon is bad enough, but it is seen and operates in the glaring gas-light: the rings and Machines are worse, because they are not seen, and operate in the dark. A. U.

St. Louis, December 8, 1888.

NASHVILLE AND MEMPHIS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of November 22, in your criticism of Phelan's 'History of Tennessee,' you state that "it is to this railroad (Memphis and Charleston) that Memphis, the commercial capital of Tennessee, owes much of her wealth."

Outside of her large receipts of cotton, one cannot see why Memphis should be called the commercial capital of this State, and I venture to call your attention to a few statistics from the latest sources obtainable. Memphis is in Shelby County, Nashville in Davidson; and only figures for the counties can be had.

	Shelby.	Davidson.
Merchants' state tax, 1886.	$18,145.33	$29,445.91
Personal property assessed, 1888	3,395,621.00	13,868,947.00
Manufactured products (Census 1880)	4,759,091.00	9,385,211.00
Banking capital and surplus (1888, R. G. Dun & Co.)	3,600,000.00	4,500,000.00

The merchants' tax given is taken from the last Comptroller's Report; and the tax is levied on statements made under oath by the merchants as to the amount of capital used in their business. Subscriber.

Nashville, December 3, 1888.

Notes.

Harper & Bros. publish this week Mr. Howells's new novel, 'Annie Kilburn,' and Walter Besant's 'All Sorts and Conditions of Men' in the library edition of this author's works.

The signs of a broadening of the French literary horizon are visible on all sides, but perhaps none is more obvious than the recent announcement of a complete translation into French of Marlowe's plays, with a preface by M. Jean Richepin, who is himself sometimes a maker of mighty lines.

M. Alphonse Lemerre, the publisher of most contemporary French poets, has formed an alliance with M. Guillaume, who devised the decorations of 'Tartarin sur les Alpes,' to issue a new series of illustrated novels, to begin with M. Daudet's 'Les Femmes d'Artiste' and MM. de Goncourt's 'Sœur Philomène,' and to include later M. Bourget's 'Mensonges.' This "Collection Guillaume-Lemerre" will cost only four francs a volume.

The fifth volume of 'Appletons' Cyclopædia of American Biography,' ending with Sumter, has just reached us. The sixth, and last, with analytical index and supplement, is promised in January, when we can speak of the completed work further than the saying here that, both in virtue of its extent and of its fresh appearance, it supersedes everything of the kind, and is indispensable for reference.

'Irish Pictures,' by Richard Lovett, M.A., is one of the best we have seen of the series of "Pictures of Different Countries" published by the Religious Tract Society and by Nelson & Sons, New York. The views are, for the most part, true to nature and to the spirit of the scenery, and the letterpress is written in a kindly, fresh, and appreciative spirit. A good balance is preserved throughout the work. The illustrations of ancient Irish art and architecture are, in spite of too dark a shade over many of them, interesting. The volume is fit to take its place on the shelves of any collection of books relating to Ireland, and will, we are sure, have a large sale, both as a souvenir to those who have visited the localities referred to, and as a book of reference to those who are anxious to have some idea in their mind's eye of places they read and hear of. Double the price of the book spent on photographs would not give as true an idea of the country. The delineations of west-coast and southern scenery are peculiarly true and impressive.

The little volumes of "Cassell's National Library" multiply apace, some of the latest being Shakspere's "Romeo and Juliet" and "Taming of the Shrew," Spenser's 'Complaints,' Southey's 'Curse of Kehama,' more of Plutarch's Lives, Carlyle's Essays on Burns and Scott, Sir William Petty's Essays on Mankind and in Political Arithmetic, and Defoe's 'From London to Land's End.'

English readers have at last obtained access to Schopenhauer's "Fourfold Root of the Principle of Sufficient Reason" and his essay on "The Will in Nature" ('Two Essays.' Scribner & Welford.) It would have been much better to omit the latter and to have included the essay on the "Basis of Morals," as this essay has not yet been given to the English public, while the substance of "The Will in Nature" was incorporated in the greater work already translated. Unfortunately, also, scholars must approach the translation with some mistrust, for the reason that it is Bohn's publication, and the translator's name does not appear. Comparison with the original text shows the usual mistranslations: *ja* is translated by "as well as"; *vollends* by "let alone"; "time-server" misses all the force of *Ministerkreatur* as applied to Hegel. These are only samples. Besides, the translation is too literal to give any adequate conception of Schopenhauer's literary style.

The railroad articles in vols. iii. and iv. of *Scribner's Magazine*, now lying bound before us, are quite the feature of the year, in point of interest either of text or of illustrations. They are the work of several hands, recognized experts, and render the useful service of making that which is familiar, but little comprehended, both intelligible and impressive. Doubtless, they will some day be made into a book. Mr. Kobbé's "Behind the Scenes of an Opera-House" is in the same class. Next come the personal memoirs and reminiscences, as, of Lester Wallack, Hugh McCulloch, and Gen. Sheridan. Mr. Wilson's papers on the Egyptian pyramids and temples satisfy the curiosi-

ty of the tourist and the scholar. Science is cared for in Prof. Young's account of the eclipse expedition to Russia, and in Prof. Shaler's "Rivers and Valleys"; the musical art in Mr. Apthorp's editing of Mendelssohn's Letters to Moscheles; history in Mr. Roper's Waterloo; and belles-lettres in Mrs. Fields's "Shelf of Old Books." We are far from exhausting the solid worth of the table of contents; but we have done our duty by the magazine from month to month.

The Christmas numbers of *Paris Illustré* and of *Figaro Illustré* (International News Co.) are resplendent in gold and color—the latter, as costing more, offering more, both in the way of text and of pictures; the former (with its condescension to the nursery) being more in key with the season. Both are in English, and both have pieces of music. The most striking literary feature in either is "The Garden of Terror" (*Figaro*), an awful vista of the possibilities of tyranny and ferocity in Russian serfdom, vouched for as true by the writer, M. Eugène Melchior de Vogüé. There is a touch of the *ben trovato* in the clerk's droning over the cataleptic master—"I shall rise; I shall overtake those who offend me; I shall reduce them to dust," at the very moment when the brute revives, and orders to the gallows his victims who had been insulting his supposed dead body.

A clever short story, "La Belle Américaine" (a Philadelphian, if we may hazard the conjecture suggested by her name), ushers in the Christmas number of the *English Illustrated Magazine* (Macmillan.) It is from the practised hand of W. E. Norris, and can be enjoyed by everybody. He calls the heroine Sally that he may remark, "In England the diminutive Sally has a distinctly plebeian ring; . . . one doesn't make use of it in addressing any of one's relations who may have been afflicted by cruel parents with the name of Sarah." Mr. Norris is quite right in intimating that this prejudice does not extend to America. In other respects the number is noticeable chiefly for its increased store of illustrations.

A writer, M. G. de Léris, in *L'Art* for October 1, takes note of the proposed "Congrès général des femmes, national et international, pour l'Exposition Universelle du Centenaire en 1889," having in view a Federation of Women to offset the Federation of Men in 1789. This leads him to furnish a topic for the debates of the Congress, viz.: Why are women not admitted to membership in the Académie des Beaux-Arts, whereas from 1673 to 1783 they were admitted—if rarely and at last grudgingly—to the Académie de Peinture, which was abolished in 1791 to make way for the present institution? M. de Léris does not discuss the question himself, but he makes a valuable historic investigation into the number and personality of the *académiciennes*, of whom the last, the most prolific in art works, and perhaps the greatest of all, was Mme. Vigée-Le Brun. His biographical discoveries are set forth in a very interesting manner, with the aid of portraits in the case of seven, including the earliest and the latest. There is material here for a more extensive monograph, in which copies of the extant works of the women celebrated should figure.

Another, the fifth, conversation on "Book Illustration" enlivens the *Portfolio* for October. It nominally relates to the effect of fashion, but in its discursiveness it covers a good deal of ground very suggestively. The dying out of the school of English landscape engraving is deplored, and that of etching would be predicted if it required any apprenticeship like steel engraving. Wood engraving will hold its own, says Mr. Hamerton, by virtue of its convenience in multiplying impressions—and for higher reasons, we will add. "The Critic," in this symposium, has a little dig at William Morris's socialism—this caterer to the luxurious adornment of homes setting himself "in favor of art as against luxury," and "contrasting the two as if they were opposed."

Prang & Co. send us their customary samples of Christmas and New Year cards and tokens, among which scent-bags and booklets are included. The proportion of flower subjects seems small, and something might be said in praise of this, seeing that meadow flowers at least—violets, clover, buttercups, and the like—have no natural association with the Christmas season; neither can we consider as in place these representations of "eternal spring" and "glorious autumn." Of all the designs we like best the calenders—one in pocket-book shape; another a card having a slot in the middle, through which shows the calendar printed on a silk ribbon that can be drawn to right and left, etc.

The first of the more pretentious calendars to reach us is the "Life of Christ Calendar" published by White & Allen. The dozen sheets bound by a silken cord have each a fairly decorative color design surrounding the monthly card; but, somewhat singularly, though the beginning is with the birth of the Saviour, the chronological sequence is not kept up either for the life or for the year. An opportunity like that of the cursing of the barren fig-tree, for symbolizing the season, is quite neglected. From Silver, Burdett & Co., Boston, we have "The Musician's Calendar"—the customary card background and pad, which Prof. Frank E. Morse has edited with exceptional skill, employing good selections in prose and verse, and noting the dates of birth and death of the chief composers. The musical-minded will find this much to their taste.

The first game of the season that has been sent in to us is one called "Chivalry," combining elements of both chess and checkers (Salem: George S. Parker & Co.). The publishers will not hear of anything but chess being superior to it among board games, and they adduce confirmatory opinions from chess-players. Without attempting to test this judgment, we think we can pronounce "Chivalry" easy to learn, ingeniously novel, and likely to captivate.

Mr. F. G. Adams, Secretary of the Kansas Historical Society, and Prof. W. H. Carruth, have thought the acquirement of municipal suffrage by women in their State worthy of commemoration. Their pamphlet, 'Woman Suffrage in Kansas: An Account of the Municipal Elections in Kansas in 1887, as Told by the Newspapers of the State' (Topeka: Geo. W. Crane Publishing Co), is an orderly digest of the press comments before and after the elections, as to which we remark that the Republican papers were generally favorable or respectful, the Democratic generally (but not always) the reverse. An introduction to this body of extracts gives a brief but lucid review of the steps leading up to the partial victory of the suffragists, which they owe to their alliance with the Women's Christian Temperance Union in 1886. The story is instructive, and this pamphlet is certain to have a permanent value for students of our political development. The compilation is in excellent taste. In 1888 the vote cast by women was 31 per cent. of the male vote; in 1887, 37. But there seems to be a difficulty in ascertaining the returns, and the two elections were not of equal interest *per se*.

No. 137 of the *Zeitschrift* of the Berlin Geographical Society furnishes a large geognostic map of the Sierra Nevada de Santa Marta, in the State of Magdalena, Colombia, with four profiles.

—In the inaugural lecture of Professor Maitland, whose accession to the chair of Downing Professor of the Laws of England, at the English Cambridge, we mentioned lately, he deals with the question "Why the History of English Law is not Written." The reason for this is not found in any lack of material; the English lawyer may know "that within a quarter of a mile of the chambers in which he sits lies the most glorious store of material for legal history that has ever been collected in one place, and it is free to all, like the air and the sunlight."

"Next year will see the seven hundredth birthday of English legal memory. . . . If we must fix a date at which English law becomes articulate, begins to speak to us clearly and continuously, the 3d of September, 1189, is perhaps the best date that we can choose. The writer whom we call Glanvill had just finished the first text-book that would become a permanent classic for English lawyers; some clerk was just going to write the earliest plea-roll that would come to our hands; in a superb series of such rolls, law was beginning to have a continuous written memory, a memory that we can still take in our hands and handle. . . . Seven hundred years of judicial records, six hundred years of law reports! Think how long a time seven centuries would be in the history of Roman law."

Vast and all but unmanageable as is this bulk of material, Englishmen, says this excellent critic, have hardly done "what might have been expected of them by those who do not know them well. . . . There is . . . some danger lest the history of English law should be better known and better taught in other countries than in England."

"And now, why is our history unwritten? In the first place, . . . because of the traditional isolation of the study of English law from every other study, an isolation which is illustrated by the fact that it is only of late years—late years to us who have been dealing with centuries—that English law has had a home in the universities. . . . Blackstone's work was the first-fruits of a professorship of law; . . . the imperishable monument of what may be done by obliging a lawyer to teach law. . . . In the second place, . . . the earlier ages of English law are so little studied because all English lawyers are expected to know something about them."

The lawyers, however, are after the modern interpretation of the old law, and not the old law itself; and they rest content with that.

—Then comes the question of who is to write the History of English Law.

"A thorough training in modern law is almost indispensable for any one who would do good work on legal history. . . . The persons who possess very fully one of the great requisites for the work are, as a rule, very unlikely to attempt it. . . . If they have the taste, they have not the time . . . for historical research. . . . Where, then, lies our trust? Perhaps in failure. . . . The law student should be prepared for either fortune. The day may come when, in the bitterness of his soul, he will confess that he is not going to succeed. . . . That is the hopeful moment. . . . In that day of tribulation may it be remembered that the history of English law has not been written. . . . Short of the very greatest work, there is good work to be done, . . . large provinces to be reclaimed from the waste. . . . At least, he can copy, . . . arrange, digest, make serviceable. . . . The great man, when he comes, may fling a foot-note of gratitude to those who have smoothed his way, who have saved his eyes and his time."

All this comes with grace and with force from one who, already, in his early manhood, has made the most valuable contributions to a knowledge of our early legal annals. Would that his words might rouse the ambition of some of our own

lawyers or students of the law whose fortune may enable them to follow or help others in following these admirable suggestions.

—In the interest of those who give, and especially of those who give mistakenly, cannot a similar study to that of Canon Taylor in the October and November *Fortnightly Review* be undertaken in regard to the management, operations, and results of the various American Missionary Societies, by some one who is interested and yet not prejudiced? American missionary work all over the world has devoted itself of recent years much more to civilization, education, and medical aid, than to conversion. In the Levant the work has been among Christians—Armenians, Greeks, Bulgarians, and Copts; for the whole history of the societies would hardly furnish half-a-dozen converts from Islam. The greatest success has been among the Armenians, where several large Protestant communities have been formed. These have, however, of recent years given great anxiety to the missionaries, because, having been brought up in the strict Congregationalist doctrine, that each church is independent and sufficient to itself, they no longer wish to remain under tutelage, and threaten to return to the Orthodox Armenian Church unless they are allowed the management of the funds collected for them in America. Nor can they see why native pastors should not receive as good salaries as foreign missionaries. In Egypt, the American missionaries do good medical work, and support a number of small schools; owing to lucky investments in real estate in Cairo, they possess a considerable income of their own, and much of their time is taken up in its management. In the larger towns of Turkey—Beirut, Smyrna, Constantinople, Salonika—the missionaries live in good and often handsome houses, with sufficient servants, and surrounded by every European and American comfort. They are far better off than country clergymen at home, because they preach but few sermons, have absolutely no parish work, receive fairly good salaries, are sure of a pension for their old age, of occasional journeys home with expenses paid, and know that funds will be found somewhere to send the boys to school and college. At Manissa (Magnesia) the missionaries used to occupy the best house of the place, a former harem of the Pasha, which was furnished well, where they had a large library, engravings and photographs, a Steinway piano and cabinet organ, and received most of the magazines and illustrated papers. At Constantinople the mission has become a mere business institution. The ladies conduct a large and flourishing girls' school called "The Home," and the men run a large printing establishment called "The Bible-House," where they print Bibles, books, and religious or mildly secular papers in several languages. They go to their offices in the morning and return to their families at night, like so many men of business at home. The missionaries in the interior have occasional hardships, apart from their loneliness; but each case of difficulty is promptly taken up by the American Minister at Constantinople, who is sometimes a Catholic, and happens just now to be a Hebrew. Indeed, missionary complaints form by far the greater part of the work of our Legation at Constantinople, and its reclamations on other subjects are less regarded because it is supposed to exist for the sole purpose of protecting Protestant missionaries. Unfortunately, this cannot be helped just now, because the French, insisting on an erroneous interpretation of an obsolete treaty, claim to be the sole protectors of Catholicism in the East, and insist so jealously on this claim that no American Catholic missionaries—if such exist—would be allowed by the Propaganda to ask, in case of difficulty, for the protection of their own Government.

—The American missionaries have founded in Turkey three great, important, and extremely useful educational establishments—the College at Aintab; that at Beirut, chiefly medical, which got into ill-repute a few years ago in consequence of the dismissal of some of its best professors, who were suspected of leanings to Darwinism; and Robert College on the Bosphorus, which, in order to preserve its freedom of action, has been obliged to cut itself loose from all connection with the Missionary Societies. Without underrating in the least the services which American missionaries are rendering to education in the East, we should be glad if some one would show the relation which education bears to conversion in missionary effort, and how much of the money collected is devoted to the conversion of one sect of Christians to another. Let people give as much as they choose, but allow them to do it with their eyes open, and to know for what they are giving. In any other branch of life it would be considered false pretences, malversation, and a breach of trust to persuade little Sunday-school children to give up their hardly earned pennies for the purpose of "enlightening the darkness of the poor heathen," and then spending it in proselytizing Armenian Christians or in supporting a school for Greek girls at Athens.

—Three additional volumes of the new Weimar edition of Goethe's works have recently been received (New York: B. Westermann & Co.): Vol. ii. of the "Gedichte," vol. ii. of the "Tagebücher," and vol. iii. of the "Briefe." The last comprises the letters of the early Weimar period, from Goethe's arrival in November, 1775, to the close of 1778. As in the previous volumes, the order of the letters is chronological—an arrangement of the greatest assistance to the student of the poet's own life and growth; and to the reader who does not share Grimm's enthusiasm for the Frau von Stein correspondence (which forms by far the largest part of the present volume), it may not be unwelcome to find the succession of rapturous missives now and then interrupted. The record of *Postsendungen*, compiled from the original lists, which was begun by Burkhardt in vol. ix. of the *Goethe-Jahrbuch*, is continued in an appendix at the close of the present volume for the years 1775–78. It affords fresh evidence of the astounding extent of Goethe's correspondence, for many existing letters are not recorded, while the lists show many not known to be in existence.

—The volume of the journals contains the only essentially new matter, apart from questions of text-criticism and chronology. The present volume covers the period from 1790 to the end of 1800, one of fruitful activity on the part of the poet, and embracing the first years of his intimacy with Schiller. We have here the journals from which was prepared the 'Reise in die Schweiz im Jahre 1797,' from which something may be gleaned by the student of Goethe's style, though but little compared with what is offered in the 'Letters and Journals from Italy to Frau von Stein and Others,' recently published; for the poet now keeps his diaries by proxy, and most of the entries are dictated to his secretary. All spontaneity is lost, and the several entries have been fitted to a scheme; the traveller's impressions, as recorded for us, seem like dried botanical specimens rather than fresh wayside flowers. Blunders on the part of the secretary, due either to ignorance or to mistake in hearing, keep the learned editors busy; but the personal flavor is lacking. To Goethe's home life and family the references are few and meagre; "die Meinigen" are mentioned once or twice, and the sending of letters to "Dem. Vulpius" is noted, but that is all. The lists of misprints in preceding volumes would seem to show that even German editors, engaged in a task like the present one, sometimes nod.

—News has been received, under date of Godthaab, October 4, that Frithiof Nansen, the young and daring Curator of the Bergen Museum, and leader of the Danish expedition which was fitted out last summer for the passage from east to west of the Greenland ice, has successfully reached the west coast, after a perilous journey across the interior of forty-six days. The crossing of the great inland ice began at Uminik, somewhat north of the sixty-first parallel of latitude, and therefore at a point not very far from the southeastern extremity of the peninsula. The objective point of emergence was Christianshaab, a small colony on Disco Bay, situated beyond the sixty-eighth parallel; but furious snowdrifts, coupled with other difficulties of passage, obliged the party to seek a more southerly course, with the result of landing them at Ameralik Fjord, near Godthaab. By comparing these points, it will be observed that the transit was made across only the southwestern corner of Greenland; and consequently, while due credit must be given to the explorers for what has actually been accomplished, it can scarcely be said that the expedition has effected its full purpose of making known the true interior of this *terra incognita* of geographers. The actual details of exploration have not yet been made public, but sufficient is patent to indicate that the entire region is one vast ice-bound area, unrelieved by the oases which had been conjectured on purely theoretical grounds by Nordenskjöld, and which that explorer, in a somewhat less fortunate expedition, himself failed to find.

—Whether we have in these apparently endless ice-fields the remains of the glacial period of geologists, or merely the self-succeeding deposits of snow and ice which have normally accumulated in a region of vast precipitation and comparatively little melting, must be left for future explorers to determine. The same holds true with regard to the determination of the thickness of the ice itself, and of the configuration or relief of land-surface underlying the ice. It is certainly a little anomalous that in a region where the cloud-line descends to so low a level as it does in Greenland, the snow accumulation over the far interior, at an elevation of from two to three miles, should be so prodigious as present researches seem to indicate. Or may it after all be that, further to the north, and deeper in the interior, there is a diminution in the extent of the ice-cap, or even a complete disappearance, as has been suggested by Nordenskjöld? The highest elevation reached by Nansen and his party was about 10,000 feet, and for several weeks the transit was made at an altitude of over 9,000 feet. The interior elevation of Greenland is seemingly much greater than has been generally supposed, and may yet be found to tower to the heights demanded by the extreme glacialists, although the observations of preceding Danish explorers—Hammer, Holm, and others—tended to the conclusion that the interior, instead of gradually rising, sloped off towards the north and east. Determinations made from an altitude of some 7,000 feet, except in so far as isolated mountain summits rose above this point, indicated a negative horizon. Comparatively little discomfort ap-

pears to have been experienced by the party during their wanderings, which were interrupted by snow only for a period of four days. The extreme temperature recorded was between 40° and 60° F.

TRAINING THE MEMORY.

"*Loisette*" *Exposed*, together with Loisette's Complete System of Physiological Memory. By G. S. Fellows, M.A. New York: G. S. Fellows & Co. 1888.

Memory and Its Doctors. By Dr. E. Pick. London: Trübner & Co. 1888.

Memory Systems, New and Old. By A. E. Middleton. First American edition from the second English edition, revised and enlarged, with a Bibliography of Mnemonics, 1325–1888. By G. S. Fellows, M.A. G. S. Fellows & Co. 1888.

Memory. Its Logical Relations and Cultivation. By F. W. Eldridge-Green. London: Baillière, Tindall & Cox. 1888.

Memory: What it Is and How to Improve it. By David Kay. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. 1888.

'"LOISETTE" EXPOSED' contains the essential principles of Dr. Pick's system of memory training, a full account of the "Loisettian Art of Never Forgetting," and some interesting facts relating to the Memory Professor, Marcus Dwight Larrowe, alias Alphonse Loisette. From this book it appears that, while "Professor Loisette" condemns Pick's system, and is subject to the illusion that he has made "a great discovery," "destined to work as great a revolution in educational methods as Harvey's discovery of the circulation of the blood in physiology," the best part of his system of "Instantaneous Memory" is an application of principles expounded by Dr. Pick several decades ago, and contained in a little book ('Memory and the Rational Means of Improving It') published in London in 1861. Evidently the Professor, in spite of his training, is the victim of paramnesia, or false memory. Before the appearance of '"Loisette" Exposed,' Middleton and Appleby in England had called attention to the similarity of the "Loisettian Art" and other mnemonic systems; and some in America were suspicious of a school that could be entered only by those ready to bind themselves to secrecy. But Pick's book was out of print; those uninitiated in the secret of the new system had little direct evidence against it, and the initiated were under $500 bonds to keep silent. Accordingly, the Professor continued to earn a very handsome living by teaching an art "wholly unlike mnemonics in conception, process, development, and results."

The main principles of Pick's system of memory training, as given in the first part of '"Loisette" Exposed' and in 'Memory and its Doctors,' are deductions from the general laws of the association of ideas, and the Herbartian principle that two ideas of equal strength, meeting in the mind, blend. "An idea never comes back to the mind by itself, but is always recalled by another." Ideas that impress the mind strongly, and blend with other vivid ideas, are easily recalled. Hence, "the only means to strengthen the memory, or rather to facilitate remembrance, is not to deal with memory at all, but to find means to strengthen ideas which are too weak to make an impression." This may be done in two ways. "The first means is to concentrate our attention on as few ideas as possible at the same time"; the other "is *comparison*." We can compare ideas that are similar or opposite. By noting qualities that two ideas have in common, and others by which they are distinguished from each other, we force the mind to give attention to them. Ideas thus compared blend, so that afterwards, when one is recalled, the other will recur also. Thus, if we wish to remember the series of ideas represented by the following list of words: Book, printing, newspaper, telegraph, Atlantic cable, America, cotton, Manchester, Sir Robert Peel, free trade, navigation, Australia, gold, jewelry, etc., the method is as follows: Attend exclusively to the first two ideas in the series, noting any qualities in the two that are naturally associated; in like manner compare the second and third; and so proceed through the list, taking care at each step to confine the attention to the two ideas compared, giving no heed for the moment to the other ideas in the list. One who has never noticed carefully the influence of association upon memory will be surprised to find that, after once reading the list in this manner, it is easy to repeat the words in the exact order in which they are printed. The reason is evident. The first invariably suggests the second, the second the third, and so on. In the case of ideas that are neither similar nor opposite, the advantages of this system are not as evident. The method for such cases is thus given by Pick:

"Each idea has some relation with a great number of other ideas. We must look amongst the ideas connected with those two which we desire to retain, for the purpose of finding points of comparison. For example, if we have to compare or combine *paper* and *youth*, we must look for one or more ideas which by their insertion will establish a chain of relative or connecting ideas between the two which are to be compared. This process is, in some respects, an arbitrary one; and each particular person will establish his own chain of connecting links, according to his own taste and experience. Thus, one will say that *paper* can be compared with *white color*, this with pure, and pure with *youth*. Another will work out the combination in this way: paper, engine, force, youth. Another will compare: paper, book, imagination, youth. . . . By this means a combination sufficient to insure the power of recalling any two given ideas, only one being presented to the mind, can always be obtained."

If Pick's rules are strictly followed, and each person makes his own "chain of connecting links," this associating process may be helpful even in case of diverse ideas; for it is at least a device for keeping the attention fixed upon the two given ideas for a considerable length of time. The extreme to which this method may be carried appears in Loisette's lectures. He "uses none of the associations of mnemonics," but calls the linking of diverse ideas "correlation." The following passage from 'Memory and its Doctors,' in which Pick quotes from 'Loisette,' gives an illustration of the latter's "correlations," and will show one way "to learn a book at one reading":

"To remember the following phrase after one reading, 'The active principle of the stomach is a hydrolytic ferment named pepsin,' you make the following correlation': '*Active* . . . chief actor . . . warrior prince. *Principle* . . . interest . . . rest . . . rest for digestion . . . digestive organ. *Stomach* . . . machination . . . machine . . . press . . . hydraulic press. *Hydrolytic* . . . droll . . . laughter . . . excitement. *Ferment* . . . firmament . . . sun . . . heat . . . burning . . . pepper . . . *pepsin*.'"

One can readily believe that a pupil who has patience to work out in this manner every sentence of a book will become either a "Memory-Athlete" or a madman. Yet the Pick-Loisette system contains much that is valuable; and to those who love secrecy, the Professor's instruction is probably worth what it costs.

'Memory Systems New and Old' gives an historical sketch of the Memory Doctors from Simonides to "Loisette." To this is appended an extensive bibliography of literature upon memory and mnemonics, and an account of the Loisette-Fellows controversy. This second part of the book reveals the interesting fact, that, upon the first appearance of '"Loisette" Exposed,' Loisette in vain offered $6,000 for the withdrawal of the book from the market, afterwards obtained an injunction from the Supreme Court restraining the sale of it while the legal action was pending, and finally effected a compromise by buying the unsold copies of the book together with the plates for $4,000. As "Loisette" continues to advertise his "Marvellous Memory Discovery," we would recommend the works of Pick and this book by Middleton and Fellows as valuable preliminary reading for those intending to become members of the "Loisettian School."

Of all the various mnemonic systems ever taught, it is safe to say that those of Pick and his pupils are the best. The ancient systems, with their principles of localization and visualization—by the imagination connecting the thing to be remembered with some definite place, perhaps in a real or imaginary house—are helpful only to a certain class of minds. The mediæval systems, with their good advice, and prescription of drugs, pills, perfumes, sneezing powders, plasters, and good living, are little improvement upon the ancient systems on which they are based. And a large part of the modern systems, with their nonsense words, stories, correlations, doggerel rhymes, vile puns, and keys larger than the doors they are to unlock, tend to madness. But the system of Pick and the various modifications of it contain, amid whatever amount of mnemonic chaff, the genuine wheat of sound psychology.

'Memory: Its Logical Relations and Cultivation' is written by a physician. In opposition to the view of Bain and others, that a reproduced impression occupies the same parts of the brain as the original impression, the author endeavors to prove "that memory is a definite faculty, and has its seat in the basal ganglion of the brain, separate from, but associated with, all the other faculties of the mind." This "faculty" he divides into "sensory memory" and "motor memory," and locates the former in the optic thalami, the latter in the corpora striata. Leaving this doubtful physiology and the author's phrenological psychology, the rest of the book is more valuable, treating, among other topics, of "the connection between the motor and the sensory memories," the border-land of memory proper, where unconscious or automatic activities are performed, and, finally, the "cultivation of memory." The author gives some sensible advice in regard to the necessity of good health, so that one may do mental work "when the nervous force is abundant." And one of the best parts of the book is the list of rules for the cultivation of "the motor memory." This refers to "the memory required for the performance of co-ordinated muscular movements which have to be learnt."

The last book upon our list is a work of much study and research, containing a vast number of footnotes with quotations in support of the text. The book might serve as an anthology on the subject of memory. To one, however, who is not satisfied with this multitude of fragments, but would refer to the writers mentioned, the author's method is very tantalizing, for he nowhere gives a reference to the work and chapter quoted. Mr. Kay's views of memory are very different from those expressed in the book just noticed. In his opinion, "not the brain alone, but the whole body, is the true

seat of memory." Thus, "when a sensation that has once been in the mind is recalled, the same parts are affected and the same physical conditions reproduced as when it was originally present." Accordingly, a good part of the book is devoted to a study of the nervous system, the senses, the relation of the mind to the body, and our unconscious mental processes. This presentation of physiological psychology is generally good, and shows an acquaintance with modern science; but amid so much evidence of untiring research, it strikes one as strange that the author constantly appeals to Sir William Hamilton, Dr. Carpenter, and Prof. Bain, and ignores Lotze, Fechner, and Wundt. Perhaps the most serious defects of the book are due to a lack of familiarity with German studies in psycho-physics. Of the hundreds of quotations given, comparatively few are from German writers; and the author makes no mention of the experimental studies of memory by Ebbinghaus and others. Another lack, more readily pardoned on account of Ribot's excellent monograph, is the absence of any study of diseases of memory, and the anomalous conditions that appear in insanity and hypnotic states; nor does the author give any historical sketch of the various conceptions of memory that have been held in the past. But while the book lacks much that is necessary to a complete study, it is by far the best work yet written upon the general subject of memory.

The means of improving the memory, according to Mr. Kay, is not a mnemonic system, but a proper method of education. As the organs of sense and the muscles, as well as the brain, are concerned in memory, "in order to improve the memory, special attention must be given to the training of the senses." By nature's method, each sense is trained separately. Here ordinary educational methods are radically at fault. Even in teaching the alphabet, we distract the child's attention by forcing it to do three things at once—to apprehend the form of the letter with the eye and the sound with the ear, and to master the pronunciation with the vocal organs. Instead of doing this, the child should master the various processes involving the different senses separately, attending to one thing at a time. Thus the senses will be trained to accurate observation, and the communication of knowledge "made the means of improving the memory." Here the author's method is in some respects unique, and it deserves consideration.

MORE NOVELS.

The Strange Adventures of a House-Boat. By William Black. Harpers.

The Mystery of Mirbridge. By James Payn. Harpers.

Through the Long Night. By Mrs. E. Lynn Linton. Harpers.

Uncle Tom's Tenement. By Alice Wellington Rollins. Boston: W. E. Smythe Co.

The Young Seigneur. By Wilfrid Chateauclair. Montreal: Wm. Drysdale & Co.

Amos Kilbright, and Other Stories. By Frank R. Stockton. Charles Scribner's Sons.

A HESITATION about disturbing agreeable memories may deter those who ten years or so ago loitered through England at the wheels of Mr. Black's "Phaeton" from accompanying him on a similar journey in a "House Boat." Such misers of pleasurable impressions may cast aside caution and embark with assurance of enjoyment on the *Nameless Barge*. They will renew acquaintance with Queen Tita, as gracefully inconsequent in maturity as in youth, and with that insignificant person, her husband, whose irony has taken on flavor with years. If Belle's absence is to be regretted, Peggy is a charming substitute, and her banjo no less romantic an appurtenance than was Belle's zither. Peggy's love affair with the middle-aged Scotch warrior may not stir such sympathetic emotion as did that between Belle and the ingenuous Uhlan of fierce moustaches, yet the case of crabbed age and youth is not too flagrant to excite disapprobation. Peggy, even if deprived of the adventitious fascination of a banjo, would be a delightful creature, and no nation except the United States has the slightest claim upon her. She is the happy medium between immodest effrontery and self-conscious prudishness. Her vivacity and self-possession are thoroughly American, and her irrepressible coquetry has an innocence and audacity possible only to girls who think no evil because they have never been hedged in by restraints which inevitably suggest its existence. She makes a striking figurehead for the *Nameless Barge*, and permeates with her abounding vitality all the scraps of song and story. Though the water-ways of England are not strictly suggestive of Scotch history, Mr. Black's loyalty to the Highlands is sufficient reason for a detailed narrative of Prince Charlie's sorrows and of the devotion of Cameron of Lochiel. Any one who, by the reading of Vernon Lee's violent denunciations of the "drunken brute," in her 'Countess of Albany,' may have lost sight of the gallant and brilliant Charles Edward of '45, is commended to the perusal of Queen Tita's glowing narrative and plea for the defence. Several other historical episodes are similarly invested with new life by the manner of their telling. The manner of the book is its distinction. It is a light, fluent, informal manner, and has, besides, the rare quality of repose without an insinuation of stupidity.

If to repeat one's self in fiction, however acceptably, be an offence, then Mr. Black is of course culpable, but at least he is not so comprehensively criminal as are his compatriots who repeat both themselves and their multitudinous colleagues. Mr. James Payn is a veteran offender. He believes in a plot, and whenever he wants one, he goes fishing with a dragnet on the high seas of romantic intrigue. Whatever he may land is as much his as another's, and with great cheerfulness and deftness he proceeds to arrange his hap-hazard catch in the way that shall most cleverly conceal its "ancient and fish-like smell." When he went fishing for the wherewithal to concoct 'The Mystery of Mirbridge,' he struck a school of ruthless villains and one of rural innocents. The common waters of romance abound in these species and they always swim in company. Along with the villains and the innocents came an English nobleman, sharing about equally the qualities of his sharply contrasted society, and with additional weaknesses peculiar to the class in which he was unfortunately born. Lord Trevor's folly is the foundation of the mystery, which, from the start, is not profound, yet is carefully revealed by the author many times before the finish.

Mrs. Lynn Linton's affections unquestionably cling to plot, but she never arrives at superb indifference to a modicum of congruity between character and conduct. Several of the characters in 'Through the Long Night' are so carefully studied from life and so confidently developed that their effective force is scarcely diminished by their relation to a sequence of stereotyped events. The newest of these characters in fiction, and perhaps the rarest in life, is Caleb Stagg, who, inheriting the uncouth person, tongue, and manners of plebeian parents, has a refinement of sentiment in pitiable contrast to his external vulgarities. He is truly one of Nature's noblemen, and it would be possible to forget that he is an "omad'haun" if Mrs. Linton were less addicted to the use of this unusual, disparaging epithet. Though the signs of the times point to the supplanting of the English aristocracy by the English plutocracy, it is difficult to believe that the picture drawn by Mrs. Linton of the supreme power of wealth is not an exaggeration. The spectacle of the lion and the lamb lying down together could not be more surprising than that of an Earl's daughter cherishing a platonic friendship for Caleb Stagg, a man recently emancipated, by his father's lucky strike, from the miner's pick and shovel; or than that of the Earl himself affably dining at the table of an ex-female cook. Such instances of the levelling tendency of the gold that glitters are not morally shocking, but there is something repulsive about its effect on well-born mothers with beautiful daughters to sell. Mrs. Linton is a social essayist of keen perception and chary of immoderate assertion, yet she says that her Mrs. Clanricarde, who threw the unwilling Estelle at Caleb Stagg's head, is emphatically a modern mother, who "will welcome as her son-in-law a moral leper or a physical, if sufficiently well-gilded." Mr. Anthony Harford, who buys Estelle, declined with thanks by Stagg, announces the advent of the "cow-boy" in English fiction. Thus it appears that the impression made by Buffalo Bill and the Wild West Show on the jaded sensibilities of the Old World was not evanescent, but had that quality of permanence which is reflected in the literature of every age and country.

The luxury of reading an author's preface is one in which it is said critics alone indulge. Trusting, then, to their known avidity for the prefatory tidbit, Mrs. Rollins, in 'Uncle Tom's Tenement,' addresses it to them exclusively, and by full and humble confession deprives them of several otherwise possible expressions of their natural malevolence. Having read the preface, the most depraved critic cannot indulge in indignant charge of plagiarism, or in flippant comparison between 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' and his 'Tenement,' and between the literary effectiveness and reformatory might of Mrs. Stowe and Mrs. Rollins. In a spirit of mean revenge, he may say that he never would have discovered that Mrs. Rollins had "hitched her wagon to a star," had she not made such a point of telling him, and then he must proceed candidly to consider the merits of the wagon dissociated from the glory of the star.

The question of tenement-house reform does not lend itself easily or naturally to literary treatment. Tenement-house filth and misery are a grim fact of modern civilization—a fact without any aspect which stirs the souls or fires the passions of mankind. Particular cases of tenement wretchedness excite individual sympathy, but an appeal to a community for the improvement of a whole range or district of tenements must, for any hope of response, be made to the reason, and not to the heart. Such improvement is a practical matter of expediency, even of self-interest, and the more thoroughly the movement towards it is divested of sentimental humanitarianism and of romantic generalization, the more surely will it be carried on by the hard-headed, close-fisted capitalist, whose purse can do more to remedy the evil than can all the sympathetic tears that could possibly be shed by all the town. Even the

most dreadful feature of the evil, and that on which Mrs. Rollins lays most stress, the enforced immorality of women, would more urgently demand helpful interference if its actual proportions were set forth dispassionately in solemn facts and figures. This criticism of the inappropriateness of Mrs. Rollins's method for hastening a reform which she has much at heart, does not include criticism of her intention. Her motive is serious and fine, and it is only to be regretted that she should not have chosen a simpler form of expression—one that by its cold directness should move people with any semblance of conscience to resolve that "something must be done about it."

The Canadian author of 'The Young Seigneur' has also done his best to kill the poor critic's business and his quietus make with a bare preface. He tells the critic a number of things which his book is not, and kindly mentions that thing most like to which it is—a plan of "a future for the Canadian nation." It is not incredible that a critic might unaided have found out what the book is not, but the author's help is invaluable for the purpose of stating what it is. The Young Seigneur had "a system," he felt almost like saying "a commission of revelation." Unfortunately, he had not the gift of tongues without which commissions of revelation are mere honorary appendages, mystical, of no practical utility, good for decoration only, like the "K. C. B." which several of his countrymen are privileged to engrave on their cards. His future Canada is to be an "ideal Canada"; it is to include the "imperial idea" and "*l'idée Canadienne*," and its "aim is to lead the nations, not to be led." The comprehensiveness of this scheme leaves nothing to be desired by Canadians, and, while it remains in its present inchoate shape, the rest of the world need not tremble. Fortunately for other nations, the Young Seigneur met a violent and totally unexpected death before he became coherent enough really to do any harm. It is rather odd that this book should have some value, neither for what the author says it is not, nor for what he says it is, but for something he seems to have overlooked. This not too conspicuous value is in a few incidental French-Canadian figures, which are hints of real life rather than conscious sketches.

Mr. Stockton's vein of humor is astonishingly productive, and if its yield is not always without alloy, it is never mere dross. The adventures of the materialized spirit "Amos Kilbright" have not the irresistible comicality of most of the author's short stories—the conception is too farcical; but some of the details are just funny enough to redeem the whole. The point of the irony in "Plain Fishing" is strained, and so is that in "The Reversible Landscape"; but in "Dusky Philosophy" there is great joy for the soul that can revel in that absurdity which is pure in its essentials and perfectly limited by art. There is no choice between "Brudder Pete's" sermon on the seven devils which possess all women, and the parables illustrating that "truf is mighty and ought not to be hendered from prevailin'." The negro unassisted is apt to be amusing, and the negro helped out by Mr. Stockton is inimitably ludicrous.

HOLIDAY BOOKS AGAIN.

Old Songs. With Drawings by Edwin A. Abbey and Alfred Parsons. Harper & Bros.

Salon de 1888. Par Eugène Montrosier. Paris: Ludovic Baschet; New York: J. W. Bouton.

A History of French Painting, from its Earliest to its Latest Practice. Including an Account of the French Academy of Painting, its Salons, Schools of Instruction, and Regulations. By C. H. Stranahan. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Coaching Days and Coaching Ways. By W. Outram Tristram. With illustrations by Herbert Railton and Hugh Thomson. Macmillan & Co.

Baby's Lullaby Book—Mother Songs. By Charles Stuart Pratt. Water colors by W. L. Taylor. Music by G. W. Chadwick. Boston: L. Prang & Co.

The Home of Shakespeare. After water-color sketches by Louis K. Harlow. Boston: L. Prang & Co.

Mr. Abbey's collection of 'Old Songs,' with his own illustrations, is *the* holiday book of the season, indubitably. It is a late day to say anything new of Mr. Abbey's work, which is, we are happy to know, appreciated by artists, critics, and public at its full worth. He is, in his own domain, easily the first of living artists, and is without rivals who can even seriously contest his preëminence. The present collection not only is equal to the best of his former work, but contains some of the best work he has done. The illustrations of "Sally in our Alley," in particular, seem to us to be on as high a level as even Mr. Abbey has ever reached. The charm, the refinement, the distinction of these drawings is altogether inimitable and delightful. Mr. Abbey is always at his best in his pen-drawings, and in the few drawings in tone contained in the volume there seems to be slightly less than his usual merit. Mr. Parsons contributes a number of head and tail-pieces, initials, etc., which are graceful and well done, and the publishers have given a sumptuosity of binding, print, and paper to the volume which makes the presentation worthy of the contents. The total result is a gift-book as nearly perfect as we can ever expect to see.

Perhaps in a strict classification M. Baschet's publication should not be placed among holiday books, but it comes to us at holiday time and would prove an acceptable holiday present; and it has this in common with the professed holiday books, that its illustrations are its primary reason for existence. M. Montrosier's text is mainly of the good-humored and complimentary sort common in such publications, where the artists who lend their work for reproduction naturally expect a *quid pro quo* in the form of praise; but he becomes critical occasionally, as when he says of Gérôme that he has been "a Tacitus, and is to-day little better than a teller of anecdotes," and when he finds fault with the tendency of the French artists of to-day to paint genre subjects on a scale worthy of the most lofty flights of historical painting. There is much truth in his complaint that "it is on a surface as vast as that of the 'Marriage in Cana' that our artists exhibit to us a consumptive mother or a drunken father."

The collection of photogravure reproductions from pictures and statues of the last Salon gives the familiar impression of a prodigious quantity of ability and training combined with a minimum of originality or genius. Whether it is that the original things do not get into such collections, or that their quality is lost in the air of general excellence, it is hard to say; but these collections of modern French art seem all alike and all disappointing. One sees in them the evidence of the existence of a school which for thoroughness of educated talent and the general high level of ability has probably never been equalled, but one does not see a great work: one is astonished, but one is rarely charmed. Nevertheless, the great works exist, and only from such a background of generally diffused knowledge can start forth the masterpieces of a Millet or a Baudry. Other nations produce great but unbalanced artists: the French alone produce masters, because they alone have a school. Either the Salon of 1888 did not contain a masterpiece, which M. Montrosier intimates was the case, or the masterpieces it contained have not found their way into this volume; but we are shown many pieces of a high degree of excellence, among which we may mention three examples of the suave and sugared correctness of Bouguereau, a very clever nude "study" by Toudouze, and a charming idyl by Raphael Collin called "Fin d'Été." The genre pictures do not seem as interesting as usual, but the reproduction of "La Crèche," by Mme. J. Delance-Feurgard, showing the long rows of suspended cradles in a foundling hospital, gives an impression of what should be an interesting piece of tone in whites. Some of the portraits are interesting from their subjects rather than from any artistic preeminence, notably M. Bonnat's "Jules Ferry" and "Cardinal Lavigerie," and M. J. Koppay's drawing of the Norwegian dramatist Ibsen. The sculpture, including M. Turcan's group "L'Aveugle et le Paralytique," which obtained the medal of honor, seems but mediocre, though much of it is technically admirable.

Mrs. Stranahan's volume also may find a place here on account of the season at which it appears, although it differs even more widely than the last from the accepted type of holiday book. It is a laborious and exhaustive compilation of the history of French painting, and contains a mine of information about art, artists, and art institutions, which is rendered available by a good index. The author probably does not pretend to great originality in criticism, but her judgment is catholic enough to distinguish the good in very various work, and to appreciate both David and Manet. We have not read the book through, but wherever we have dipped into it we have found it sound and sensible, if not inspiring. It contains sixteen photogravure plates from celebrated French pictures of various epochs, but the value of many of them is marred by the fact that they are reproduced from engravings rather than from the originals.

Most, if not all, of 'Coaching Days and Coaching Ways' has already appeared in the *English Illustrated Magazine*, and the book bears the marks of its origin upon it. The text is in the pleasant, gossipy, magazine style, and the numerous illustrations are up to, but not above, the level of magazine work. The notes of places, bits of old inns, etc., by Mr. Railton, are interesting, but are too spotty in effect to be altogether pleasing to the eye, and the figure subjects by Mr. Thomson are clever, but somewhat too ponderously and deliberately humorous. The book is lavishly got up as to paper and type, but the cover is not to our taste.

The two gift-books that come to us from L. Prang & Co. are so much alike that they may be dealt with together. They are both printed in colors, and both lithographed throughout—text and pictures and all. The lettering is not particularly beautiful as decoration, and is annoying to read; and a rather feeble prettiness is the highest range of artistic merit in the illustrations.

An Apology for the Life of Mr. Colley Cibber, written by himself. A new edition with notes and a supplement by Robert W. Lowe. 2 vols., 8vo. London: John C. Nimmo; New York: J. W. Bouton.

There is no need now to praise Colley Cibber's 'Apology'; it is one of the best books about

the stage ever written, and it contains an absolutely incomparable gallery of verbal portraits of the great performers of the beginning of the last century. For an English actor or actress to have sat for his picture to Cibber is to have made sure of an immortality quite as secure as that of the Bostonian who was painted by Copley. And it was this marvellous artist in letters, this master of the difficult art of character drawing, whom Pope chose as the hero of the 'Dunciad'! Time was, when people thought that other artist of an exceeding skill, Boswell, also to be a fool. (There is, indeed, a certain likeness between Boswell and Cibber, which is well worthy of elaboration.) What Dr. Hill has done for Boswell's 'Johnson,' Mr. Lowe has done for Cibber's 'Apology.' He has purified the text of the second edition, the latest revised by the author. He has apparently verified every quotation, explained every allusion, and corrected every error of Cibber's—for Colley, with all his power of bodying forth a character, was careless of dates and reckless often as to the strict sequence of events. He has prefixed a reprint of the rare 'Historia Histrionica: An Historical Account of the English Stage,' first published in 1699 and admirably adapted to introduce Cibber's description of the London theatres as he first knew them. He has supplied a supplementary chapter, tracing Cibber's career to the actor's death in 1757, in the course of which he sketches the history of the battle between Cibber and Pope, and shows how completely Cibber got the better of the quarrel. He has prepared a list of Cibber's writings (in which we regret to see a repetition of the current British blunder that Mr. Henry Irving was the first actor of our time to discard Cibber's version of "Richard III": the credit is really due to Mr. Edwin Booth) and a bibliography of the writings about Cibber. He has appended a reprint of Tony Aston's 'Brief Supplement to Colley Cibber, Esq., His Lives of the late famous Actors and Actresses.' He has selected from the sixth edition of the 'Apology,' published in 1822 under the name of a man called Bellchambers (but, possibly, as Mr. Lowe has shown, the work of a man called Burn) such biographical notes as seemed worth preserving —the book thus despoiled, commonly known as Bellchamber's "Cibber's 'Apology,'" being a perfect model of how not to edit. He has prepared also an ample index, which seems exact as far as we have been able to test it. And in doing all these things he has done well, for he has given us an edition in all points excellent of a book deserving the most excellent editing —an edition worthy to be ranked with Dr. Hill's "Boswell's 'Johnson'" and with Canon Ainger's 'Lamb.'

While the editor has thus done his duty nobly, the publishers have not lagged behind. The book has been printed at the Chiswick Press; and type, paper, and presswork are all thoroughly satisfactory. Only 510 copies of the octavo edition have been printed, and only 305 of a larger-paged edition—"each copy numbered as issued and the type distributed." There are twenty-six added plates, all portraits and all copper-plate mezzotints newly engraved by Mr. R. B. Parkes, from "the best and most authentic originals," says the publisher's preface—and this we take to mean that they are after the earlier engravings mostly, and not direct from the original paintings. Among these twenty-seven plates are two portraits of Colley Cibber; one of his father, the sculptor; one of his son, who was a scoundrel; one of his daughter, the odd Charlotte Charke; and two of his daughter-in-law, Susanna Maria. There are also eighteen chapter-headings sketchily etched by M. Adolphe Lalauze after contemporary engravings, and consisting chiefly of scenes from the plays to which Cibber is making constant reference. Although these are very slight, they add not a little to the interest of the edition. It remains to be said further only that the volumes are issued with gilt tops, uncut edges, and a simple and dignified Roxburghe binding.

American Weather. A Popular Exposition of the Phenomena of the Weather, including hot and cold waves, blizzards and tornadoes, etc. Illustrated with thirty-two engravings and twenty-four charts. By Gen. A. W. Greely, Chief Signal Officer U. S. A. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1888. 286 pp., large 8vo.

DURING the seventeen years' existence of the Government Weather Bureau, there has been no adequate presentation, in form adapted for intelligent but unprofessional readers, of the results gained from the great mass of records gathered concerning American weather. Professor Loomis of Yale has done more than any one else, not excepting the members of the Signal Service, to formulate and define the characteristics of our weather. His papers have been presented at the semi-annual meetings of the National Academy of Sciences for many years, and now constitute a body of information that has attracted universal attention among meteorologists, although it is unread and unknown among the thousands of Americans who would gladly be better informed on the heat and cold, flood and drought, in which they live; but Professor Loomis's papers were not prepared for this class of readers. The same is true in even a higher degree of the volume on the 'Recent Advances of Meteorology,' written by Professor Ferrel during his connection with the Signal Service, and published a few years ago as an appendix to one of Gen. Hazen's annual reports; it is original and profound, but it has not affected the popular attitude of meteorology in this country; it was not intended to do so. The professional papers of the Signal Service in their early issues bid fair to include treatment of our unsolved weather problems; but these have been cut off by the strict interpretation of the law founding the Service, in which no explicit authority is given for such publications. The official annual reports of the Chief Signal Officer can hardly be criticized for the absence of popular matter; they are filled chiefly with statistical summaries reported from the observing stations in all parts of the country, valuable to the student, but less readable than a dictionary to the ordinary outsider.

There is therefore manifestly a clear field for a popular work based on the materials stored away by the Signal Service, and Gen. Greely will surely find a large circle of readers who will for this reason need no further recommendation of his book than that afforded by his name on the title-page. He has long been connected with the service, and most honorably; his experience has been varied from the torrid deserts of Arizona to the frigid shores of the polar sea. Being now at the head of the service, he has its ample store of records at his disposal, and some of his leisure has been given to putting them in shape for popular understanding. The records and the leisure cannot be put to a better use, and the publication of 'American Weather' will undoubtedly tend to advance the interests of our Weather Bureau in the future. It is an excellent thing for a country when its leading officials prepare elementary books on their special subjects of study. Geikie has made illustration of how great a range of writing a leading investigator may cover—from the technical reports issued as Director of the Geological Survey of Great Britain to primers on physical geography for use in the most elementary schools. He should have more imitators in this country.

Judging of its contents by the title of Gen. Greely's book when it was first announced, we must confess to some disappointment on reading it now, for more than half its pages are occupied with other subjects than weather. Several chapters are given to the commonplace of meteorological physics, and these are not distinctively better than similar chapters in text-books; space is also given to the description of the usual meteorological instruments, and of some unusual ones: all of this might, in our opinion, have been occupied to advantage by increased attention to the matter indicated by the title of the book. When the direct consideration of American features is reached, ninety-six pages are given to American climatic averages, and it is only at page 178 that the nominal subject of the book is taken up, leaving it less than half the pages of the volume. Of the twenty-four colored plates (which, by the way, are not numbered, although referred to by numbers in the text), only two are concerned with non-climatic averages; the rest all deal with annual and seasonal means, and cannot be used in understanding to-day's weather, or in solving that continual problem, the weather of to-morrow. Of the thirty-two figures in the text, actually only two are devoted to the illustration of our weather, a subject which might well require abundant diagrams. From all this, we can only conclude that American weather has not yet, even after seventeen years' work, received such study as will draw its secrets from it.

But Gen. Greely's book certainly contains much that the domestic weather prophet will read with interest and instruction, even though it does not refer chiefly to his avocation. Passing over the conventional parts already referred to, mention should be made of the excellent series of charts illustrating our normal atmospheric conditions in different seasons. No other work can approach Gen. Greely's in this respect, as far as the United States are concerned. The charts show the distribution of mean temperature, and of our absolute maxima and minima; the number of days in the year with a daily mean above 50° and below 32°; the mean variability of January temperature from day to day; the mean cloudiness for January and August; the average dates of the first and last killing frosts; and other similar elements. The barometric pressures are given for January and July without the usual reduction to sea-level, in order to show that the winter pressure, as actually observed in our continental interior, is less and not greater than the summer pressure, as the reader of text-books might conclude; but this departure from the ordinary method does not seem advisable, as pressure is not a climatic factor, and is important only in giving explanation of the course of the wind, which it fails to do if not reduced to some standard level of reference. The winds on the January chart over the Western plains all run in contradiction to the pressure gradients; thus, in correcting one ground of misapprehension, we fear that this chart may give rise to the more serious one, that the average wind of the interior in winter blows in disobedience to Buys-Ballot's law.

Under the heading of "Storms," areas of high and low pressure are described, and a good number of striking narrative accounts are given, which, being authoritative, will soon form the staple material of our text-books. The descriptive pages on cyclones, cold-waves, and

blizzards are excellent, but would have been improved by freer illustration. Little space is allowed for accounts of tornadoes; the time of their passage at a given place is said to be five or ten minutes—an obvious misprint for seconds. Weather prediction is dismissed with little more than two pages of rules; perhaps this subject has not yet been sufficiently discussed for fuller statement and illustration. Some consideration of certain notable failures of prediction, showing the great inherent difficulties of the work, would, we think, have been edifying to the public.

The subject is illuminated, but by no means exhausted. It is to be hoped that in some later year, when our weather types are better classified, Gen. Greely may give us a second volume.

Footprints of the Pioneers in the Ohio Valley. A Centennial Sketch. By W. H. Venable, LL.D. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.

THIS book is a fagot of quotations, to which the author has contributed little more than the band which ties them together; but possibly he could not otherwise have better secured his end. His aim was to furnish such details regarding the settlement of the Ohio valley as an average reader would crave on its centennial year. With this view he brings forward original eye-witnesses—pioneer explorers, settlers, and lookers-on. Their testimony is the more welcome because it was gleaned, much of it, from books out of print and hard to procure. The information thus given does not lack vividness, variety, or raciness. The writer, however, interlards his prosaic details with about a dozen poems, which often come in as incongruously as if they were recited by witnesses in the midst of their testimony in a court of justice. Such purple patches seem as ludicrous as the gay feathers pinned on an Indian's blanket.

The woodcuts, all poorly executed, are analogous to the letter-press, that is, they are an odd mixture of fancy and fact—portraits realistic, perhaps, though their origins are not related, and ideal scenes which seldom have more verisimilitude than was to be seen in the picture of the Israelites crossing the Red Sea, which was all one dead wall or barn-door of Spanish brown.

The facts, mainly concerning the rise and ante-steamboat progress of Ohio, the mother-State of the Northwest, are stated with tolerable accuracy; yet Kentucky is said to be "old in comparison with the other States added to the Union since the Revolution" (p. 20). The writer had forgotten that Vermont is older than Kentucky by well-nigh a year. The admission of Vermont was in 1791, February 18, or March 4; that of Kentucky was in 1792. Again, the United States in 1783 are described as "a larger section of America than the territory north of the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence" (p. 15). In fact, the area of our Union was then 813,765 miles, which is less than one-fourth of 3,524,152 miles included in the region north of it and retained by Great Britain. Lewis and Clarke are declared "the first white men to traverse the continent by traversing its water courses" (p. 104). It was 1805 when those explorers reached the Pacific, but that ocean had been reached a little further north a dozen years before, in 1793, by Alexander Mackenzie, who had been knighted for his exploit in 1801. The original name of Cincinnati (Losantiville) is traced to its originator John Filson, but it is not so analyzed as to show why the name was given to a settlement opposite the mouth of the Licking. The letter L is the initial of Licking, and *os* is Latin for mouth. It is only when the first syllable is explained that the rest of the hybrid becomes plain of itself.

Many pages betray careless proof-reading, or something worse. Thus, La Salle's name *Cavelier* is spelled as though it were the title cavalier. This error may be a misprint, as no doubt Willis Creek (p. 16) is for Will's Creek, as well as Caiuga, Scaneateles, etc. (p. 97), *an* insignia (p. 59), Missouri had water *connected* with the Pacific, and the date 1785 (p. 96) when Dr. Eliot, late of St. Louis, is described as writing in Boston. But the area of the Northwestern territory is set down as 265,878 *acres* (p. 105). Can "acres" be a misprint for "miles"? At best it can be called by no more charitable name than heterography. The English are spoken of as "*basing* a prior right to the continent by virtue of Cabot's discoveries." No hint is given as to any basis for this basing.

Five or six pages are dedicated to the buckeye, a tree which has given a sobriquet both to Ohio and Ohioans; but we are not told what the tree is, nor yet how it came by its name. Webster is equally unsatisfactory. He says: "Buckeye—a tree, the *Æsculus flava*, indigenous in the Western States; *Æsculus glabra* is the fetid, or Ohio buckeye"—a definition worthy of Bardolph's elucidation of "accommodated." But this word is one proof among ten thousand that the New Dictionary of Dr. Murray is first, and all the rest are nowhere. What does that say of buckeye? "It is the American horse-chestnut," quoting for the first appearance of the word in any book Morse's Geography, 1789-96, and adding that the tree is so called from the hilum of the fruit (the mark or scar where a seed is attached to its base) having the appearance of a stag's eye.

But, on the whole, the readable style of this centennial sketch, which is now seasoned by seasonableness, as well as its store of piquant anecdotes, and the rarity of many of the extracts, must secure the booklet a wide circulation. It will satisfy a popular demand.

Microscopical Physiography of the Rock-making Minerals. By H. Rosenbusch. Translated and abridged by Jos. P. Iddings. John Wiley & Sons. 1888.

AMONG the many advances in natural sciences during the last twenty years, none has been more remarkable or fruitful than the introduction of the use of the microscope in geology. In botany, in physiology, throughout the organic world in short, the value of the microscope in revealing hidden processes of life and disease had long been recognized. Its use in these sciences was, however, a simple and direct increase of the power of the human eye, magnifying it many hundred times. The processes of formation of the crystalline rocks, which have congealed from a fused mass, in most cases long ages ago, could not be discovered by direct observation, since they had long ceased to act. By cutting these rocks, however, into thin sections, thinner than a sheet of paper, so that they became as transparent as glass, and studying their internal structure under polarized light—light whose vibrations have been reduced to a single plane by passage through a Nichol or calcspar prism—and with due regard to the laws of optics and of crystallization of the various minerals which enter into the composition of rock-masses, the geologist has been finally enabled to trace the development of the various rock ingredients from the original fused magma of the granites, basalts, and other eruptive rocks, and thus take a long step in advance in the study of the constitution and manner of formation of the earth's crust, which must at one time have been entirely in a molten condition. In this minute and laborious study, the Germans, as might have been expected, have been the pioneers, although this line of research was first suggested by an Englishman, Sorby, who made some interesting discoveries with regard to liquids enclosed in quartz and precious stones.

In 1873 Ferdinand Zirkel, one of the youngest professors of the University of Leipzig, who had made this subject his special study, and had been teaching it to his pupils for a number of years, published the first book upon the subject, entitled 'The Microscopical Characteristics of Minerals and Rocks.' In 1874 Prof. Zirkel was induced to visit this country and examine the large collections of eruptive rocks illustrating the geology of the then little known Rocky Mountain region, made by the members of the Geological Exploration of the Fortieth Parallel, under the direction of Clarence King. The results of this study formed the sixth volume ('Microscopical Petrography') of the publication of this survey, and was the first introduction of the subject to the American scientific public.

In the fifteen years that have elapsed since Zirkel's first publication, the number of persons making a study of this subject has vastly increased, and during this time great changes have taken place which have almost revolutionized it. Many of Zirkel's somewhat empirical conclusions have been modified by his more philosophic successor in the field, H. Rosenbusch, formerly of Strassburg, now of Heidelberg University, who now stands as the acknowledged authority throughout the scientific world. The second edition of his great work upon the microscopic study of minerals and rocks, of which the subject of the present notice forms the first volume, has been translated and abridged by his former pupil, Mr. Jos. P. Iddings, and thus made available for the American student who is unfamiliar with the German tongue. Mr. Iddings has brought to his task a valuable experience in the work of the United States Geological Survey, qualifying him to supplement many omissions in the original work in regard to American occurrences. His abridgment consists mainly in the omission of certain historical data, all material necessary for the instruction of the student having been carefully retained. This translation will undoubtedly constitute for a long time to come the standard authority upon microscopical petrography, the only other works upon the subject in the English language being elementary treatises of comparatively little value.

Roman Mosaics; or Studies in Rome and its Neighborhood. By Hugh Macmillan, D.D., LL.D., etc. Macmillan & Co. 1888.

THESE "Mosaics" are pictures of Rome wrought in a background of Presbyterianism by the hand of a Scottish divine. As a result, they are decidedly lacking in the sparkle of the gems seen in the shops about the Piazza di Spagna, the loss of which is perhaps compensated by many highly improving moral reflections concerning the objects portrayed, set forth in very elaborate rhetoric. In the obelisks, for example, the author sees "the eternal sun, thus fittingly represented by an object that lifts its stern finger in unchangeable defiance of the vicissitudes of the seasons and the ages." The Cumæan Sibyl suggests to him that "God did not leave the Gentile nations without some glimpses of the truth which He had revealed to His own chosen people," inasmuch as "beneath the gross external polytheism of the multitude there were deep, primitive springs of godli-

ness, pure and undefiled, working out their manifestation in noble lives; and those who have ears to hear can listen to the sound of these ancient streams as they flow into the River of Life that makes glad the city of our God."

Nothing could illustrate more strikingly the author's mental attitude towards Rome than his reflections upon the fact that malaria prevails in the beautiful park of the Villa Borghese, which he expresses thus:

"The sting of the serpent is in this Eden. Cursed is the ground for man's sake in the fairest scene that his industry and genius and virtue can make for himself; but cursed with a double curse is the ground that he makes a wilderness by his selfishness and wickedness. And this double curse, this fatal Circean spell, has come upon these beautiful grounds in common with all the neighborhood of Rome because of ages of human waste and wrong-doing."

Sentiments like this prevent one's giving the book a cordial recommendation to those who seek a sympathetic companion in the Eternal City; this it can be only to those whose chief delight in a visit to Rome or Athens is in witnessing the fulfilment of the prophecy that there should be not one stone left upon another.

As to its expressed endeavor to "supply some of that curious knowledge," of interest to the antiquarian and the historian, which guide-books overlook altogether, the author frankly confesses that twelve years have elapsed since his "memorable sojourn in Rome," and that he has had no opportunity to repeat his visit and to add to or correct his first impressions, "desirable as it might be to have had such a revision for the sake of this book." This avowal contains its own comment, and relieves the reviewer of an extremely unpleasant duty.

The Eulogy of Richard Jefferies. By Walter Besant. With a portrait. Longmans, Green & Co.

"THERE are not in the whole English-speaking world," observes Mr. Besant in the course of the book we have to notice, "which now numbers close upon a hundred million, more, I suppose, than forty thousand who read Jefferies's works. Out of the forty thousand not one-half have read them all." This is, it is to be feared, but too true. Jefferies would not have died under the painful circumstances which must have accelerated his end, had the reading public shown greater appreciation of his work. We should not be surprised if far more were to read Mr. Besant's 'Eulogy' than ever opened the pages of 'The Gamekeeper at Home' or 'Amaryllis at the Fair': most of us prefer knowing something about an author to actually reading him. Moreover, Richard Jefferies was exactly that kind of writer who appeals to a very select class of readers, the true lovers of nature.

Mr. Besant has done his work well. He has lifted just enough of the veil—and this should be the criterion of success in literary biography—to make us eager to see more. Although he writes his life, Mr. Besant declares he never saw Jefferies's face. But "he followed the fortunes of this man, and read, not only his books and his papers, but learned his personal history, and heard what he was doing, and watched him curiously, unknown and unsuspected by himself." "Perhaps in this strange way," Mr. Besant goes on to say, "by reading all that he wrote, by connecting his work continually with what I learned of his life and habits, and by learning, day by day, all the things which happened to him, I may have learned to know him more intimately even than some who rejoiced in being called his friends." But, although he followed his career so closely, Mr. Besant never knew until too late—and it was characteristic of Jefferies's pride that not even his sister knew of it—of the terrible poverty of his later days. Jefferies's history is a melancholy one—a weary struggle against neglect, poverty, and sickness, terminating in a painful and untimely death. Yet it is not without its inspirations. We feel genuine admiration for the indomitable spirit of the man, his determination to rise superior to the snubs of publishers and the neglect of the public, his eagerness to be continually at work against the terrible odds of protracted ill-health.

Richard Jefferies was born near Swindon in Wiltshire; and it was here, in the meads of Coate Farm, and along the neighboring downs, that his absorbing love of nature was fostered. He started in life as a country journalist, with the one object of making money—and, by the way, in describing his experiences in this employment, Mr. Besant takes occasion to give many useful and wholesome hints to aspiring young journalists. Although one is compelled to admire Jefferies's spirit and devotion to work, one cannot help being mentally vexed at the many opportunities of rising to immediate success which he missed. He labored under the inability to see his true bent and capacity. His first real success lay in the publication in the *Times* of a letter upon the agricultural laborer. This letter—which Mr. Besant gives in an appendix—if followed up by others of the same kind, might have insured the author a permanent post on a great journal as an agricultural authority. But Jefferies, with a fatal persistency, continued to believe that his genius lay in novel-writing, and spent valuable time and energy in producing works which, considered as novels, are worthless. Jefferies never was or could be a successful novelist—he had no story to tell. His power lay in describing natural scenery and rural life with a faithfulness and a brilliancy almost unrivalled. Neither the 'Natural History of Selborne' nor 'Walden' contains anything finer than detached portions of Jefferies's works. Mr. Besant instances an article which appeared in *Longmans' Magazine* in 1883, under the title of "The Pageant of Summer," as Jefferies's masterpiece. We are sorely tempted to quote from this really splendid paper, but space forbids. One of the most interesting parts of Mr. Besant's book is that chapter, on "The Story of My Heart," which, in the light it throws on Jefferies's religious views, is quite a study in psychology. Mr. Besant does well to add a list of Jefferies's works, with the name of the publisher of each—a task of no little difficulty, since Jefferies was continually changing his publishers.

At first, we were disposed to quarrel with the unusual title of this book; but, as we read on, we felt that Mr. Besant was justified in saying in his preface that "he called it so because he could find nothing but admiration, pure and simple, for that later work of his, on which will rest his fame and abiding memory."

Frederick, Crown Prince and Emperor. A Biographical Sketch, Dedicated to his Memory, by Rennell Rodd. With an Introduction by Her Majesty the Empress Frederick. Macmillan & Co. 1888. 12mo. pp. 197.

THIS brief and unpretending sketch, undertaken at the request of the Empress Frederick, and published for the benefit of the London Throat Hospital, is smoothly written, and is rendered attractive by open print, thick paper, and a good photographic portrait. Avoiding all reference to politics, and indeed to all important events except those in which the Emperor bore a direct personal part, it still contrives to give a distinct impression of the noble traits which secure to this Prince his unique position among the rulers of Prussia, and which, in combination with the far different qualities of his son and successor, render his untimely death a source of regret to the friends of rational and enlightened government.

Unlike his father, Frederick did not sink the civilian in the soldier, but, nevertheless, when called on to do his duty in time of war, he acquitted himself with such distinction that he gained the admiration of his countrymen and the respect of the foe; and he rendered valuable service in fostering attachment to the common fatherland among its antagonistic fragments. While his father and Bismarck saw in united Germany merely an added means of glorifying Prussia and aggrandizing the House of Hohenzollern, his aspiration was to found a real German Empire, the component parts of which were to be conciliated by having their rights, their susceptibilities, and even their prejudices respected, and were to be held firmly together, not by force, but by the conviction that by holding loyally together they were best subserving the interest of each separate section. He said that he never received a compliment that pleased him better than when a Bavarian trooper, to whom, after the battle of Wörth, he addressed a few friendly words, exclaimed: "If only we had had your Royal Highness to lead us in 1866, you would have seen how we would have thrashed those cursed Prussians!"

In the interest which he took in the fine arts, as well as in every movement to ameliorate the condition of the masses of the population, he emulated the example of his father-in-law; and in the simplicity and fidelity of his family life he presented to the world one of the not too frequent exceptions to what is customary among reigning sovereigns. Mr. Rodd quotes from a private letter of Sir Beauchamp Walker, who, as British Military Attaché, accompanied the Crown Prince's staff in 1866 and 1870, the following passages, which we believe have not before appeared in print:

"The great characteristic which distinguished him was his coolness in difficulty; whatever happened, he and Blumenthal kept their heads clear. His judgment was calm in action; his consideration was humane in success. . . . He was not only the most lovable, but the noblest man with whom I ever associated—noble in his acts, noble in his speech, noble in his judgment of others. I never knew him to say an unkind thing of any one, man or woman, living or dead—not that his judgment of others was always favorable, but that it was never expressed in other than the most kindly terms."

Daniel O'Connell. By J. A. Hamilton. [International Statesmen Series.] Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company.

THIS is a useful little book. No real Life of O'Connell has yet been written, or probably can be written until the Home-Rule question—a fresh development of his Repeal agitation—has been settled. Mr. Fitzpatrick's volumes of O'Connell's Letters, which have only just appeared, are an advance towards such a memoir; meanwhile, Mr. Hamilton's *précis* is welcome, particularly refreshing after the wordiness and pomposity of the only other complete Life — Miss Cusack's. While he has not fully caught the spirit of the period in Ireland, or the necessities of her position, or the fact that O'Connell and his associates, with all their faults and failings, were the necessary outcome of the time, he has given us a well-digested memoir. It is, perhaps, truer and fairer than if it were from the pen of an unqualified admirer. The stronger and coarser traits of O'Connell's character, are, as they should be, brought to the reader's notice, while full justice is done to his great abilities and noble

strivings for his country and the whole world. It is profoundly sad. Surely such continued apparent waste of life and energy as is here depicted, and which has been going on in scores of lives working with the same intent ever since 1800, cannot go on for ever. It is interesting to note that the number of Irish voters (now 740,000) were reduced from 300,000 to but 26,000 at the time of Catholic emancipation.

Errors are inevitable in such a book, drawn from so many sources and so condensed; slips such as "Armagh," at page 95, for, we presume, "Athlone," should be seen to in the next issue; and it would relieve the feelings of some readers if "huge" were not so often used.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbey, E. A., and Parsons, A. Old Songs, with Drawings. Harper & Bros.
Allen, G. This Mortal Coil. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Amery, C. F. Charley's Wonderful Journeys. Illustrated. Forest and Stream Publishing Co. $1.50.
Beach, C. F., jr. A Manual of the Law of Wills, as Determined in the Leading Courts of England and the United States. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co. $3.
Bierbaum, Prof. F. J. History of the English Language and Literature from the Earliest Times until the Present Day. B. Westermann & Co.
Blanden, C. G. Tancred's Daughters, and Other Poems. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Brine, Mary D. A Dozen and One. Cassell & Co. $1.50.
Brookes, E. S. The Story of the American Sailor. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $2.50.
Carrington, P. B. Patriotic Reader; or, Human Liberty Developed. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.20.
Chambers-Ketchum, Annie. Christmas Carillons, and Other Poems. D. Appleton & Co.
Clark, A. Register of the University of Oxford. Vol. II., Part 3. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Codman, J. Winter Sketches from the Saddle. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Colmore, G. Concerning Oliver Knox. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Compayré, G. Lectures on Pedagogy. Theoretical and Practical. Translated by W. H. Payne. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.
Cornoz, Susanne. Our Children and their Friends. Illustrated. Cassell & Co. $1.25.
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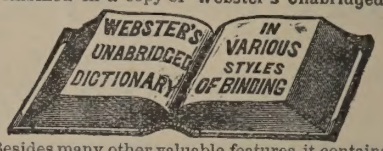

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 20, 1888.

The Week.

AMONG the telegrams from Paris last week on the financial collapse of the Panama Canal Company, was one saying that the Government would not step into the company's shoes and undertake the completion of the canal, because there was an understanding with the United States in the year 1880 that the latter would not interfere with the work so long as it remained a private enterprise. The corollary of this proposition was, that if it became a Government enterprise, the United States would look upon it as an infringement of the Monroe doctrine. We have no doubt that this is a controlling consideration with the French Government, for, whatever their own diplomatic correspondence of the period may disclose, all the public documents on our side concur in the opinion that governmental control on the part of any European Power or combination of Powers would be inadmissible. We may cite President Hayes's special message to Congress on the 8th of March, 1880, and President Garfield's inaugural message on the 4th of March, 1881. The language employed by the latter is substantially a permit on our part to the Lesseps Company, or any other private undertaking which shall have obtained the requisite authority from the Columbian Government, to make a canal if it can. It is equally a notification to the world that we could not allow a foreign Government to make a lodgment on the Isthmus, where it would necessarily stand, with force and arms, between our Atlantic and our Pacific coasts. This is the position which we hold officially, and it is the position which all parties and factions sustain. Public opinion is unanimous on the subject.

We cannot doubt that this is a consideration of the greatest weight with the French Government, and that it will spare them a great deal of embarrassment in dealing with a desperate situation at home. The stock and bond holders of the Lesseps Company might be strong enough to overcome the reluctance of the Ministry to take up the work if there were not a stronger opposing force in sight. There is but one alternative. If the French Government will not step into the shoes of the bankrupt corporation, some new company must do so, or the work must be abandoned and the money already spent must be lost. So far as the Lesseps Company is concerned, it is probably lost already; for it is extremely doubtful whether a syndicate of capitalists can be found or formed in the world who will pay more than a nominal price for the débris on the Isthmus on condition of completing the work. There are still two engineering problems of great magnitude unsolved, namely, the control of the floods of the Chagres in the rainy season, and the supply of water to the upper level of the lock-canal in the dry season. No new company will put up money until a clear understanding is obtained on both these points. The former is the more important of the two. With unlimited means, a sea-level canal can be built, but it is not certain that the Chagres can be controlled. The river crosses the line of the canal at twenty-two places; at times it rises forty feet in a few hours. With anything less than a dam of unexampled size and strength, it would put the canal in constant jeopardy, and might destroy it in a few hours. Whatever the future may have in store for this profligate and ill-starred enterprise, it seems certain that holders of both shares and bonds (except those of the lottery loan for which deposits have been made with the Crédit Foncier) will lose their entire investment.

We are told that Mr. Huston, the Chairman of the Indiana Republican Committee, has been covered with ridicule because he has been a candidate for a "Cabinet position," and tried to get a resolution through the Committee endorsing him for the place. We do not see any good cause for the ridicule, however, except the fact that his campaign contribution was only $10,000, with which he met some of the Committee's bills. It is, of course, absurd for a man of his experience to expect a "Cabinet position" for so small a sum as this, in these days when election expenses are so heavy. He must have been dreaming when he thought of getting even the War Department for that sum. We do not believe that it would, in the present state of the market, bring anything better than a South American mission, or possibly a consul-generalship.

Without meaning to speak lightly or disrespectfully of a man who is "worth about $15,000,000," we must observe that we think Mr. Wharton Barker, or his friend Col. W. B. Crooks of Philadelphia, is very bold to expect to get the Secretaryship of the Treasury for $41,000. We are sure Gen. Harrison will not dispose of it to any man for any such sum as that, and particularly to a man who, if he has $15,000,000, could pay twice that amount without feeling it. If we are not greatly mistaken, John Wanamaker of Philadelphia would pay more than twice as much for the Post-office, which is not worth half as much as the Treasury. In fact, Gen. Harrison will make a great mistake if he lets any "Cabinet position" go for less than $100,000. The War Department is worth that, and the Navy say $150,000; and we would not, were we in his place, put any man, no matter who he was, in the Interior, Treasury, or State Department for less than $200,000 each. If the applicant has not paid as much as that to the last campaign fund, he can give his note for 1892. Wharton Barker, though bent on eminence, has evidently a very frugal mind. He wants cheap greatness, but he cannot have it in this Republic, we trust.

Apropos of Wharton Barker, were not the Union League Club's resolutions of Thursday aimed at him and Wanamaker, as well as at the wretched Platt of this city? They were excellent of their kind, a better piece of work than the Union League Club has done for many a day. One of them "warmly protests" against "the studied efforts which are being made with undisguised impertinence to force his [the new President's] hand, and to put upon him clamorous applicants for places in his Cabinet, on the ground of alleged partisan services, or pecuniary contributions, or local control." This sounds like the better days of American politics, and will meet with a hearty response from every man who loves his country intelligently, but it certainly covers two-thirds of the gentlemen who are now in the field as candidates for "Cabinet positions." At least this proportion plead "partisan services, or pecuniary contributions, or local control." It ought to be not only possible for Gen. Harrison, but incumbent on him, to say to a candidate who claimed a place in return for money paid into the party treasury, that if he really wished an office, it was most unfortunate that he should have made a large pecuniary contribution, as this of course made his appointment impossible; that it would have the appearance of a sale, and, in point of fact, would be the sale of a place of trust under the Government, and therefore probably an indictable or impeachable offence under Section 5502, U. S. Rev. Statutes. Anyhow, if the President did not violate the letter of this section in giving an office in return for contributions, he would certainly violate the spirit of it, and a man of Gen. Harrison's character would certainly make no distinction between these two things.

Senator Hiscock was very much stirred up by some remarks of Senator Berry on the proposed increase of duty on cotton ties. Mr. Berry had stated that the tax proposed by the Finance Committee would amount to twenty cents for every bale of cotton produced. Mr. Hiscock contended that the ties could be sold and were sold in Liverpool, after the cotton was unbaled, for two-thirds of their original cost, so that the tax was only seven cents a bale. Mr. Berry did not understand the facts to be such as Mr. Hiscock had stated, but "if they were true," he said, "the argument of the Senator is that instead of robbing the farmers of the South of twenty cents a bale, we are robbing them of only seven cents a bale, and therefore we have a right to take this small amount because it is small." It had been previously stated and admitted that there was no manufacture of cotton ties in this country, and it was stated in the title

of the bill under discussion that it was a measure "*to reduce taxation.*" The proposed increase of duty from 35 per cent. to 108 per cent. was, therefore, a case where untruth had been added to robbery, but Mr. Berry only mentioned robbery. This characterization excited Mr. Hiscock to a high pitch. He said that he had heard that cry about the robbery of the tariff on the hustings in the campaign, that a verdict had been taken upon it before the people, that the verdict was "largely in favor of a protective tariff," and so he didn't want to hear any more of such talk for four years to come, when there would be a chance to try it over again.

The illogical position of the honorable Senator from New York can be easily shown without wandering very far from his own doorway. He is a member of the Finance Committee which reported this bill. Among the provisions to which he assented is one which reduces the duty on refined sugar about 50 per cent. This clause was explained and defended by Senator Allison in terms which implied that the present duty on refined sugar amounted to robbery, and the robbery of very poor people. He did not use the word robbery, but what he said was that the House bill, which reduced the duty much less than the Senate bill, "legislated $6,000,000 into the pockets of the Sugar Trust." If that is not robbery under the forms of law, perhaps Mr. Hiscock and Mr. Allison can explain to each other, or to the public, where the difference lies. Now, suppose that some Senator gets up when the sugar schedule is reached, and declares that since the people have given a verdict "largely in favor of a protective tariff," therefore nobody has a right to say that the Mills bill legislates $6,000,000 into the pockets of the Sugar Trust, or that the present tariff gives that direction to double that sum of money. Suppose that Senator Payne has an interest in sugar-refining as well as in structural-iron making, and objects to any reduction in the duty because the people have passed upon these questions in the election. Suppose that he or some other Senator proposes to increase the duty 50 or 75 per cent., giving the same reasons. It is not improbable that both Mr. Hiscock and Mr. Allison would call it robbery. If they did not, they would certainly consider it such. But whatever Mr. Hiscock may consider it or call it, he will be compelled to hear the thing called by its right name a great many times before the next four years roll around. The Constitution has not limited tariff discussions to four-year periods, nor has it given to one party the exclusive right to choose the terms of the debate.

Now that the Democrats want to admit New Mexico as a State, the Republicans object to the proposition, and a good many party organs, which either are ignorant themselves or presume upon the public forgetfulness, represent the project as having always been a nefarious Democratic scheme which the good Republicans have always fought. Thus the Philadelphia *Press* says that "the Democratic politicians have been trying to make it a State for very nearly forty years," concealing the fact that it is only about a third of forty years since Democratic politicians were opposing, and Republican politicians advocating, its admission. In the Forty-third Congress the Republicans had 49 of the 74 Senators, and 195 of the 292 Representatives. At the first session of that Congress the House passed a bill for the admission of New Mexico by a vote of 160 to 54, and at the second session the Senate also passed the bill, although it was happily so amended in the closing days of the session that it fell to the ground between the two branches. This was the last serious effort that has been made in the case of New Mexico, and the Republicans must bear the shame which all candid people now confess was involved in the proposition to give what the *Press* properly calls a "half-breed, unprogressive population" equal power in the United States Senate with New York and Pennsylvania, simply because, as New Mexico then seemed likely to be Republican, the dominant party thought this an easy way of strengthening its hold upon the country. It is pleasant to find that Republican organs now treat with respect an argument against the admission of New Mexico which was spurned with contempt by Republican advocates of the scheme in Congress fourteen years ago.

The Wheeling *Intelligencer* suggests that the name of its State be changed from West Virginia to Kanawha. It holds that every State should have a distinct name, a well-sounding name, a name taken, if possible, from some distinctive feature of its own, and, if feasible, a name which preserves some rich native Indian name—all of which requirements are met for West Virginia by Kanawha. Every right-minded American will wish the *Intelligencer* success in its most commendable effort to bring about a reform which was contemplated, but unhappily not carried through, when the State was formed. One good effect of the change in West Virginia's case might be to persuade Washington Territory to become the State of Tacoma, and Wyoming to take on another designation, and to prevent the admission of two States called Dakota—all things earnestly to be desired.

The *Voice* figures out the Prohibition vote returned in 1888 as nearly 250,000, against a trifle over 150,000 in 1884, but it claims that the vote actually cast this year was some thousands larger, charging election officers of both the old parties, in North and South alike, with having suppressed the record of a good many Prohibition ballots. As the total for St. John in 1884 contained many thousands of votes from men who did not believe in prohibition, but who supported that party because they were unwilling to cast their ballots for either Blaine or Cleveland, while Fisk received no such support this year, it seems reasonable to suppose that the genuine Prohibition vote has doubled since 1884. But the outlook for the future of the party cannot be considered encouraging. One-eighth of the total vote for Fisk was cast in this State, but the Prohibition vote in New York this year was nearly 12,000 less than last year. Moreover, everybody can see that if it had sunk still nearer to zero, the outlook for the cause of temperance in this State during the next three years might have been much more promising than it now is. Indeed, Connecticut is the only State where the party has really thrown its influence on the side of temperance. The Republicans of that State having nominated a champion of the saloons, it seems clear that the running of a Prohibition candidate for Governor took away from Bulkeley many votes which might have been retained if the only alternative for dissatisfied Republicans had been the Democratic ticket, and thus prevented the disgrace of Bulkeley's receiving a plurality of the popular vote—although unhappily he is to get the office through the Legislature. But with this exception we know of no State where the practical effect of running a Prohibition ticket was beneficial to the cause of temperance; and so long as the Prohibition party occupies this attitude, there is little probability of its becoming a power.

As nearly as can be estimated, the number of women who voted for School Committee in Boston on Tuesday week was about 17,000, being 80 per cent. of the number registered. The number registered fell over 5,000 short of the number assessed, and there seems no doubt that this falling off occurred among the Catholics, the influence of the Church having all along been thrown against the participation of women in politics. While no analysis of the woman vote is possible, it seems clear that an overwhelming majority was cast on the Republican side. So long as the Catholic Church maintains its present attitude on the question, the effect of extending the suffrage to women in Boston and elsewhere will naturally be to strengthen the Republican party. Once convince the politicians that this is the state of the case, and the prospect of securing municipal suffrage, and indeed full suffrage, for women will be greatly improved. Many students of the subject have held that the movement would ultimately be carried to success through being taken up as a party measure, and it is at least possible that Massachusetts will ultimately give woman the ballot because the Republican politicians have become convinced that they can in that way strengthen their party.

Nearly twenty years ago a strong attempt was made to commit the Republican party in Massachusetts to woman suffrage. The advocates of the cause held a convention in Boston September 29, 1870, at which they resolved to seek "recognition" from the approaching conventions of the two great parties. A committee accordingly presented a memorial to the Republican Convention, and asked the adoption of a resolution declaring that the party was "heartily in favor of the enfranchisement of woman, and will

hail the day when the educated intellect and enlightened conscience of the women of Massachusetts find direct expression at the ballot-box." This appeal provoked an animated discussion, and the advocates of the resolution were hopeful of carrying it, but they were finally beaten by a vote of 196 to 139. The woman-suffragists next appealed to the Republican Legislature at its meeting the following January, and came still nearer success there, a motion to submit a constitutional amendment striking the word "male" from the clause relating to the electoral franchise being only defeated in the House by the casting vote of the Speaker. This was the high-water mark of the movement, and since 1871 it has pretty steadily lost ground in Massachusetts, until revived by the recent Boston incident, which may easily prove to have made it again a burning issue.

The petition of certain actors for protection from the ruinous competition of the pauper actors of Europe may be the means of arousing men in other professions to make a similar request. There was a time, a few years ago, when journalists might have joined in a general movement of this kind, but the profession has become so thoroughly "Americanized" of late years that foreign talent, if it be educated, is in slight demand. The language and style in which the "successful" American papers are written constitute of themselves an almost insurmountable bar to all foreigners. They can only be mastered by a residence of many years in this country. English theatrical managers declare that the "real reason why English actors are monopolizing the American stage is that they speak English, which the average American actor does not." That is the difference between the theatrical and journalistic professions. Anybody can see by a mere glance at the most successful newspapers of America, in this city or elsewhere, that there is no English monopoly of the profession at the present time.

Hard times appear to be in store for the International Company of Mexico, at least so far as its operations in Lower California are concerned. The Mexican Government sent out a special agent some months ago to investigate the International's affairs, and he has just published—or rather the Government has, in the *Diario Oficial*—his report, which is of a most damaging character. He visited all of the colonies established by the International, carefully compared the state of things in each with the official returns which the company had made, confronted the lists of colonists with the actual inhabitants he found, examined deeds and mortgages, and, in fact, made a thorough study of the situation. He charges that the company's surveys are largely fictitious; that it has not kept to the terms of its contract in either the number or the nationality of its colonists actually in the Territory; that it has sold lands in larger sections than permitted by its charter; that it has parted with some of its rights under the concession granted it to other corporations, and has done this in an illegal manner; that it has sold land to aliens in violation of the law; and that it has unlawfully taken possession of lands, not only not granted to it, but actually owned and occupied by Mexican citizens. Any one of these specifications, if sustained, would justify the Mexican Government in annulling the International's charter. No official step in that direction has been taken as yet, but the publication of the report in the Government organ may be taken as a notice to the International that it must satisfactorily dispose of the charges or suffer for it. The only defence thus far made by the company is a violent attack upon the capacity and honesty of the agent. It admits, also, that some of its official reports have been confused and misleading, though not, it maintains, dishonest.

The work of the Commission sitting in London on "Parnellism and crime" apparently entered on a new stage of indefinite length on Wednesday week, on the announcement of the Attorney-General that he was going to call witnesses as to the condition of counties of which he had made no mention in his opening address. Under this programme, he may go over every county in Ireland except two. The court and the Parnellite counsel protested vainly. The object of this prolongation is probably two-fold. The proving of the long catalogue of crimes and outrages, under the nose of the English public, is expected to have a good political effect in strengthening the hands of the Government and helping it at "by-elections"; and then it defers, until the public mind is saturated with these horrors, the proof of the genuineness of the Parnell letters which form the *crux* of the whole investigation. The general impression, however, we believe, in London now is that the *Times* is playing a losing game, that its confidence in the authenticity of the letters is gone, and that it is simply trying to make a masterly retreat. The result of the Holborn election shows clearly that, even in the metropolis, the investigation is damaging rather than helping the Unionist cause.

Monday's debate in the House of Commons revealed the extreme perplexity of the Ministry about Suakim. Lord Salisbury is on record as thinking that Egypt would do well to evacuate it; but he now maintains that he only said this as a private person, and that it is open to him as Prime Minister to hold a different opinion. The Opposition are pressing the Government to know whether it will allow another attack on the Arabs at Suakim, even if it endangers the lives of Emin Bey and Stanley; but they can get no positive answer, probably because it has not made up its mind. Nor would it be easy to explain the use of driving away Osman Digna's forces from the town if they are not to be pursued into the interior and prevented from coming back again. It must be admitted, however, that some doubt is thrown on Osman Digna's story of the capture of Emin Bey by the fact that he had no writing to show from Emin or Stanley. If either of them were a prisoner, he would eagerly embrace an opportunity to communicate with the European world, such as his captors could have offered him, and such as it would have been to their interest to offer. Osman Digna has sent in a paper, which he says was found on Stanley, as proof positive that Stanley has been captured; but he could just as easily have obtained a letter from Stanley himself, which would have settled the matter.

A writer in the *Figaro* calls attention to recent publications of the German African Colonization Society. Dr. Max Büchner, formerly German Consul at Cameroon, for instance, in his "Sketches and Reflections," proposes that if the Society "finds an opportunity to buy slaves in the interior, it should do it, as it will improve their lot. To the English missionaries must be left the sophism of talking of liberating, instead of buying"; and he suggests that the Society should "purchase their prisoners of war from the tribes in the interior, and use them as serfs held to labor. If it binds itself not to sell them, it is all that a reasonable humanity can ask." Another writer, Herr Zoller, says, in a book dedicated to Bismarck, that the negroes ought to be told that if they will not work for Europeans they must starve; and still another, Herr Hermann Bibo, thinks that in trying to civilize the negroes the children should be totally separated from the parents, and become the property of the planters. The truth is, that it is almost impossible to prevent Europeans who go to Africa for trading purposes, or with the view of making money, from thinking of some sort of negro slavery. The labor difficulty in those climates is in all undertakings a very serious one; the negro is able-bodied and enduring and submissive as no men of any other race are; and the sight of him basking in the sun and living on yams is more than an ordinary capitalist can bear.

There is a very curious piece of legislation at this moment before the Austrian Reichsrath—neither more nor less than the application of the law of primogeniture, which governs the descent of landed property among the nobility, to the farms and other property of the peasantry. Under the bill now under discussion, at the death of the head of a family his land and the means of cultivating it would all go to the oldest son. The promoters of the measure seek in this way to prevent the further division of the soil, which they think is working so much mischief in France, while its opponents maintain that it would enormously increase the number of the disinherited and penniless class, and drive the younger children into the ranks of Anarchy. The tendency in Austria is all towards the disappearance of small proprietors. The great landholders ruin them by competition or buy them out, and this bill would make an end of them, if it passed.

AN EXTRA SESSION.

PROBABLY most of the matter telegraphed from Indianapolis daily, as to the sayings and thinkings of the President-elect, is pure invention. It is very likely, however, that he did intimate on Monday, as several newspapers report, that an extra session of Congress would probably be necessary. The progress making on the Tariff Bill in the Senate is so slow that it is now almost certain that no measure for tax reduction will be passed before the 4th of March. A measure of such importance, going to the roots of the only vital party differences of the time, must be debated and fought over *ad libitum*. A difference of one-tenth of a cent per pound in the duty on structural iron, for example, is of sufficient consequence to warrant and justify two or three days' discussion. It is important in a pecuniary sense, it is even more so in an educational sense; and if it turns out, as in this case, that the Senate Committee were in the wrong, and had to acknowledge that they were so, the value of the debate becomes clear to everybody. But the possibilities of debate and delay are equally great on every item in the bill, and upon some vastly greater. The holiday recess is approaching. After Congress reassembles, there will be scarcely eight weeks left for all the necessary work of the session. The Tariff Bill must give way to the appropriation bills, at all events. The end of the session will find all the problems in finance that confronted President Cleveland a year ago confronting President Harrison, but in an aggravated form.

The surplus anticipated in December, 1887, is now a reality. It has exceeded the estimate by six and a half millions. It has been kept within bounds by large disbursements for premiums on the public debt, $26,000,000 having been expended for this object during the year, of which $8,000,000 was for premiums on the sinking-fund bonds, and $18,000,000 for those appertaining to the surplus proper, leaving a Treasury balance on hand December 1, 1888, of upwards of $76,000,000. This surplus, the Secretary of the Treasury says, will be augmented by $75,000,000 on the 30th of June, 1889, so that Mr. Harrison will have to face an accumulation of more than $150,000,000 in the first four months of his term.

In the presence of facts of such magnitude, the new President can hardly avoid calling an extra session of Congress. He will not court the responsibility of continuing to buy bonds at advancing premiums when there is a mode of avoiding that responsibility. It is the duty of Congress, and not of the Executive, to dispose of surpluses. No blame can attach to the latter for playing into the hands of bond speculators if all other means have been exhausted. Much blame will attach if the most obvious means has been left untried. The calling of an extra session is the lawful and only reasonable solution of the difficulty.

It follows, of course, that the problem of tax reduction will be taken up where the present Congress leaves it. A new bill will be reported in the new House and a new debate will begin on the principles which should govern the policy of the nation. That the next House is Republican by a small but sufficient majority seems to be now conceded on all hands. It would have been a great misfortune if it had been otherwise. It is most important that the responsibility for all that happens in the next two years should be upon one party, and not upon two. A divided responsibility is no responsibility at all. What is wanted above all things is that the Republicans should play their game out, whatever it may be. They have carried the election in the mode prescribed by the Constitution. They have the right to govern, and they ought to show their hand. Holding both branches of Congress and the Executive, they cannot avoid showing it, whereas with only one house they would simply be at loggerheads with the other party, and would always be able to put half the blame on their opponents.

It is for the interest of the Democrats, no less than for the interest of the country, that the Republicans should be vested with the entire responsibility of the national finances. If the Republican party is wedded to a tariff policy that the country will not much longer tolerate, it is necessary that that fact should be made clear. Nothing can make it clear but full power to carry their policy into effect. If they are ridden by Trusts and combines and special interests to the degree that their opponents believe and affirm, it is best that all doubts and cavils should be removed. A single session of a Congress wholly controlled by them will throw light upon this question. And since time is important for national training and understanding of the question at issue, the need of an extra session must be regarded as a fortunate circumstance.

BALLOT REFORM IN OPERATION.

THE most disingenuous and unfounded charge which the opponents of ballot-reform legislation bring against every adequate measure that has thus far been proposed is that, as set forth in that particular bill, the remedy is too complex. We are in favor of the change, they say, but give us the remedy in a more simple form. There is nothing new in this objection. It was heard in Australia when the present admirable system of that country was proposed. It was heard again in England when the same system, with slight modifications, was proposed there. It was heard in Wisconsin when the present partial application of the same system was under consideration. It was heard in Kentucky when the new law for the city of Louisville, a much fuller application of the same system, was before the Legislature. It was heard in Massachusetts last year, when the first complete application of the system to the elections of an American State which has been made a law, was under discussion. It has been heard in New York almost continually from the outset of the ballot-reform discussion, and was the burden of the misleading and ill-informed argument against the system which Gov. Hill put into his veto of the Saxton-Yates bill.

In every instance it is a pretence. The men who use it either have not studied the question, or they are at heart against the reform. In no instance has this charge of complexity been heard after the law has gone into effect—a fact which is of itself a conclusive answer to the objection. In Australia there is only one opinion, and that is that the law is in every way a success. There is not the slightest complaint of delay or difficulty in its working, and the testimony of all authorities is that it has stopped bribery and intimidation at the polls, and secured a secret and honest ballot. The verdict in England is the same, as set forth in an interesting and valuable article by Mr. Edwin Goadby, an Englishman, in the December number of the *Political Science Quarterly*. Mr. Goadby gives an exhaustive history of the ballot in England, sums up the discussion which led to the adoption of the Australian system, and, in speaking of its practical working, says:

> "Considering the ferocity of its assailants and the zeal they displayed in prophecy, it is very remarkable that the ballot has so generally and completely fitted itself into the British Constitution. It has worked admirably. There is no wish for any change. . . . The ballot itself is rapidly and quietly taken; and the voter is often surprised to note how quickly the votes are recorded and the voters pass away, whilst the exterior of a polling-station is apparently so lifeless . . . English political opponents never before invented so many dreadful things, to discover that not a single one of them was true, as in the case of the ballot."

We commend this failure of prophecy to those people who have been misled by Gov. Hill's veto message. That is filled with predictions of confusion and disaster which have no real foundation in the provisions of the measure he was pretending to consider. In speaking of the illiterate voters, concerning whom Gov. Hill is especially anxious, Mr. Goadby makes this interesting statement:

> "Blind men are as common in some districts as illiterates, and they are passed on to the care of the policeman at the door. Instead of their infirmity proving a hindrance to them, they are delighted to exercise the franchise. Illiterates are not quite so eager to vote, except during municipal contests; and when they have children attending board schools they have been known to practise reading and filling up, to escape that sense of inferiority they might otherwise feel. Further, where there are only two or three names on a ballot paper, the position of the candidate for whom an illiterate wishes to vote can easily be made clear to a voter by his friends before he enters the booth."

Finally, Mr. Goadby gives this emphatic testimony upon the question of complexity and upon the abolishing of bribery:

> "It is admitted that the English system is simple, protected from fraud, and absolutely successful. There is positively no record of attempts to defeat its secrecy or to organize fraud, and if they were made they would be instantly discovered and punished. . . . The effect of the ballot on corruption has been very great. Treating and direct bribery were at once diminished by it. It is useless to corrupt unless its effects can be clearly traced; and spending money to purchase votes is simply waste when a voter, demoralized enough to take money, can still vote as he pleases without being found out."

Now, this law, which has proved so simple and so effective in practice, is a perfect labyrinth of complexity compared with any adaptation of it which has been proposed in

this country. How does it happen, then, that it proves so successful in operation? Simply because what its critics call complexity is nothing more nor less than the necessary machinery of the system. The English act is most minute in covering every possible point of doubt or uncertainty in the specifications for working the new system. We do not need so minute a measure here, for we have the ballot already, which England had not; but we cannot hope to secure simplicity and success in the working of any system unless we make the act embodying the methods by which the system is to be put in operation, so specific that fraud and confusion will be guarded against at every point. Any "simple" bill which professed to provide for the introduction of so important a change in our election methods as this is, would be a fraud on its face.

But the English and Australian acts are not the only complex ones which have worked simply and well in practice. The Wisconsin law for the city of Milwaukee is "complex" in the same sense, but it has worked admirably in a municipal and national election, and is pronounced by all authorities to be a complete success. It has made elections orderly, has banished the "heelers" and the "workers" from the polls, and has stopped bribery. The Kentucky act for the city of Louisville, passed last winter, is by all odds the most complex of all the adaptations of the English and Australian acts which have been made in America. Yet, in the interesting account of its working in the first election held under it, which we published last week, the writer, a very competent observer, said: "The law, though apparently intricate, is really very simple, and it worked admirably. The election of last Tuesday was the first municipal election I have ever known which was not bought outright. As a matter of fact, no attempts at bribery were made, and a few comparatively unimportant infringements of the law will be severely handled."

THE COMPETITION OF TRUSTS.

All the arguments that we see or hear sustaining the legality of Trusts, end with the statement that they also contain the germ of competition which will eventually relieve the public of any harmful consequences of monopoly. Usually the Standard Oil Trust is pointed out as an illustration of the truth of the proposition, it being generally acknowledged that the price of oil has declined during the existence of the Trust, and has reached as low a figure as it could be produced for even if there had been no such thing as a Trust. The explanation of this phenomenon is very simple. The Standard Oil Trust never had a monopoly of oil territory or any considerable share of it. Oil territory has, in one sense, been unlimited, that is, nobody knew at any one time what the limit was, nor can anybody assign any limit now. Boring for oil has been open to the public at all times. Here competition has necessarily been free. The exuberance of nature has kept down the price of the article. When oil is found it gushes to the surface, and must be stored in tanks or it will be lost. Storage implies the loss of interest on capital. To stop this outgo the oil must be sold. The greater the aggregate gush, the lower the price. The law of supply and demand comes into play, and the Standard Oil Trust could not prevent it if they would. Even if they owned every refinery in the country, and controlled every avenue of transportation, they could not hold up the price against an accumulation of crude petroleum in their rear. Moreover, their market is largely foreign, and here they come into competition with Russian petroleum, which has lately become formidable. This competition reacts upon the home market powerfully; for although there is a small duty on foreign oil, it is of no consequence, under conditions like those now existing, when the pressure of the earth's yield forces a surplus outward at some price.

A Trust is a monopoly, or not a monopoly, according to the particular circumstances of each case. It is harmful or not according to these circumstances. We may grant that there is nothing illegal in these organizations, without conceding anything as to their effects upon society. One thing is certain, namely, that they are a new thing under the sun, and are accordingly to be judged by their effects, and not by rules or dogmas laid down at a period when no such thing existed. Monopolies have existed from the earliest times, but they have been monopolies of a different character, most commonly established by Governments—whether despotic or free makes no difference. A monopoly of the trade in salt granted by an absolute monarch is the same in its origin and foundation as a monopoly of an invention granted by our Patent Office, although differing greatly in moral character. A monopoly of trade with the East Indies or with the Hudson's Bay territory is of the same nature, being a grant from the supreme power of the State.

Trust monopolies are new things under the sun in the fact that they do not have their origin in any act of Government. They are, as Mr. Blaine said, "largely private affairs." He might have said wholly private affairs. They are an outgrowth of modern development of the means of communication. It has become possible for anybody to know the state of the markets and the conditions of supply and demand all over the world for any particular article. Some articles are of such diverse production, or are produced in such large quantity, that they cannot as yet be controlled by any aggregation of capital or by the possession of the most accurate knowledge of their quantities. Others, however, are of such a character, as to sources of supply or manipulation of product, that they can be controlled. All these are gradually passing under such control, and the process involves a redistribution of the rewards of industry of the whole people on a basis as artificial as a government monopoly could produce.

To say that competition will overthrow Trusts is a wholly unwarranted assumption. It may overthrow some and not others, and it may overthrow none. If it had been said in the beginning that competition would prevent the formation or successful operation of any Trusts whatsoever, that idea would have met with general acceptance, because it would have been in harmony with all experience; but now that experience has proved the contrary, the burden of proof is shifted upon the other side to show *how* competition will do the thing which is admitted to be best for the interests of society. This best thing is that no trade should yield unfair profits, because that implies that all others should yield less. By fair profits is meant the return that would be yielded under the influence of absolutely free competition, under which nine-tenths of mankind must always earn their living. In this discussion nobody can be allowed to indulge in generalities, because the Trusts have overcome generalities at the outset. Having abolished competition, they are required to show how it will come back in spite of everything they can do to prevent it. What remedy shall be devised to abolish them is another question. Probably no one remedy will altogether suffice; but in order that any may be adopted, it is first necessary to know where we stand.

THE WOOING OF CANADA.

Mr. Butterworth's resolutions to authorize the President to institute negotiations "looking to the assimilation and unity of the people of the Dominion of Canada and the United States under one government—such unity and assimilation to be based upon the admission of the several provinces of the Dominion, or any one of them, into the Union of States upon the same terms and equality with the several States now composing the Union," will probably strike the people of the Dominion as a too hasty change of front after the wrangle of the past three years over the fishery question. Mr. Butterworth would probably acknowledge that the present time is not propitious for anything more serious than a debate in Congress on his resolutions. It is not likely that they will even be debated on the other side of the line, and it is doubtful whether Congress will take up the matter seriously at this session. Mr. Butterworth has been the spokesman of commercial union in the House as Mr. Sherman has been in the Senate, and both are probably moved by the same impulse. The motive is commendable, and the project may be feasible at some future time; but we consider the present a most inopportune occasion for bringing it before the public—inopportune here as well as in Canada.

The opponents of political union—or annexation as they call it in Canada—are nearly all the influential classes in the Dominion. These are opposed also to commercial union, because they look upon the latter as a stepping-stone to the former, which indeed it is. Nevertheless, there is a respectable body of opinion in Canada, favorable to commercial union, which is not ready to entertain the thought of political union. Mr. Goldwin Smith explained the situation very candidly

in his speech at the Chamber of Commerce dinner a few weeks ago. He said that the Commercial Union Club of Toronto embraced members of both political parties in Canada—the Conservatives, or Government party, and the Opposition—and that no question of political union was allowed to interrupt the harmony of their movement. No such question was ever raised or considered in their councils. They were making gains, especially among the agricultural classes, because they were able to show advantages of a material sort from commercial union. He believed that the idea would eventually, and at no distant day, prevail in the Canadian elections, despite the opposition of the protectionists and the office-holding class, if it were not mixed up with the question of separation from Great Britain in the political sense. That question, he said, should be left to the operation of time and natural causes. If the two countries should at some future period, by free choice, decide that political union was for their best interests, he believed that Great Britain would not only interpose no obstacle, but would bless the union. But all such talk was now premature or worse, because it was an obstacle to a fair and unbiassed consideration of commercial union.

If Mr. Butterworth's motion is premature, and therefore not helpful, on the other side of the line, how is it to be regarded on this side? If the protectionists of Canada are opposed to both kinds of union, what view will the same class take of it here? Mr. Butterworth is himself a protectionist of a rather pronounced type. In the recent campaign he acknowledged himself to be the first discoverer of the quotation from the London *Times* about the Celt who is serviceable to England only when he emigrates to America and votes for free trade. How anybody can sustain at the same time the double rôle of a defender of protective duties on Canadian products and of an annexationist, is one of those mysteries of the human mind that baffle all attempts at analysis. If it is profitable for us to keep out Canadian lumber, coal, fish, salt, and potatoes, or to load them with heavy duties in order to discourage their coming into our markets, how can it be profitable to admit them under articles of political union? Does this mean that the producers of these articles in our own country should be sacrificed for the general good? If so, it would seem to be the requirement of justice that all such persons should receive pensions equal to the amount of their sacrifices.

Mr. Butterworth and those who agree with him, if any, are perhaps protectionists in sentiment merely, not having any pecuniary interest to subserve. Those who belong to the latter class will be heard from to some purpose whenever political union or commercial union becomes a really burning question. The American Fishery Union will claim that they supplied an important part of the ammunition in the Harrison campaign. The lumber barons will want to know whether they are to be cheated out of their share of the victory. The market gardeners along the New England and New York border will be fierce and unyielding in proportion to the smallness of their size. All the interests which derive, or think they derive, an advantage from the tariff against Canada will make the usual proclamation that, if we are to have free trade in these things, we must have it in all; they will transfer their standard to the other camp. This threat, which has been so successfully employed in the past by the wool-growers, by the copper-miners, and by the lumber barons themselves, will rally the other protected classes to their side; and in the end Mr. Butterworth will find himself in an unequal match, contending with his own friends.

MODERN LAW-MAKERS.

THE quality of modern legislators—that is, their standing in the communities which they represent—as well as their fitness for the special work they have to do, is engaging the attention of those philosophers all over the world who are just now studying democracy. That the work of legislation is no longer done in parliamentary countries by the same kind of men who did it fifty, or even thirty, years ago, seems to be admitted on all hands. The *Evening Post* printed the other day a letter from a very competent observer, touching the change which has taken place in this particular in the State of Connecticut, and one passage is so descriptive of what has happened in nearly all the older States that it is worth reproducing:

"In the early part of the present century, during the more rational era of town rule, our grandfathers chose their country squires and prosperous, hard-headed farmers as legislators, and selected them over and over again. Those old-fashioned representatives were doubtless opinionated enough in religious or party matters, but they were rigidly honest, of high personal character, and tried legislators.

"How changed are the Legislatures which the town idea gives us now! The rural constituencies have diminished in population, in wealth, in voting character. The Yankee farmers have, many of them, gone West, and their places have been filled by the foreigner. The tide of rural corruption has swelled until it dashes over the ballot-box and pollutes the very fountain-head of electoral purity. Worst of all in its effect on our Legislatures, the pernicious rotative idea has entered our rural constituencies. The position of a Representative is become a thing of material import, a perquisite to be 'passed around' in the dominant party from session to session. Once holding it is deemed a bar to holding it again, instead of a credential for reëlection. Our town idea, therefore, in nine cases out of ten, gives us at each term a callow, second-rate countryman as a legislator.

"It is before such a House, vitiated by the town idea, that there must come the complex legislation of Connecticut—a State with large cities, great railroad, insurance, and manufacturing interests, and with all the ramified problems that modern civilization imposes on a law-making body."

There is perhaps not one of the old thirteen States which has not this same story to tell, in a greater or less degree. The change at the South has of course been precipitated and emphasized by the war, but it is as visible in New York and Pennsylvania, as in Massachusetts. The politician in all of them — that is, the man who either goes to the Legislature himself or has the greatest influence in selecting those who do go—is much more rarely now than formerly a man prominent in business, or agriculture, or the professions, is much more apt to be an unsuccessful man in private life, and to be unknown or very little known outside political circles. In other words, fifty years ago, as a general rule, communities were governed by men who won their eminence outside politics, or would be eminent if they never touched politics. This is no longer the case. Society, trade, commerce, law, medicine, have parted company with politics, and are more or less in the hands of men who do not share conspicuously in the other work of their time.

A well-known French writer, M. Gaston Jollivet, has recently been discussing this subject in connection with the French Chambers, of course with the usual heat of a French politician. His illustrations in examining the composition of the French Chambers, in its relation to the various callings, as it is now and as it was twenty-five years ago, make rather a dismal showing, even if we leave out of account the numerous charges of corruption which are hurled at the heads of the members. For instance, the bar has, ever since the Restoration, been in the habit of sending its leading men to Parliament. Even under the Empire there were Berryer, Marie, Sénard, and Grévy in the ranks of the Opposition, and, on the side of the Government, Delangle, Baroche, and Chaix-d'Est-Ange, and many others from the very top of the profession. Now the Chamber contains only half-a-dozen of the very obscure, and two of these have been disciplined for professional irregularities. The present leader of the bar, the "bâtonnier," as he is called—M. Durier—could not be induced to go into politics, and neither could his more eminent confrères, Falateuf, Bétolaud, Rousse, and Martini. In the provinces the same story: the lawyers of note stay at home, or are left at home by the people.

The French doctors, too, in bygone days occupied no mean place in the Chamber. Many of the more eminent members of the profession, both in Paris and the departments, were converted into legislators by enthusiastic patients. Men like Bouillaud, Trousseau, Malgaigne, and Trélat were eager to serve, and served faithfully. There are not many doctors in the present Chamber, and none of them conspicuous. One of those who are there has been accused of corruption by the notorious Numa Gilly in connection with the baths of Royat; the charge is probably false, M. Jollivet says, but many people believe it about Dr. Blatin, while they would smile if it were made against Dr. Péan or Dr. Charcot. Turning to finance, the Chamber for the first time does not contain a single regent of the Bank of France, or a director of any leading financial corporation. The prominent merchants and manufacturers are also conspicuous by their absence. In old times the great wine districts, which contain so much of the wealth of France, sent up their leading wine-growers to the Chamber, as the best possible representatives of their industry. In the present Chamber there is only one. The silk industry of Lyons does not elect a single silk-

manufacturer, or the cotton industry of Rouen a single cotton-manufacturer. The great port of Marseilles sends up a crazy old Communist in the person of Félix Pyat.

As to literature and science, the places of the Broglies, of Jules Simon, of Haussonville, Guizot, Villemain, Saint-Marc-Girardin, are occupied by M. Compayré and Dupuy. The retired list of the army no longer furnishes famous soldiers. A major (*commandant*) or two is all the electors get from it, and these unknown to fame, as military men who grow old in the inferior grades are apt to be.

What does it all mean? The Conservatives would, of course, say that it is all due to the Republic, and that if a monarchy were set up, illustrious Frenchmen would come back to politics. But unprejudiced observers say they know better, that the true cause of the change is to be found in a certain jealousy or suspicion on the part of democracy everywhere of men who have risen to eminence in other ways than through popular favor; and they have a great many facts to support them. The mere fact, however, that conspicuous men do not find their way any longer into the Legislature would be of no consequence if they were not missed — if the work of legislation was done as well or better without them. Whether the new phenomenon is to be deplored or not, depends, therefore, on the kind of laws the new men turn out. Legislatures are not made that men who have grown great elsewhere may shine in them. But does the world get on as well without their services as before? This seems to be a question which the next generation will have to answer.

THE SUDAN NEWS.

It is of course possible that Osman Digna has got hold of the Khedive's letter to Emin Bey in some other way than by the capture of Stanley, and that if he were really sure of his game, he would have accompanied it, when sending it to the British commander at Suakim, with some threat or demand. It is also possible that the reports of the successes achieved by the Mahdi's lieutenant, Omar Saleh, towards the equator are exaggerated. But there does not seem to be much doubt that Emin Bey at least has been captured, and that, although the "white traveller" captured with him may be somebody else than Stanley, Stanley's mission is a failure, and he himself is at least in great danger.

It will probably be some weeks before the whole truth comes out; but in the meantime the news, such as it is, will infuse an immense ferment into British politics. The truth is, that the Tories are now face to face with exactly the same problem that Gladstone had to solve when the rising against the Egyptians in the Sudan cut off Gordon at Khartum. It will be extremely interesting to see how they will solve it. If the present Mahdi has got hold of either Emin Bey or Stanley, he will use his power over him to try to extract concessions, such as the evacuation of Suakim, from Lord Salisbury; and Lord Salisbury will have to decide whether he will allow two brave men to be butchered without trying either to rescue them or avenge them by retaliation. Gordon's going to Khartum was not Gladstone's doing. It was Gordon's own act, born of his confidence in his influence over the Sudanese, and of his ignorance of the new spirit of fanaticism which the Mahdi had aroused. He went there believing that his presence would suffice to restore order. When he discovered his mistake, and began to demand help from home, the very facts which made his situation precarious made the task of rescuing him one of extraordinary difficulty. Nobody who saw what it was when Lord Wolseley attempted it can, in his heart, have wondered that the Gladstone Ministry hesitated about entering on it. It proved both the glory and shame of England. Hundreds of valuable English lives were sacrificed, and some thousands of naked savages were slaughtered.

Since then, in spite of all the fresh light which Lord Wolseley's operations have thrown on the subject, nothing has been done to change the situation. No attempt has been made to rescue or succor Emin Bey, whose efforts have been just as heroic as Gordon's, and whose success in maintaining himself alone in the heart of Africa for several years shows him to be, in the very highest sense of the term, a great commander. It is true he is a German, and not an Englishman; but he has really been defending the English cause at his lonely post down there at the equator. He held, as Gordon held, the Khedive's commission, and flew the Egyptian flag; but Egypt is now an English dependency: its troops are under English orders, its debt is managed by English financiers, and its future is absolutely in English hands. The greatest question in Egyptian politics is whether the claim of dominion over the Sudan shall be abandoned or not. The Egyptians would probably have abandoned it long ago, through sheer force of circumstances, if they had been independent. The question with them, if they stood alone, would be to-day, not whether they could reconquer the Sudan, but whether they could keep the Mahdi from coming down to Cairo, as the Shepherd Kings did for their conquest, 4,000 years ago. Nothing, as far as can be seen, stands now between Egypt and a conquest by the dervishes, except the British troops; for it seems to have been demonstrated that the Egyptian army will not stand up against the Arab charge, either in small or great numbers, even under the command of Europeans.

In short, the Egyptian problem is not one whit nearer solution than it was when Gladstone left office. Suakim has been held by a British garrison, but not as a British possession; and it probably could not be held at all without the assistance of a naval squadron, which lies constantly in the harbor, to help the troops to keep the Arabs out. No attempt has been made to occupy any territory outside the walls. No one can venture 500 yards from the fortifications without risk to his life. In fact, the place is besieged. The object of the occupation is said to be to prevent the use of the town and harbor as a slave emporium; and this is achieved, but the cost of this advantage is prodigious, considering that it is now maintained by the best authorities that the exportation of slaves across the Gulf of Aden and the Red Sea is and has long been but a small portion of the whole trade, and that the rack and ruin still wrought in central Africa by the slaveholders is wrought mainly to supply the inland market, that is, upper Egypt and the great oases. The slave-dealers have to make prodigious captures in order that their caravans may bear the losses incident to their long marches and scanty fare.

It will thus be seen that a magnificent opportunity for the display of the courage and statesmanship in which the Conservatives found Gladstone so wanting is now about to be forced on the Tory Ministry, and it will be interesting to see what they will do with it. Either they must submit to having Emin Bey, and perhaps Stanley, killed, and thus eat the humblest of humble pie in the eyes of the Mahdi's followers, or they must sally out and attempt to catch the Mahdi and conquer him. There must be no Gladstonian dilly-dallying with this business. If the Mahdi will not come to be conquered in a convenient place, where there is plenty of wood and water, they must pursue him into his deserts, and show him the difference between being attacked by Radicals and by genuine Imperialists.

THE JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.

The *Nation* for January 28, 1875, at which time the plans of the Johns Hopkins University were beginning to take shape, contained a note discussing the possibilities of the new foundation, in which the following sentences occur:

"The endowment may, therefore, be called unprecedented in both its freedom and its liberality. The trustees can found any kind of university they please, and they have thus a power which has never before been lodged in the hands of any body of men in this country. When we first heard of it we confess we felt little interest in it, concluding that we were simply to witness the addition of one more to the huge array of high schools which the country already possesses, in which poorly paid professors would labor year after year in the dull routine of giving a 'university education,' by teaching Latin, Greek, and mathematics, and perhaps a smattering of natural science, to half-prepared boys or girls, or both. But luckily this great endowment has fallen into the hands of men who have a higher idea of their responsibilities, and they intend to use it for the foundation of a real 'seat of learning,' or, in other words, for enabling the country to play its proper part in the best intellectual work of the day, feeling assured that the preparation of boys and girls to earn a livelihood will be abundantly looked after by other institutions. . . . It is a great opportunity, and we hope and believe it will be rightly used."

It did not require many years of the working of the new University to demonstrate the founder's wisdom in leaving the trustees unhampered in their choice of the paths by which the University might be made most conducive to the advancement of learning in this country. The trustees, in their turn, chose for President a man in whose judgment and in whose vigilant energy they could place the most complete reliance, and who has been practically unhampered in determining, with the aid of the Faculty, all the perplexing and many-sided questions which successively confront the directors of a new university, as the trustees themselves had been unhampered in determining, with the aid

of the President whom they had chosen, the broad lines upon which the work of the University was to be built. No one who has taken any interest in the progress of the higher education in this country needs to be told of the outcome. Before half of its first decade had been completed, the Johns Hopkins University was universally recognized to be one of the most potent of the intellectual forces of this country. It was even welcomed abroad, especially in Germany and in England, as a worthy ally of the great foundations in which the highest learning was fostered in the Old World. All this is now a familiar story; but when the new institution was entering upon its career, the most sanguine of its friends could not have expected the work of its early years to be attended with such signal success. We fancy that President Gilman would have been as much astonished as the rest of us if he had been told in 1876 that on the 12th of July, 1883, the leading scientific journal of England would conclude a review of the year's work at the Johns Hopkins University with this sentence: "We should much like to see such an account of original work done and to be done issuing each year from the laboratories of Oxford and Cambridge."

But the service which the Johns Hopkins University has done to the advancement of learning in America cannot be measured by the instruction that has been given within its own walls and the researches that have been carried on by its own members. The standard of university work, throughout the length and breadth of the country, has been advanced in the past ten years with a rapidity and steadiness never before paralleled. That the example of the Johns Hopkins University has been a great stimulus to every college which has taken part in this forward movement, none will question. It is impossible to trace the origin of each particular measure of progress, but every one knows the contagion of a good example, especially when it is emphasized by conspicuous success. When we see a gentleman in Milwaukee endowing with great liberality a laboratory and journal of biological research, we may not be able to assert that the biological work at Johns Hopkins has had anything to do with determining the direction of his munificence; when we see a university in Nebraska issuing a series of historical monographs, we may be unable to trace any connection between this and the work done at Baltimore; when we observe that in the last eight or ten years nearly every one of our stronger colleges and universities has done its best to develop its opportunities for post-collegiate study, it may be impossible to show that this would not have been going on just as vigorously if the Johns Hopkins University had never been instituted. But while things of this kind are not susceptible of downright demonstration, there can be no doubt that the historian of education in America will designate the opening of the Johns Hopkins University as the event which marked the entrance of the higher education in America upon a new phase in its development.

The thirteenth annual report of the President of the University lies before us. It is of the same general character as its predecessors, being chiefly a history of work done and a record of additions to the laboratories and libraries; but it closes with a passage which, though brief and inconspicuous, is full of grave significance to the friends of the University:

"Our only cause of anxiety is one of which you are fully aware—the loss of income from the stocks which were given to the University by its founder. Your wisdom, gentlemen of the Board of Trustees, will no doubt devise some efficient relief. I believe it to be a reasonable expectation that the efforts which you have put forth, and which you have encouraged others to put forth, for the establishment of a university will receive financial support when you are ready to ask for it."

The country-seat of the founder, now within the city limits of Baltimore, and comprising about three hundred acres of land, forms an important part of his legacy to the University, and one which at some future day may have a market value approaching or exceeding that of the railroad securities at their best; but this property cannot now be made a source of income. The great bulk of the available endowment of the University was left to it by the founder in the form of Baltimore and Ohio Railroad stock. Johns Hopkins enjoyed the reputation of being perhaps the shrewdest financier and man of business in the city of Baltimore; and in his will he distinctly recommended the trustees to keep these Baltimore and Ohio shares. It is certainly a striking instance of the irony of fate that the one injunction which the founder laid upon his trustees should have proved, though relating to a matter in which his sagacity was undoubted, to be so ill-judged. The directions of the will on this point were not, indeed, mandatory; but Baltimore and Ohio shares are seldom in the market except in small quantities, so that any attempt of the trustees systematically to diminish their investment in them would—especially in view of the founder's recommendation—at once have excited suspicion, and greatly lowered the market value of the shares. The trustees have thus been in a position of great difficulty; and since they number among them some of the ablest and most successful men of business in Baltimore, and since the whole body has shown the most zealous interest in the welfare of the University, he would be a bold man who should say that the present unfortunate condition of the finances of the University has been brought on by the fault of its managers.

The University is not dependent upon this source of income alone. Other funds of a moderate amount were included in its original endowment, and the trustees have made further investments out of the annual excess of income over expenditure, besides providing buildings and apparatus out of this excess. There is now also a considerable income from tuition fees. But the main source of income has been cut off for the past two years, during which the 15,000 shares of Baltimore and Ohio stock have brought no dividends. How long it will be before matters mend in this direction no one can tell. The use of part of the surplus accumulated in former years has thus far enabled the work of all the principal departments to be continued in full force; but in the nature of the case this cannot go on indefinitely, and the outlook seems to be that, unless it shall receive aid from outside, the University, instead of expanding as it should from year to year, will be compelled to diminish its activity in some of the departments in which its work has been of the greatest service to the cause of the higher learning in this country.

But we feel sure that when the University appeals to the country for aid in its truly national work, the country will show that it numbers among its men of wealth some who are not indifferent to its intellectual glory. The collegiate department of the University may be considered as chiefly of local interest and utility, and the people of Baltimore should be counted on to see that this department does not suffer for want of the necessary funds; but in the benefits of the post-collegiate work of the University, the whole country has shared, both directly and indirectly, without distinction of sections. He would do the greatest possible service to the cause of learning in America at this juncture who should come to the aid of this lusty champion of the highest knowledge while yet its vigor is unimpaired and its courage undiminished; and he who would build a lasting monument to his memory might do well to consider whether he would not be more likely to accomplish this by identifying his name with that of some department of a foundation already famous the world over, than by beginning an entirely new institution of which he cannot foretell the success.

The success of the Johns Hopkins University has not been due simply to its liberal endowment. One may go further, and say that it is not exhaustively accounted for by the wisdom and good judgment of its directors, combined with their ample means. Napoleon used to say that after everything had been provided—men, materials, position—one thing more was still needed to secure victory, viz., good luck. Whatever the sources of the University's success, and whatever defects may be pointed out in its operations, it has somehow succeeded in accomplishing the one thing needful: it has laid hold of the spirit which ought to dominate a true University. This spirit will not embody itself for the asking; we cannot be sure of getting it for the sum of $3,000,000, more or less. We have got it at the Johns Hopkins University, and there are not so many centres of this kind of influence in the country that we can afford the loss or impairment of one of the chief of them. Whether by a single magnificent gift or by the contributions of many men of wealth—in one way or another we are confident that this great people will see to it that an institution which has done so much towards "enabling the country to play its proper part in the best intellectual work of the day" shall not be compelled to slacken its activity or to lower its standard.

CÆSAR BORGIA.

PARIS, November 30, 1888.

M. YRIARTE delights to live in Italy—not so much in modern Italy as in the Italy of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. We owe to him various books of great interest—'The Patriciate of Venice in the Sixteenth Century,' written out of the state papers of the archives of the Frari; 'Rimini,' 'A Condottiere in the Fifteenth Century,' 'A Study of the Malatestas,' 'Francesca di Rimini in Legend and in History,' 'Venice,' a great volume on the city of the Lagoons. He publishes to-day a 'Cæsar Borgia,' written with the help of documents found in the archives of Romagna, of Simancas, and of Navarre. There is a legend of the Borgias, and history finds it difficult to separate the fable from the truth in it. "Nothing," says Yriarte, "remains intact of them; the implacable reaction provoked by their crimes has pursued them beyond the tomb; their sepulchral stones, with their pompous epitaphs, have been broken, their images have been mutilated. In Navarre, a bishop of Calahorra, thinking he was accomplishing a pious work, threw away the bones of the Duke of Valentinois; at Ferrarra, the names engraved on the funereal stones have been effaced; traditions are lost, and we do not know to this day where repose the remains of Lucretia Borgia."

Gregorovius was the first who attempted to find the truth in the legend, and great is the contrast between the judgments passed on Cæsar Borgia by him and by Machiavelli.

The author of 'The Prince' sees in the son of Alexander VI. a man of genius, conscious of accomplishing a great work: Gregorovius cannot forgive Machiavelli for representing the Duke of Romagna as the prophetic representative of Italian unity, and will only look on him as a bold and criminal adventurer. "Cæsar," says Gregorovius, "was only a monstrous fruit of nepotism. The development of his power was rapid and vehement, like the growth of a poisonous plant; it embraces only a period of three years."

M. Yriarte seems to place himself somewhere between these extreme views of Machiavelli and of Gregorovius. "Without forgetting," he says, "the horrible ways through which he passed, it remains proved that when he had hardly reached the age of manhood, Cæsar conceived a dream of splendid ambition; the soldier was, in him, combined with the politician, and a politician armed with an extraordinary energy." He says also: "Quite recently it has been ascertained, by contemporary evidence collected at Pesaro, at Forli, Imola, Cesana, Faenza—wherever, in short, Cæsar left his trace during his reign of three years—that the soldier who kept the strictest discipline in his camp was besides an able administrator, a prompt and implacable judge, always ready to give satisfaction to his people, who, under him, did not suffer from arbitrary measures. In short, with all the acts of frenzy which he certainly committed, and murders (which will hereafter be better proved than ever), and his constant contempt of divine and human laws, this sombre hero left some benefits behind him."

The work of M. Yriarte is not a rehabilitation: he confesses that it would be idle to try to rehabilitate Cæsar; that compared with the Sforzas, the Malatestas, the Medici, he is a more determined, a more lawless criminal—a very artist in crime. He also could have said, like Nero: "Qualis artifex pereo!" Indeed, in order to understand truly these extraordinary characters of the Italian Renaissance, I believe that we must return to the traditions of the Roman Empire. The Cæsars of ancient Rome were the gods of the imagination. The crimes, the vices painted by Tacitus and Suetonius seemed virtues to Cæsar Borgia, to the "unico Cesare." He copied Nero, he copied Caligula, he copied Tiberius; he also could go down into the arena, he could imprison, he could murder, he could defy the gods, he could make a god of himself. He was handsome, and had the strength of an athlete. He acted like a magnet on the women of his time, and he never allowed a woman to have any influence over him. He never felt the tenderness of love; nothing could distract him from the objects of his ambition. "Aut Cæsar, aut nihil," was his device.

Had the young captain who conquered nearly the whole of Central Italy, a positive plan, or was he merely led by chance from victory to victory, from crime to crime? He certainly was eating the Italian "artichoke, leaf by leaf." (The expression is his; it was repeated in our time when Piedmont made the successive annexations of Tuscany, Parma, Modena, Naples, etc.) Cæsar started on his campaign at the beginning of the winter of 1499; he goes first to the north, and operates against Imola and Forli, then adds city to city, province to province; he dethrones successively the last Sforza, the Malatestas, the Manfredis, the Montefeltros. We see him soon master of all the Adriatic shore from Rimini to Sinigaglia, in possession of the duchies of Urbino, of Camerino, of Cagli; he is in communication with Rome by way of Spoleto, where Lucretia Borgia is Regent; he turns towards the western shores of Italy by way of Siena and Perugia, to Pisa, which invites him, to Piombino, which he takes by force. He is now on both sides of the Apennines, he has really created a state; he chooses Cesana for a capital; his father gives him the investiture of this great domain, and places on his head the ducal crown.

It is not enough: he attacks Bologna, and he threatens Florence itself. He surrounds on all sides the Tuscan territory, and he is only arrested in his career by his ally, the King of France. How many towns did he take by assault in his constitution of a new state? Let us name some of them: Sutri, Piombino, on the western side of the Apennines; Imola, Faenza, Forli, Meldola, Savignano, Sarsina, Pesaro, on the eastern side. Florence knew well what a terrible adversary he was, and she sent him one of her secretaries, Machiavelli. The famous author of 'The Prince' saw in the bloody adventurer a precursor of what our time has called Italian unity. Villari, in his 'Machiavelli e suoi tempi,' thinks that Machiavelli saw his own thoughts in Cæsar Borgia, and idealized him; that Cæsar, like Alexander VI., merely sought the aggrandizement of the domains of his children—that father and son were purely selfish. It may be; the fact is that they reconstituted the temporal power of the papacy, a power which was maintained afterwards for three centuries, and which now still subsists in germ in the Vatican. Do we not hear every day the protests of the Pope? Have we not seen even the Emperor of Germany, when he made his visit to the King of Italy, respecting the principle of the temporal power, or, at least, acting in such a manner as to leave the question of the temporal power "sub judice"?

Alexander Borgia, when the Spaniards tried to prevent him from entering the Neapolitan provinces, said that he wished to make Italy all of one piece; Cæsar Borgia once said that he had resolved to make himself "King of Italy." Machiavelli recommended Florence not to look upon Cæsar as a mere condottiere, but as a new potentate in Italy, with whom it was advisable to conclude a league and a treaty; he noticed that Cæsar had more guns than all the other princes of Italy put together; he was struck by his character, and painted him as "molto segreto," as "gran conoscitore della occasione." The political work of Cæsar was too sudden, too artificial; he had made too many enemies, and when he lost Pope Alexander, he lost everything. All his enemies —those who had not been put to death or succumbed in prison—rose against him. The contemporaries of Cæsar Borgia saw a judgment of God in the death of the captain who, born in the Vatican, and having conquered a great part of Italy, came to die in Spain, at the age of thirty-one years only, on the 12th of March, 1507, the anniversary day of his premature promotion to the bishopric of Pampeluna—and to die there in what was his own diocese.

This last part of the life of Cæsar is not so well known as the first; the historians have neglected the three years between his captivity and his death. M. Yriarte has thrown much light on this part of his subject, and he shows us the convulsions of the monster behind the high walls of the Castle of Medina del Campo. He gives us, in the second volume, pictures of this castle—a most terrible prison, with its high walls and its towers. It was a royal residence. Cæsar was treated with the greatest severity; legal documents were collected for his trial, concerning the death of the Duke of Gandia, his brother, and of Alfonso of Bisceglie, his brother-in-law, with the intention to inflict on him capital punishment. But Cæsar escaped from this formidable prison, and, after extraordinary adventures, he appeared suddenly "like the devil," says the chronicle of Moret, at the court of the King, his brother-in-law, in Pampeluna. His flight made an immense sensation; Pope Julius II. trembled on his throne, Venice was alarmed, as well as the King of France; the cities of Romagna recovered a hope of escaping from the domination of Julius II.

Yriarte's chapter on the flight from Medina del Campo reads like a novel, and is written with the aid of documents many of which were quite unknown before. Cæsar rode from Medina, which is in the centre of Spain, not far from Segovia, Valladolid, and Santander. He embarked at Santander and landed again at La Roda, from which place he went through Bilbao to Pampeluna, where he was received by the King and Queen of Navarre. A new career was opening before him; the King of Navarre had a turbulent vassal, Luis de Beaumonte (Louis de Beaumont). Cæsar was sent against him, as Captain-General of the royal forces, and was mortally wounded at Viana, and buried in the church of this town. At the end of the seventeenth century, the sepulchre which contained his remains was destroyed. M. Yriarte made some researches in the street of Viana, where, according to tradition, the remains of the Duke of Romagna, who had been in his youth a Prince of the Church, were thrown by order of the Church. He found, at the place where these remains were supposed to be, a skeleton and a skull; but were these the remains of Cæsar Borgia? Nothing was found which could prove it.

The iconography of Cæsar and Lucretia Borgia will be found among the most interesting parts of the work of M. Yriarte, as well as the curious details which he gives on the magnificent sword of Cæsar, made by an artist of Ferrara, now in possession of the Duke of Sermoneta, the chief of the family of the Gaetani. This admirable work of art, covered with engraved compositions, bears the inscription "Cum numine Cæsaris omen." It was reproduced and described in detail in March and April, 1886, in *Les Lettres et les Arts.*

Correspondence.

CAUSE AND EFFECT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your lamentation over the increase of bribery at elections, you will probably think that only a madman would say that it was the natural and necessary result of the movement for civil-service reform; yet I have always maintained that precisely that result would follow. On the 6th of July, 1885, I wrote in your paper as follows:

"Neither party has any policy or any means of carrying one out. At present the only means of stimulating united action is the hope of office. If you take away that without substituting any other, you simply destroy the basis of cohesion. If one party renounces the use of the offices, it will surrender power to the other; and if both parties renounce it, then the resort will be to the use of money in elections to be made up out of the Government in some way."

The reason of this is, that all our politics, national, State, and local, are worked, not from above, but from below—not as relating to something to do, but to something to get. All individuality is disappearing from public life, there is no unity of action and no responsibility, no possibility of gaining reputation and almost the certainty of losing it. At Washington the President, especially since he has been deprived

of the control of the offices, has no power whatever except the empty negative of a veto. The Cabinet officers, as far as any legitimate power is concerned, are merely clerks. Members of Congress, and even Senators, are nothing but units in a mob, the best of them struggling hopelessly to evolve some order out of shifting and irresponsible committees, and the worst cynically making themselves comfortable and feathering their nests—these last, by the way, alone having the chance of reaping anything but disappointment and crushed hopes. The whole business resembles building houses from the inside with loose sand, a process which men of honor and ability will sooner or later renounce, though there will always be a plenty of candidates for it while there are pay and position in sight. The fall from Adams, Hamilton, and Madison, from Webster, Clay, and Calhoun, to Blaine and Wanamaker is, no doubt, great; but the latter are natural fruits of the system and by no means its worst.

From all I have heard of Mr. Wanamaker, he is a sufficiently respectable and well-meaning man, who has adopted the only means available for success, just as our earlier generation used the offices. If the present system is continued, we may yet look back to such as he with regret. Is it not significant of the state of things in Washington that out of twelve Massachusetts Representatives, eight declined renomination? Meantime, the seat of government is in the lobby. It is in the secrecy of the committee rooms, and covered from the public view, that are wrought out those bargains and intrigues which, when offices formed the political lever, were confined to politicians, but, now that money is coming to the front, are in the hands of a different class, who intend to be repaid for their outlay. The next step is that the voters, disgusted with the whole spectacle, and finding that politics is merely an instrument of self-interest, lose their sense of responsibility and regard their vote as merchandise. What would be the use of a Congressional investigation into bribery? Supposing members to be anxious only for the truth (which, considering both sides are tarred with the same stick, may be doubted), they would merely disclose the hideous facts without offering the slightest guarantee for the future. It seems to me very strange to expect that, with voters anxious to sell and politicians anxious to buy, a mere change in the method of casting ballots can accomplish anything.

Are we then, like the Indian chief whose canoe got into the rapids of Niagara, to fold our arms and silently go to our fate? Certainly it would be more dignified than shrieking and howling, unless we can adopt some efficient remedy. Fortunately we are not left for this to conjecture, but have a living example before our eyes. In England the process of changing Parliament from the foulest corruption to perfect pecuniary purity has been accomplished, and the same result promises ere long to be secured in the elections. If anybody supposes that this wonderful transformation has been brought about by a particular mode of casting ballots, he must have given the subject very little attention. The first step was to induce the House of Commons to surrender the most potent instrument of corruption, the right to be the judge of its own elections; and the next to place all questions relating to elections in the hands of independent judges, in courts so constituted as to be beyond suspicion. This is the saving principle, all else being matter of detail. And how was the House of Commons brought to such an immense sacrifice of power? Through that beautiful arrangement which places the initiative in legislation in the hands of the executive Ministry, leaving to Parliament the functions of suggestion and veto, which, by the organization of business thus obtained, dispenses with all standing and secret committees, and allows all business to be conducted in open session; which, by thus placing members in full view of their constituents, not only frees their seats from an inherent taint of suspicion, but makes them objects of the highest social ambition, and therefore secures the services of the best men in the community; and which, by enforcing official leadership, at once compels members to act together under pressure of public opinion, and furnishes a motive of enthusiasm in the electors sufficient to replace the use either of offices or of money.

All this it is in our power to have by the adoption of the Senate Report of February 4, 1881, as the only thing which can check us on the downward road. As to whether we shall thus solve the problem of popular government, I feel less hopeful with advancing years; but one thing I do know—that unless we do solve it by some such application of principle, just as the French republic is at this moment (and from this identical cause of the abuse of legislative power) rushing on to civil war and military despotism, so that is the goal at which we, however long the road may be, shall ultimately arrive. G. B.

BOSTON, December 15, 1888.

CHOOSING THE ELECTORS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Regarding the Constitutional Amendment suggested by "H." in your issue of December 6, I wish to state an objection. After each census is taken, legislatures re-district States to make their Congressional representation accord with the new apportionment. In doing this, counties, or wards, are put on or taken off in order to equalize districts, or to suit the interests of the party controlling the Legislature. Did each district vote for an individual elector, as it does for representative, almost invariably the political standing of the elector chosen would be determined beforehand, and the vote of the minority might as well be uncast and unrecorded.

Such an amendment would offer constant opportunities for evil legislation, and would show at once the localities where corruption funds could be used to the greatest advantage. As at present, better to have a State express the will of its people as a unit, but in proportion to its population, than to have the elections thrown directly into the hands of parties and party organizations. HUGH EILUS.

THE TEACHER OF FREE TRADE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I was much interested by the letter in your issue of December 6, headed, "A Farmer on the Missionary of Free Trade." I fully agree with the views of your correspondent as to the necessity of dwelling upon the moral side of the tariff question, and I wish to say a few words on the subject from another standpoint. However important the education of the farmer in political economy may be, it can hardly be denied that the education of the youths who are to cast their maiden votes in 1892 is equally important, especially if, as seems too likely, this tariff problem is to harass us for many an election to come; for in the latter case the younger generation will have to furnish the good cause with leaders. But how are these youths to be taught? Are they to have statistics shoved at them, or elaborate reasonings, aimed at specialists on the subject, fired over their heads? Or are they to have their hearts touched with enthusiasm for a noble cause? Surely every one will choose the latter method. But how is this to be followed unless the moral aspects of the problem receive the larger share of attention? And how is a man to proceed who finds himself teaching political economy in a community largely wedded to protection? This is a problem which is confronting many teachers, old and young, at the present day; and I hope you will pardon me if I venture to give your readers a leaf out of my own experience in this connection.

Some time since I was elected to teach history and political economy in a Southern university. When I entered upon my duties, I was aware that this was the chief problem before me. I was convinced that protection is morally wrong, and I knew that many of my class were connected with protection, either through sugar in Louisiana, or iron in Alabama, or rice in South Carolina. How was I to tell these young men that their fathers were clamoring for something morally wrong? But tell them I must; honor required it of me, and it was the only way to teach them anything definite. Elaborate argumentation, statistics based on research among endless public documents—these, even if I could have brought myself to deliver them, would have either left my class untouched or left them in chaos. So I resolved to have at the hydra, and at least cut off one head. The result was highly gratifying. The student of history, if he is at all skilful, can easily show his class that a majority of the citizens of a nation can daily practise something highly immoral without once suspecting that it is immoral; he can show them how first one man sees sin in the practice, then a few, then, after a weary struggle, the many. He need not, with your correspondent, necessarily take slavery as his subject: the latitudinarianism of the English Church in the eighteenth century will furnish a good example. Thus he will take the sting out of his subsequent attack upon protection. This done, he will—but I will not insult your readers by proving protection wrong. I shall, however, give one incident to show how gratifying the result of my experiment was:

One of my pupils was a man nearly as old as I was, who had given up a business life to prepare himself for the ministry. He was a Republican, dyed in the wool, and a thoroughgoing protectionist. He winced a little at first, when I attacked protection, and, after a private argument, we agreed to drop the subject. But did he like me the less because I denounced his pet theory as immoral? Not a whit. We are not only good friends, but, some time after, having a desire to write an essay in favor of protection, he consulted me about the books he should read and the proper arrangement of his materials. I may add that, out of a class of thirty-five young men, not one showed any disposition to resent the presentation of my honest opinions, and a large number are enthusiastic free-traders because *free trade is right.*

W. P. T.

DECEMBER 10, 1888.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The excellently well-written communication of Farmer "H." in the *Nation* of December 6, is substantially correct in placing upon the same plane of morals the institution of slavery in the Southern States and the iniquitous and exorbitant system of tariff taxation now in force in the United States; but, like most analogies, the parallel comes to naught at a

certain point. Assuming that Farmer "H." is right in the statement that the emancipation of the negro was the result of the finally successful education of the majority of the people of the North up to the realization that slavery was a great moral wrong, he seems to forget that the slaves themselves never needed any education upon that particular point—the fact being that they longed for freedom with an intensity that probably far exceeded their appreciation of it when it was obtained; and that the Southern people, their masters, never realized the blackness of that foul blot upon their civilization until some time after fate had removed it. The lawmakers, and not the people, need to be educated in the moral principles that bear upon this momentous question. The great mass of the American people need to be instructed and enlightened as to their true individual interest—to be made fully to realize that they are daily and hourly paying an enforced tribute to a privileged class of their fellow-citizens.

That they will finally realize this fact, and reform the vast abuse that has grown from the seed of a theory that has become almost obsolete, I firmly believe; and that it is to the farmers that the country must look for relief from this grinding oppression, is a hope grounded upon the fact that, as a class, they receive fewest of the incidental benefits of protection. As was well said in one of your late editorials, farmers are exceedingly slow to grasp new ideas or be converted to doctrines subversive of convictions long established in their minds. Remote from the centres of restless intellectual agitation, and averse to mental adventure, belief with them is more a growth than a conviction. They devoutly believe every statement made by orators and newspapers of their own party, and as devoutly disbelieve every statement and argument made by orators and newspapers of the opposite party. But once convince them that their hard-earned dollars are systematically abstracted from their pockets by the hand of legalized fraud, and they may be depended on to protest in no uncertain terms. Once convince them that even 25 per cent. of the price of what they consume goes to swell the private profits of a few monopolists, and it may be safely predicted that even that minority of them who are known to be venal, will discard the comparatively small price that any party can afford to pay for their votes.

Upon this great crusade against ignorance the *Nation* has set forth; and a great, wise, and brave warrior, most calamitously for the country deposed from his leadership, has sounded the battle-cry that shall ring and reverberate with ever-increasing volume throughout the entire breadth of this continent, till the great mass of human intelligence will respond to it and march to triumph led by its martial music. Even as "beauty unadorned is adorned the most," so truly may it be said of this great monster of protection, that no power of fancy, no skill of logic, no cunning of metaphysical invention, can clothe it in more hideous garments than its own nakedness, laid bare by the ruthless hand of Truth. G.

Asheville, N. C., December 10, 1888.

WHEN TO INDOCTRINATE THE FARMER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have lived most of a long life in a farming population—in fact, was a farmer myself until of late years. Having been in the habit of thinking and reading rather more than most of my worthy country neighbors, I am now going to offer you some remarks which, though perhaps based upon a rather crude generalization, I am convinced are not without value.

To the dwellers in small towns and villages, and in more or less isolated groups throughout the country, Washington, for at least three years out of every four, is a great way off. When the fourth year arrives, though it is a period of much excitement and interest in political subjects, it is a time when the sort of sturdy independence of a life removed from the mobile influences of the centre of civilization is the very least susceptible of changes of opinion, and the most suspicious of the literature offered that seems designed to make any such change. There are reasons for this with which I will not seek to consume your space.

With regard to tariff reform, in which we overtaxed citizens of whatever political persuasion most devoutly wish to see some organized recruiting set on foot, it seems to some of us that efforts should at once be begun. There should be a distribution of short, plainly (if cheaply) printed tracts containing clear, forcible paragraphs of sound views, both original and copied. Many from the files of our late campaign editorials and portions of our political addresses were far too good to be wasted. Such things, with everything eliminated that savors of *political bias*, sown broadcast over the country, would not fail to be read and pondered. The farmer has as much capacity for thought as any man: he only is not going to be "chevied" into any thinking that is proposed to him with a view to influencing his vote on the eve of election. I myself made (or decided) two converts by silently showing a little slip cut from I forget what paper, stating that if the manufacturers *really* believed that the tariff made high wages, they would be the last men in the world to cry protection—a fact, by the way, which I think will bear further circulation.

Many of us, Republicans as well as Democrats, would, I believe, gladly spare a small sum, a fraction of the amount we are taxed by the unjust tariff laws, in the direction that has been suggested, and tariff-reform committees should have no lack of support.

Farmer.

Boston, December 4, 1888.

THE OLD ROYAL LIBRARY IN BERLIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Being a rather faithful reader of your paper, I couldn't help noticing what was said in Nos. 1217 and 1219 about the new library to be given to the city of New York from the bequest of Mr. Tilden; and as it is evident that a country so far behind in learning and civilization as America will not be able to manage so vast a literary or scientific undertaking without the help of those whom in all such matters we acknowledge to be our superiors—I mean the Germans—I would respectfully call the attention of the persons concerned to a model institution, the Royal Library of Berlin. The excellency of this establishment is vouched for by the fact that, for some time past, it has been running in opposition to the University Library proper, till, finally, it has got nearly the entire trade of the students. Indeed, the University Library is as good as boycotted.

Let me acknowledge, however, before I proceed with what might otherwise sound too much like the advertisement of a "Königlicher Hof-Lieferant," that my acquaintance with libraries is not very large, and that I am perfectly willing that the men charged with organizing the Tilden Library should look about elsewhere in Germany, for there might be better patterns. In fact, I have heard it rumored that there are such. The reason why I feel so much like recommending the royal institution in the German capital is that it is so "grossstädtisch," you know, and also because, as I said before, I have seen so little of other libraries. The great ones in Paris and in London, I have only had a glimpse of; but both, as you are aware, belong to countries that are not thoroughly "wissenschaftlich" in the German sense of the word, and hence they cannot enter into our consideration. As for the Public Library and the Athenæum in Boston, and the Library of my own Fair Harvard—why, highly as I used to think of them, they are just nowhere in comparison with this one here in Berlin. And the same thing, I dare say, may be set down in respect to the Newberry Library at Chicago and the Pratt Library at Baltimore—good enough, you know, for a rough nation with antiquated notions about self-government, without a court, and without either army or navy, but really inadequate if we ever want to fall into line with the advanced nations of Europe. It may seem incredible, but it is true, I knew a sensible college professor here last year who had come all the way from New England to edit a classical author in this Royal Library, and he was so immensely pleased with the workings of it that he came very near staying here altogether, so that his book would have become a German one, and would have had to be naturalized in America at the rate of 25 per cent. of its original cost.

But I am wandering from my subject; let me return to it. You understand, of course, that what I could chiefly recommend in this German library is the management and the working of it, not the books themselves or the way they are selected. In these latter respects we beat the Germans all hollow; for the books, for example, of the Boccaccio and Zola type, which some of our American libraries don't get under the administration of an orthodox board, they will probably get under one that is more liberal; and the books on free trade, which a Republican board might keep out till '92, will come in under their Democratic or Mugwump successors after '92. No, I don't refer to those aspects of a library. But what, then, would I point out as the most prominent features in the management of this well-nigh ideal institution of Berlin?

First of all, let a library be, as everything ought and in this country fortunately is getting to be—military. At Harvard and in Boston—I know comparisons are odious, but really, institutions of so young a country as ours ought not to feel hurt if they are told they too are still young—at Harvard, I say, and in Boston, the libraries are not run according to military methods; nor are there, I fear, a sufficient number of learned professors and Ph.D.'s represented in the management, which would be the next requisite to success. Hence you have not that precision and that conservatism over there which lend stability and dignity to a library as well as to every other public institution.

Contrast for a moment also the external features of the respective libraries. What strikes one immediately at Harvard and Boston is the large number of boys and young women employed. The presence of neither can be very conducive to the deepening and strengthening of studious habits of mind. Not to speak of the incontrovertible fact that the sight of so many books and so many educated "males" must necessarily estrange these

young "females" from home and family life (a fact corroborated by one of the latest utterances of the Prussian Minister of Education), one must also consider that books are sometimes heavy—at least all Church Fathers are—and that only full-grown and able-bodied persons ought to be engaged in the handling of them. Hence the Prussian way of doing things. None but men weighing fully 200 avoirdupois and having served from six to ten years in the army, seem to be chosen for that part of the work; and when they are of that description, they can manage the most ponderous tomes (one at a time, of course) with perfect safety to themselves and to others. What with their steady, thoughtful gait; what with the absolute precision with which they have been taught to take a book from the shelf where it has been waiting for you since yesterday when you ordered it, and lay it on the desk of the Doctor who is to deliver it to you; what with the Doctor's careful final examination of the book and your order-slip on which you have previously put down title, author, date, and place of publication, date and place of application for the loan of the book, your name, your residence, and your calling or title; what with an occasional pathetic appeal of the Doctor to a careless student to write a little more legibly; what with the same painstaking, loving, fatherly care that relieves you of the book when you have done with it and insists upon your taking a receipt or voucher for the return of it—what, I say, with all these exquisite, precise, and thoroughly military methods, I have known even our untutored and half-civilized Americans to stand with mouths and eyes wide open, and spontaneously express their wonderment by saying that this was a royal library indeed, nay, as some put it, a "darned" royal library, and that there was nothing like it—no, nor ever would be!

And that's just my opinion, and the reason why I recommend the study of it, and of military and scholastic methods in general, before anything more is done about the Tilden Library. There are other suggestions in regard to minor points, such as airing the delivery-room only on high-feast days and on the Emperor's (say, the President's) birthday; it will prevent a great many people from catching cold, and keep the books from being eaten by that mysterious library moth. I might also mention the subject of cataloguing, but I will only say, by all means avoid the foolish card system. Get good large folios, three or four for every letter, and put them up high enough where the blue-stockings can't get at them. Avoid also a double catalogue, one for subjects and another for authors: they involve too great a loss of valuable time on the part of the officials, who will constantly be obliged to explain to students which is which. But these are considerations of less importance. Only look to it that the thing is done up in a military and scholastic fashion, and the rest will take care of itself.

I have no doubt that the Library authorities here will be glad to assist a committee from New York if notice is given of their arrival a semester beforehand. In fact, I myself shall deem it a privilege to be of any further service in thus indirectly diffusing knowledge and true inwardness of theory. I confess, with somewhat of a blush, that it is nothing but native modesty, or rather democratic prejudice, that keeps me from putting my full name and address to this communication; for if the authorities here knew of my zeal for so noble a royal institution, they might single me out as a fit subject to be decorated with a medal or "Orden," which, as a citizen of a republic, I could not very well accept. However, I send you my address privately, and remain yours truly,

X.

BERLIN, November, 1888.

ISAIAH AND MONTESQUIEU.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a review of a new edition of Montesquieu's 'Esprit des Lois,' you say that the division of government powers into three departments, now so generally accepted, is due to his thought, and that it was "not dreamt of" in antiquity.

It must have been in the mind of Isaiah about 730 B. C., when he wrote (ch. 33, v. 22): "For the Lord is our judge, the Lord is our lawgiver, the Lord is our king."

Truly, L. N. D.

LOUISVILLE, KY., December 13, 1888.

[Not so. Isaiah can only be quoted to show that he thought the three functions properly united in one person. It is the differentiation of them—the vesting them in separate and independent persons—that is modern.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

AN early copy of Prof. James Bryce's 'American Commonwealth' has come to hand through the courtesy of the publishers, Macmillan & Co. It is in two compact volumes of convenient size and fair aspect, and, if only to be digested deliberately, is readable throughout. We must defer any extended notice of it for a little while; but, both from the author's exceptional mastery and from the collaboration he has secured from American specialists, we have no hesitation in placing this book at the head of those which pretend to treat of our form of government in theory and in its practical working. We bespeak for it the largest possible circulation, and at this season no more fitting gift could be made to any one interested in political inquiry, whether young or old. Taken as a whole, it is an incomparable mine of information and philosophic observation.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have in press a 'Life of Henry M. Stanley,' by H. W. Little; a 'History of the Celebration of the One Hundredth Anniversary of the Promulgation of the Constitution of the United States,' edited by Hampton L. Carson; and 'A Shocking Example, and Other Sketches,' by Frances Courtney Baylor.

Miss Sally P. McLean, author of 'Cape Cod Folks,' has written a new novel, 'Lastchance Junction,' to be published directly by Cupples & Hurd, Boston.

Longmans, Green & Co., 15 East Sixteenth Street, will be the American publishers of the late Lord Stanhope's 'Notes of Conversations with the Duke of Wellington.' They also promise a collection of the later lyrics of the Englishwoman who writes under the name of "E. Nesbit," entitled 'Leaves of Life.'

Early in the new year will appear the work on 'Remarkable Bindings in the British Museum' (New York: J. W. Bouton), for which Mr. H. B. Wheatley has prepared the text, and which is to contain sixty photogravure plates. This is evidently intended to do for the British collection what M. Bouchot's sumptuous work did for the French; and in recognition of the fact that the French interest in the art of bookbinding is greater than the English, there will be a simultaneous edition published in French by MM. Gruel & Englemann. The edition is limited to two hundred copies in English and two hundred in French. Lovers of the art in America may be interested to know that the catalogue of the recent Arts and Crafts Exhibition Society contained a note on bookbinding as an art and as a handicraft by Mr. Cobden-Sanderson, perhaps the most accomplished binder living; and a report of a recent lecture of his is condensed in the number of the *Bookbinder* dated November 28.

Mr. Richard le Gallienne, author of 'My Ladies' Sonnets' in which there were several poems in praise of books, will issue early in 1889 a volume of bookish verse to be called 'Volumes in Folio,' of which there will be but 250 copies in 16mo and 50 on large paper.

The pleasant announcement comes from Paris that M. Jules Lemaitre, perhaps the most brilliant of the younger French authors, will publish early in the new year a volume of short stories, to be called simply 'Des Contes,' and to be illustrated by M. Clairin and others.

Any one who wishes to see how far the United States lag behind in copyright legislation, as compared with the effete monarchies of despotic Europe, may be referred to a comprehensive French work recently compiled (not always quite accurately) by M. Charles Constant, 'Code Général des Droits d'Auteur' (Paris: Pedone-Lauriel; New York: F. W. Christern), in which he will find the full text of the Berne international convention, and French translations of the copyright laws of all the leading states of Europe. An examination of it shows that almost every country in Europe acknowledges the principle of international copyright, and that many of them make no inquiry as to the nationality of an author, extending the protection of their laws as fully to the alien as to the citizen. In no country of Europe (except Greece, Turkey, Bulgaria, and Servia) is the duration of copyright less than the life of the author. In England it is forty-two years after publication, or seven years after the author's death, whichever period is the longer. In most of the Continental nations, copyright does not expire until thirty years after the author's death. In France and in Belgium the term extends to fifty years after the author dies, and in Spain to eighty years; and this reminds us that even in Mexico the rights of authors are far more carefully guarded by law than in the United States. It is a curious and anomalous fact that the United States should be the first and the most liberal in caring for the inventor by their patent laws, and the last and the least liberal in caring for the author by their copyright laws.

We have already praised the editions of Hugo and Dumas now being issued by Little, Brown & Co., Boston. Two volumes each of 'The Toilers of the Sea' and of 'The Man Who Laughs' have just been added to the former series, and two of 'Twenty Years After' in the D'Artagnan romances. The binding is simple but of rich effect, and the typography is capital.

The seventh and eighth volumes of the 'Poetical Works of Robert Browning' have just appeared in the author's latest edition (Macmillan). They contain "In a Balcony" and "Dramatis Personæ," and the first volume of "The Ring and the Book." These attractive volumes are embellished with the familiar Talfourd portrait of Browning (1859), a *scudo* of Innocent XII. with his effigy, and an old title-page in facsimile.

We are glad to greet again Prof. Child's selection of two tales from Malcolm's 'Sketches of Persia'—'Stories from the Persian: Abdûlla of Khorassan, and Ahmed the Cobbler' (Cam-

bridge: C. W. Sever; New York: Brentano). They have a perennial freshness.

Gen. H. B. Carrington's 'Patriotic Reader; or, Human Liberty Developed in Verse and and Prose' (Lippincott & Co.) awakens expectations by no means fulfilled. It contains nothing whatever drawn from the moral agitation to rid this country of the incubus of slavery. Wendell Phillips is quoted only for his tribute to O'Connell; Sumner for "The Reign of Peace Foreshadowed"; Whittier for "The Battle of Lexington" and his "Centennial Hymn"; Pierpont for "The Pilgrim Fathers" and "Warren's Address"; Beecher for his "Eulogy on Grant;" Seward for "America's True Greatness"; John Quincy Adams for historical utterances; Lowell not at all, Giddings not at all, and so forth. The section (XIII) in which the subject is squinted at is euphemistically entitled, "America Survives the Ordeal of Conflicting Systems"; but ought not "the youth of America" to have had a glimpse of the "irrepressible conflict"? With much good matter, there is a deal of rubbish and padding in this book.

Longfellow's well-known ballad translation from Uhland furnishes the starting-point of a dainty holiday brochure, 'The Story of the Luck of Edenhall,' by Amanda B. Harris (Boston: D. Lothrop Co.). Miss Harris traces from his diaries the first promptings of Longfellow's muse in this instance, compares several ballads in which the "Luck" is commemorated, and tells a little about the Hall and the Musgrave family. Mr. E. H. Garrett supplies appropriate and pleasing designs made on the spot, as well as some imaginative ones (not so commendable) to accompany a metrical moral on the old theme, by Susan Coolidge.

Longfellow's 'Village Blacksmith,' illustrated in colors, with the American imprint of E. & J. B. Young & Co., is a neat little production, in which it is curious to see an English designer give a transatlantic complexion to the hero of the poem and his environment.

Though a commercial enterprise, the idea of 'Some Noted Sculptures and their Homes,' compiled by Mary Graham Duff, and published by the Soule Photograph Co., Boston, is not bad. Some fifty masterpieces of ancient art are described in the words of sundry writers possessing all sorts of qualifications as critics, and are provided each with a blank leaf for mounting the proper photographs—which can be had at such a price of the publishers, or can be procured in any other way. The work is in two volumes.

A new edition of H. D. Sleeper's 'Songs of Harvard' (Cambridge: C. W. Sever; New York: Brentano) has just appeared, with a pretty rubricated cover. The collection is out of the ordinary, and very tastefully printed.

The "George Eliot" and the "Schiller" Calendars are issued by Nims & Knight, Troy, N. Y., each equipped with appropriate background in chromolithograph, with portraits of the respective authors and typical characters from their works. The Schiller pad conveys extracts in the original German and in literal translation. This calendar is given the shape of a fan. The same firm's "Sunshine Calendar" is of a different sort—illuminated monthly cards hung upon a steel rod, with a Cupid design in front and a poem upon the back.

Pretty and novel is the "Author's Calendar" brought out by Greenough, Hopkins & Cushing, Boston—a rose-spray device on a white and gold cover, with each weekly leaf given up to extracts from a single author, Tennyson leading off. Sometimes the month is hit in the quotations, but not always. Yet there was room for a little aptness here—Herrick for May, Lowell for June, Tom Hood for November, etc.

Sun and Shade for December, according to promise, shows the photogravure, photolithographic, and photogelatine processes applied to a baker's dozen of paintings, engravings, etc., representing children, one being a portrait from life in colors.

L'Art for November 1 opens with a chapter on the "Damnation of Faust," from Adolphe Jullien's new work on Berlioz. The noble volume itself has quickly followed: 'Hector Berlioz: sa Vie et ses Œuvres' (Paris: Librairie de *l'Art*; New York: Macmillan). We should miss the golden moment of the gift season if we waited to say our full say about it, after having read it carefully. Its externals in the way of very profuse illustrations—portraits, caricatures, facsimiles of music, and fourteen symbolic lithographic drawings to fit the quarto page, by M. Fantin-Latour—ensure the worth of the purchaser's investment. But M. Jullien's similar monograph on Wagner proved that in matters musical he speaks with large knowledge and authority. Hence our advice is, to buy first of all, and judge afterwards.

The well-known Austrian traveller, Ernst von Hesse-Wartegg, contributes to *Petermann's Mitteilungen* an entertaining account of his recent explorations in Northern Venezuela, and especially of the Lake of Tacarigua or Valencia, interesting as being one of the three fresh-water lakes of any size in South America. He notes but few changes in the country since the time of Humboldt's visit, except that the cultivation of indigo and cotton, its principal productions then, has been entirely supplanted by coffee and cacao, the amount exported of the former having increased from one million pounds in 1804 to forty million in 1886. In some districts, agriculture is being relinquished for cattle-raising, with a consequent destruction of the forests and a material decrease of the waters of the lake. This is now thirty miles long by about nine broad, and, though sixty thousand people live near its shores, is almost deserted, only four small canoes being upon it. Prof. O. Krümmel discusses in the same number, with the aid of some admirable charts, the old "problem of the Euripus," the cause of its irregular currents or tides, a phenomenon frequently mentioned by ancient writers and used proverbially by Æschines and Aristotle to designate an unstable man; and Emil Schlagintweit explains the meanings of the names of the principal Himalayan peaks, suggesting for the sake of uniformity that the highest should be called Gaurisankar-Everest. A supplemental number contains an unusually well-written description, by H. Michaelis, of his travels in central and western China.

A fine wall-map for students and teachers of Cæsar and later Roman history is that by H. Kiepert of Hither and Farther Gaul and the adjacent countries, just issued by Dietrich Reimer, Berlin. Its range may roughly be described as from Rome to Liverpool and Vienna.

There is a sensible article to be noted in the (Syracuse) *Academy* for December on "Who Shall Teach French or German?" by Dr. A. N. Van Daell of Boston.

In the current *American Journal of Philology* Mr. M. D. Learned continues his papers on the Pennsylvania German Dialect, and Mr. J. D. Prince contributes some interesting observations on the language of the Eastern Algonkin tribes.

The "Ten-Year Book" of Cornell University appears for the second time. It is a list of matriculates as well as graduates, and adds present addresses and (in the case of graduates) a brief summary of the post-graduate career. In those particulars, the register is, we believe, unique. The labor of preparing it may be estimated.

Two significant "circulars of information" have just issued from the Bureau of Education: the one, "Industrial Education at the South," by the Rev. A. D. Mayo; the other and more extensive, "Thomas Jefferson and the University of Virginia," by Dr. Herbert B. Adams. The latter brochure is beautifully illustrated, and is a monograph of permanent historical value. It combines with its main topic authorized statistics of the chief Southern colleges.

The last of the holiday books come to us from Nims & Knight (Troy, N. Y.), in the form of four thin volumes. The first three of these, 'Celebrated Artists,' 'Gems of Art,' and 'Gems of French Art,' are all built upon the same lines. The first is a collection of etchings, and the two others are collections of photogravures, and the grouping is made on no discoverable principle. As is apt to be the case in such collections, the "gems" are largely paste, though a real stone is to be found here and there. The fourth volume is an edition of Bryant's 'Autumn Pastoral,' with photogravure reproductions of drawings by C. E. Phillips. There is little good to be said of it.

—Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps thus writes to an American friend: "I have done nothing in a literary way all this summer, nor have I been capable of doing anything except adding to my collection of Shakespeare rareties. [It is much to do that.] Among my recent acquisitions are a copy of the printed original music to 'Farewell, Dear Heart, since I must needs be gone,' quoted in 'Twelfth Night' (act ii., 3), only one other copy being known; and a manuscript book of travels of the last century containing the earliest account of the interior of Shakespeare's birth-room that has yet been discovered." Bears hibernate through the winter. Mr. Phillipps reverses their habit. As he has, to use his own phrase, "lain fallow all summer," Shaksperian students who remember his activities during so many a year are sanguine that he will not let the winter pass without adding to the weighty debt they owe him.

—It will be gratifying to students of science in this country to know that the Cuvier Prize of the French Academy of Sciences, which is awarded triennially for the most important researches in the domain of general natural history and geology, and which has associated with it, among others, the names of Von Baer, Ehrenberg, Richard Owen, Agassiz, and Heer, has been this year decreed to the distinguished president of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia, Professor Joseph Leidy. Following closely upon the award to the same scientist of the Lyell Medal of the Geological Society of London, and of the Walker Grand Prize of the Boston Society of Natural History, this recognition is a just tribute to the worth of one who has, with a degree of modesty uncommon to men of such eminence, kept himself well in the background among aspirants for fame and honors. There are probably few among the distinguished naturalists of this country who are less generally known than Professor Leidy, yet it is safe to say that during the last quarter of a century he has had no peer among the native-born, nor any co-laborer whose works have been held in higher repute by the savants of both Europe and America. As a comparative anatomist and microscopist, he easily leads the field; and if in the department of vertebrate palæontology he has seen rivals grow about him, it can yet be said that Dr. Leidy was the founder of

the science in this country, and that to his pen belong the records of the first important researches made into the extinct life of the Western Territories. To Dr. Leidy, likewise, humanity is indebted in great part for the determination of the nature of trichina.

—About a year ago, in speaking of the commemoration of the thirtieth anniversary of Mommsen's Berlin professorship, we remarked regretfully that we could see no sign of the completion of his long-delayed work on Roman constitutional law. When we wrote these words, the wished-for work was, no doubt, already completed, and it has since been published as Vol. III., in two thick parts, making in all 1,336 pages. This great work, in Mommsen's strong and condensed style, in which there is never a word too much, but which is not devoid of the intolerable complexities of German construction, with exhaustive citations and illustrative extracts, and provided with abundant cross-references, may well daunt the most enthusiastic reader in this busy age. It is, nevertheless, whether for reading or for reference, indispensable to all students of the Roman Constitution; and, indeed, it renders unnecessary a great deal of previously necessary reading, at the same time clearing up points which have heretofore been obscure. It is to be noted that in this treatise Mommsen's point of view is that of the lawyer rather than the historian —a point of view which explains, for example, his theory of the relations of the plebs to the clients, in which we cannot but think that the historical question is somewhat obscured by his purely legal treatment. This explains, too, the order of the work—the theory of the magistracy occupying the first volume, the several magistrates the second, the people and the Senate the third. We should, for our part, be tempted to reverse the order, or at least commence the subject with the discussion of the people and their organization. The present volume, after treating of the body of citizens (*Bürgerschaft*), their organization, rights, and duties (assemblies, equites, nobles, etc.), proceeds to take up the classes of qualified citizens and dependent bodies—Latins, *Socii*, etc.—together with the important subject of municipal organization. Part II. (why not call it a separate volume, as it really is?) is devoted to the Senate. In this part, contrary to his usual custom, which is to omit mention of rival theories, Mommsen makes constant mention of Willems's great work, 'Le Sénat de la République Romaine,' which he treats with the respect due to an able antagonist.

—An interesting proof of the widespread interest in the study of that branch of folk-lore relating to popular tales reaches us from the south of Spain, in the shape of a work devoted to Catalan tales. It is entitled, 'Rondallística: Estudi de Literatura Popular ab mostres catalanes inédites' (Barcelona, 1888), and received the extraordinary prize in the Floral Games at Barcelona in the same year. The author, Pan Bertran y Bros, has prefixed to his text an excellent treatise on folk-lore, in which he gives a very clear account of the various theories of the origin and diffusion of popular tales, and proposes a scheme of classification into three classes: sub-human (animals, plants, inorganic natures), super-human (fairies, witches, giants, etc.), and human (man). The twenty-five stories that follow have not been previously published, and are a welcome contribution to our somewhat scanty stock from the Iberian peninsula. Some of the stories are already familiar in other versions: No. 1, *Compare Llop y comare Guineu* is Grimm No. 2, "Cat and Mouse in Partnership" (in the Catalan tale the wolf and fox are the actors); No. 2, *La Gallina, 'l Gall, la Cabra, 'l Porch, el Llop y la Guineu* is Crane's 'Italian Popular Tales,' lxxxvii, "The Cock"; No. 4, *El Corp, la Guineu, y 'l Llop* is Uncle Remus's "Old Mr. Rabbit, he's a good Fisherman" (La Fontaine xi, 6); No. 5, *La Guineu y 'l Gripau*, is Uncle Remus's "Mr. Rabbit finds his Match at Last" (the Amazonian myth of how the tortoise outran the deer); No. 6, *L'Aucellet*, is Grimm No. 47, "The Juniper Tree"; No. 7, *Boquet, Boquill*, is Crane's lxxviii (the story so well known in English of the old woman who found a little crooked sixpence and went to market and bought a little pig); No. 8, *Pere Xich*, is Grimm No. 20, "The Valiant Little Tailor"; No. 10, *Sant Vicens Ferrer y 'l Aprenent*, is Crane's li, "The Lord, St. Peter, and the Blacksmith"; No. 11, *Sant Pere y 'l Ronyó del Bé*, is in the *Cento Novelle* No. lxxv, and Grimm No. 81, "Brother Lustig"; No. 14, *La Endevinalla*, is Grimm No. 22, "The Riddle"; No. 15, *El Soldat del llibre Maravellós*, is (partly) Grimm No. 61, "The Little Farmer"; No. 18, *El Mitx-Amich*, is the *Disciplina Clericalis* (ed. Schmidt, p. 35). The other stories are of the class of jests, several of them belonging to the cycle of our Lord's travels upon earth, in which St. Peter, as usual, plays a sorry part.

—The title of the work demands notice. It is a new creation from the Catalan word *rondalla* (tale), a term derived from the habit of narrating tales at the winter evening meetings of neighbors, where the stories go round the fire from one mouth to another. The editor states that what he has published constitutes but a small part of the stock he has collected. It is to be hoped that he may be able to publish the rest as a supplement to Maspons y Labros's collection ('Lo Rondallayre,' Barcelona, 1871–75, 3 vols.), which contains nothing but fairy tales—fables, legends, and anecdotes being entirely wanting.

—There is a certain solitary wasp which regularly lays in a store of five half-dead caterpillars for its coming male grubs and ten for its female. Mr. Galton has lately found out in his Anthropometrical Laboratory, that women who do not wear corsets have a breathing capacity nearly half as great again as that of women who do wear them. An investigation by Lowenfeld, noticed in the last number of the *Journal of Psychology*, makes it plain that neither the weight of the brain nor the convolution of its surface is to be considered as a reliable expression of intellectual development, for they are modified by the length and weight of the body and the thickness of the cortex, but that the supply of blood to the brain is so very variable as to be a matter of great importance. He finds that the relative diameter of the cerebral blood-vessels, per 100 grammes of brain, is in some cases nearly twice as great as in others, and that it increases with increase of age; and he draws the natural conclusion that the capability of continuous mental exertion and the development of talent must depend very largely upon this factor. These three facts are not without a connection. A large amount of food is necessary for the production of a large amount of energy. But the amount of food which the human machine can transform into work depends upon the breathing capacity of the lungs, and that depends upon the amount of air which can be supplied for its combustion, and that depends upon the wearing or the not wearing of corsets. With a generous supply of blood, the proportion of it which can be turned in upon the brain is very variable, and must be capable of being largely influenced by habit. Hence the amount of intellectual work which can be done by woman it is within her own power to regulate, to a much greater extent than might have been supposed possible. It has been noticed that college women have largely given up the wearing of the corset, and it is doubtless a custom that will become more and more widespread; it would seem strange that any one should care to pour into himself intellectual food at the same time that he carefully shuts off the draft of his furnace and so prevents its utilization.

RECENT POETRY.

If this age does not build the tombs of the prophets, it at least edits anthologies from the poets, combining and recombining their material in endless repetition. Fortunately, the work is almost always done well, with ample editorial labor in the way of annotating and indexing. We are somewhat tardy in noticing Mr. Sharp's admirable 'Sonnets of this Century' (Whittaker), which includes, indeed, only English poets, yet brings the list down to recent years, and furnishes an indispensable supplement to the collections of Caine, Waddington, and others. A still more valuable work is that of Samuel Waddington, 'Sonnets of Europe' (White & Allen), giving copious translations, not merely from the Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese, but also from realms where the sonnet seems exotic—the French, German, Swedish, Dutch, and Polish. Many of his translations are the work of Americans—Brooks, Bryant, Higginson, Longfellow, Lowell, Norton, Parsons, and Madame Ossoli. It is a volume which recalls curiously the period when the sonnet, in its strict form, came to be temporarily distrusted as un-English; so that Coleridge, writing in 1797 a preface to his own sonnets, declared an English composition on the Italian model to be too difficult and artificial a thing to attempt, and maintained that a sonnet-writer should "consult his own convenience" as to metre, and have "rhymes many or few, or no rhymes at all." This he proceeded to illustrate by publishing a "sonnet" in sixteen lines, with alternate rhymes, composed while climbing Brockley Coomb—although the composition appears in later editions only as "Lines," with all claims to sonneteering discreetly withheld. If Coleridge thought even the Italian sonnet too artificial, what would have been his verdict on the little volume 'Ballades and Rondeaus, Chants Royals, Sestinas, Villanelles, etc.,' by Gleeson White (Appletons)? Here we have a cyclopædia of the so-called French forms of poetic art, with many American contributions from Oscar Fay Adams, Bunner, Brander Matthews, Scollard, and others. There is much wit and some wisdom, as well as a great deal of grace and ingenuity, in this little book; but we fancy that Coleridge would have closed it with a slight feeling of *après moi la déluge*. Even the modern reader may turn with some mental unbending to the pretty little volume called 'Elfin Music: An Anthology of English Fairy Poetry,' by Arthur Edward Waite (London: Walter Scott; New York: Whittaker). All the versified fairy tales which charmed his youth will here be found; but why did not the editor include the pretty Irish legend of "The Fairy Reaper," which appeared, some years since, in an English magazine? Mr. Henry F. Randolph has edited 'The Book of Latter-Day Ballads (1858–1888)' (A. D. F. Randolph & Co.), a well-printed and well-edited collection, but somewhat miscellaneous in character. It seems curious that he should omit Kingsley from his list of poets; his omission of Longfellow and some other

Americans is apparently due to the non-consent of publishers. 'Heroic Ballads,' edited by Mrs. Tileston (Roberts Bros.), is a better collection, which we notice rather tardily; but the illustrations are poor and the binding hideous.

The series of poetical compilations issued by White & Allen is, however, so liberal and ample as to dwarf all others. They issue ten volumes, printed apparently in London, and grouped as follows: 'Ballads of the North Countrie'; 'Jacobite Song'; 'Early English Poetry'; 'Sonnets of the Century'; 'Irish Minstrelsy'; 'A Century of Australian Song'; 'Women's Voices'; 'Songs of the Sea'; 'Sacred Song'; 'Children of the Poets.' The last three volumes include the work of American authors, to some extent; while the Australian volume includes Mr. Boyle O'Reilly, and the Irish volume has both him and Colonel Halpine. These books are very unequal, both in material and selection, but they are all well printed and edited, with a good bibliographical apparatus; although they need, by reason of their extent and merit, a general index to the whole, which might well appear in a small supplementary volume. It is really an *embarras des richesses* to have so extensive an anthology and yet no key to it. The absence of American writers in the women's volume is a peculiar drawback upon it; and the Australian collection, though faithfully edited, gives an impression of making the most of rather thin material. Not one of all Mr. Sladen's poets shows anything like the ring and fire which appeared, fifty years ago, in Thomas Pringle's poems written in South Africa.

In the way of translations, the leading place must be given to 'The Kalevala,' the epic poem of Finland, done into English by John Martin Crawford (Alden), in two handsome octavos—the first complete rendering of this remarkable poem. Attention was first attracted to it, as may be remembered, when it was found to have suggested the metre of Longfellow's 'Hiawatha.' It must be confessed that this metre is a positive drawback, so monotonous does it become in the reading; nor can the lay reader quite go along with the opinion of Max Müller, who thinks that the 'Kalevala' possesses merits not dissimilar to those of the 'Iliad,' and ranks it as the fifth national epic of the world. Yet it is full of striking thoughts, as when the songs of Wainamoinen not merely disarm his opponents, but give warmth to the new sun and the new moon, when they are made; or when the same great wonder-worker, having made a magic vessel, cannot complete it until he can find the three lost words of his master Wipunen. He seeks them in the brains of the wild birds and on the tongues of wild animals; but it is not until, after untold dangers, he finds the elder enchanter himself, that the three words are obtained and the boat floats. The three words tell the causes of things, and, as an old man informs Wainamoinen,

> "Greater things have been accomplished,
> Much more wondrous things effected,
> Through but three words of the master;
> Through the telling of the causes
> Streams and oceans have been tempered."
> (I, 105.)

The 'Kalevala' is indeed one of those primeval epics which, as Thoreau said, silence a man for a while, since it has thoughts which go deep.

We should, perhaps, also include among translations the works of Edward Fitzgerald (2 vols.; London: Quaritch; Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), which we have delayed noticing, waiting for what is understood to be the authorized edition. The present publication is said to have been arranged by Mr. Quaritch, who holds most of Fitzgerald's copyrights, while Mr. W. Aldis Wright is preparing the recognized biography. The memoir in this volume is somewhat hasty and off-hand; the powerful poem of Omar Khayyám is given from the first and fourth editions, thus contrasting Fitzgerald's extremes of variation, but without presenting that collection of all the four variants which is still a desideratum. The editor of these volumes hazards some versions of his own in his notes, and these hardly win our gratitude or enhance the dignity of Omar Khayyám. It is a melancholy fact that Fitzgerald so dwarfs all other translators of the old tent-maker that their attempts in that direction must meet with indifference. Even Mr. John Leslie Garner's 'Strophes of Omar Khayyám' (Milwaukee: Corbett) will obtain but little gratitude from the public, although the version is to all appearance made from the original, and has some interesting parallel passages from various languages; but the fire of Fitzgerald's rare genius is wanting, though we see no reason why Mr. Garner's attempts are not as satisfactory as Whinfield's. For the rest, the two Fitz gerald volumes include his translations from Jámi and Æschylus, but not from Sophocles, and only a portion of his admirable renderings from Calderon. They include also a curious, old-fashioned literary dialogue, entitled "Euphranor," which may best be described by saying that the participants are named Phidippus, Lexilogus, and the like; a paper called "Polonius," which is only a collection of rather trite quotations; and a racy series of papers on "Suffolk Sea Phrases," which give us more of Fitzgerald's individuality than all other sources combined, and afford some glimpse of the school in which he learned his unsurpassed vigor of language. It is curious, as a matter of comparison, to find among all his phrases only two or three which are in use on our seacoast, some of these being *ship's husband*, *sou'wester* (hat), and *to shin up* (a mast). But the whole result of these two handsome volumes is to tantalize, and to awaken the desire to know more and more of Edward Fitzgerald.

Among other translations we note 'Poems by Alexander Pushkin, translated from the Russian; with an Introduction and Notes,' by Ivan Panin (Cupples & Hurd). It is preceded by a singular preface, in which the translator concedes that he has sought only literalness, and disavows all attempts at melody. We cannot test his success in the former direction, but his disavowal is extremely well founded. The inexhaustible Sir Edwin Arnold gives us another volume of oriental translations, 'With Sa'di in the Garden; or, the Book of Love' (Roberts Bros.), carrying on a series which is perhaps becoming a little cloying, and giving us a Saadi (or Sa'di) in verse who is certainly a little less impressive than when he speaks in the prose versions of Captain Clarke or James Ross. The Rev. Oliver Crane, D.D., of Middletown, Conn., adds another to the translations of Virgil, choosing the English hexameter as his medium (Baker & Taylor Co.). As a result he gives us a book which is more readable, on the whole, than the blank-verse translations, but strikes the reader, after all, as being rather the work of a schoolmaster than of a poet. It is marred, too, by abrupt and ungraceful expressions, as

> "Plundered the sacred bust, and with hands still reeking with carnage,
> Ventured profanely to fumble the virginal wreaths of the goddess." (Æn. ii, 167–8.)

Among translations should also be classed the volume, 'Poems and Translations,' by Lewis Frederick Starrett (Boston: Rand Avery Co.); for the greater part of the volume is occupied by versions from the German lyric poets, and these are of more interest, on the whole, than the original poems that precede them. The same discrimination must also be made in the little volume, 'Metrical Translations and Poems,' by Frederick H. Hedge and Annis Lee Wister (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), where the German translations are far better than those of Mr. Starrett.

Among the volumes of "Poems" that come to us from England, that bearing the name of the Rev. Stopford A. Brooke (Macmillan) most arrests attention, from its surprising freshness and vigor, seeming like the production of an impetuous youth rather than of a London clergyman who has passed his half-century of years. It serves, however, to recall the fact that he took prizes for poetry at Dublin University, and it is evident from the varied contents of this volume that the Muse has been a lifelong companion. He shows an unusual capacity of sustained vigor through some of the longer poems, as "The Lioness" (p. 139), and gives us both the moralist and the poet in these strong verses, which recall Barry Cornwall's "Within and Without," drawing a similar contrast:

JUSTICE.

> Three men went out one summer night,
> No care they had, or aim,
> And dined and drank—"Ere we go home
> We'll have," they said, "a game."
>
> Three girls began, that summer night,
> A life of endless shame;
> And went through drink, disease, and death
> As swift as racing flame.
>
> Lawless and homeless, foul, they died;
> Rich, loved, and praised, the men;
> But when they all shall meet with God,
> And Justice speaks—what then? (p. 85.)

In 'Glen Desseray, and Other Poems,' by the late John Campbell Shairp (Macmillan), we see how much can be contributed towards the making of a poet by the mere fact of living among poetic localities, and we also see the limitations of that influence. In the case of Principal Shairp, it cannot quite be said to have succeeded; and it is doubtful whether any poem in the volume will afford so much pleasure, out of Scotland, as will be given by the admirable preface of Dr. Palgrave. To the general reader the two compositions entitled "Balliol Scholars" and "Highland Students" may perhaps have more interest than any of the rest, and this for other than poetic reasons. 'Dreams to Sell,' by May Kendall (Longmans) is a dainty little book, with much grace and a good deal of strength in the verses, as, for instance, in the following:

LOST SOULS.

> They passed before my threshold,
> The lost souls, one by one.
> I watched them from the daybreak
> Unto the set of sun.
>
> I said, "My soul's unshaken
> Because I have not sinned.
> Surely, they reap the whirlwind,
> They who have sown the wind."
>
> The burden of their failure,
> It was no more my own
> Than a far distant struggle
> Lost in a land unknown.
>
> Till it seemed a sudden shadow
> Over my threshold crossed,
> And I knew the play was ended,
> And my own soul was lost. (p. 133.)

Another English volume is that by Mr. Henry G. Hewlett, 'A Wayfarer's Wallet—Dominus Redivivus' (London: Redway). We once had occasion to speak warmly of this author's previous volume, 'A Sheaf of Verse'; and the present work keeps in some degree the promise of that, although we cannot think the longer poem equal to some of the slighter ones that precede it. The following plainspoken sonnet is even more applicable to-day than in the year 1870, when it was written:

TO GERMANY.

> O source of God! if that dread name be thine,
> Art thou not cozened by the cheat of sense
> That prompts the fated tool's blind confidence
> Itself doth wield its destiny? The Rhine,
> Unity, Fatherland, a fortressed line,
> Of these, thy righteous armor of defence,
> Hast thou wrought arms of fraud and violence.
> Unity masks the intricate design
> Of one cool gamester's will, whose daring stake
> Risks all for empire. Fatherland doth make

Ten thousand children fatherless. Where stood
The Cæsars, clomb the conquering kings o' the North
And fell! Beware, lest some new scourge go forth,
And Rhine, thy Tiber, roll with German blood!
(p. 22.)

'The Banshee, and Other Poems,' by [Dr.] John Todhunter (London: Kegan Paul), handles well some of those fine old Irish legends in which Aubrey de Vere has found such rich material. 'From West to East,' by Henry Rose (London: Stott; New York: Scribner & Welford), is one of those poetic volumes we often receive from the much-travelling Englishman—books marked by no great genius, yet with the blossoms of many lands pressed between the leaves.

Among recent American volumes, Mr. Curtis May gives us in 'Moly' (Putnams) some pleasing sketches of travel, but when he tries to be jocose, as in "The Old Maids' Club," he is simply coarse. Mr. Thomas E. Van Bibber's 'The Holy Child; or, the Flight into Egypt' (Putnams) is a long blank-verse poem, somewhat after the Lew Wallace style, but in a quieter and less turgid vein. Mr. D. J. Donahoe, in 'Idyls of Israel' (Alden), goes over the same ground. Mr. Arlo Bates's 'Sonnets in Shadow' (Roberts Bros.) have in truth the sadness they proffer in their title, and this not quite so much lighted by faith as is the 'In Memoriam' of Tennyson. Of this, one ought not perhaps to complain; but there is also some want of that controlling simplicity of structure which is needed to balance the somewhat artificial character of the Italian sonnet. Mr. Elwyn A. Barron's play of 'The Viking' (Chicago: McClurg) is vouched for by Edwin Barrett as being really available for acting. So many good dramas are unsuitable for the stage that it is pleasant to find one which promises to be better in acting than in reading. 'Mask and Domino,' by David L. Proudfit (Philadelphia: Porter & Coates), so suggests Edgar Fawcett in its style that one has to look at the title-page to make sure of the authorship. 'Madeleine, a Poem in Fragments,' by Daniel Chauncey Brewer (Putnams), is rendered perplexing by the fact that there seems nothing to explain the title, or to make the volume other than a collection of miscellaneous poems. It seems curious that a man educated at Williams College should call a poem written in the following metre a "sonnet":

"'Tis when the wealth of summer life
Merges into cool autumnal days,
And golden harvests o'er the land
Bespeak the great Creator's praise."
(p. 116.)

That he should, in the same poem, rhyme "more" with "law" is perhaps less strange, in view of the bad example given in this respect by Mr. Aldrich and others.

As Dr. Palgrave's preface is the best part of the volume of Mr. Shairp's poems, so is Mr. Leslie Stephen's preface the best part of 'A Marriage of Shadows,' by the late Margaret Veley (Lippincott). The rest is a tribute to affection rather than to genius; but many of the poems by this young English poetess are familiar to Americans, as having been published in our own magazines. 'The Dead Doll, and Other Verses" by Margaret Vandegrift (Ticknor) has lively poems for children, but is it desirable to put the thought of death into such prominence for those young things, even as embodied in a doll? Miss Jessie F. O'Donnell's 'Heart Lyrics' (Putnams) is graceful, tender, and innocent. Innocence is evidently not the aim of Mrs. Ella Wheeler Wilcox's 'Poems of Pleasure,' but we feel bound to say, even at the risk of impairing its sale, that there is no great harm in it: it is simply flat. It is hard to see why the distressful and somewhat maudlin effusions of Adah Isaacs Menken (Lippincott) are reprinted; but it may be that the cheap laurels of Mrs. Wilcox and Mrs. Rives-Chanler will not suffer that poor outcast to sleep in her grave. 'Poems by Josiah Allen's Wife' (Funk & Wagnalls) has the good intentions and the commonplaceness which mark all the writings of this popular author. She is one of those who in prose cultivate a homeliness bordering on vulgarity, but in verse demand as heroines nothing less than the Lady Maud, the Lady Cécile, Gladys, Lemoine, Gloria, and Isabelle. On the whole, we prefer her with Jane and Samantha. Mrs. Rose Terry Cooke has a talent of much higher grade, but in the enlarged edition of her poetical works (Gottsberger) we find with regret that little is added—except in quantity—to her earlier volume of 1861, which contained poems such as "Bluebeard's Chamber" and "Basile Renaud," to which her later contributions afford no parallel.

In the way of local coloring, an attribute which often makes even commonplace poetry interesting, we have 'Legends of the Susquehanna,' by Truman H. Purdy (Lippincott), with illustrations by Darley, whose style was once so popular; 'Andiatorocté; or, the Eve of Lady Day on Lake George,' by the Rev. Clarence A. Walworth (Putnams), a poem on an Indian theme, with attractive studies from nature and some glimpses of French Canadian convent life; 'Monadnock,' by J. E. Nesmith (Cambridge: Riverside Press), with unusually vigorous sketches of Emerson's favorite mountain; and 'The Western Wanderer,' by Richard P. Parrish (Allison), giving a traveller's itinerary across the continent. Each of these authors adds miscellaneous verses to his title-poem, but never with very valuable results. In 'Letters from Colorado,' by H. L. Wason (Boston: Cupples & Hurd), we have a series of rhymed letters, with quite a variety of aspects of camp life and experience on plain and mountain. Mr. Thomas C. Amory, the well-known Boston historian and philanthropist, gives us two twin volumes in verse, 'Charles River: A Poem' and 'The Siege of Newport' (Cambridge: University Press), which make a pleasant blending of historic legend and the personal reminiscence of half a century. Mr. D. M. Henderson's 'Poems, Scottish and American' (Baltimore: Cushings & Bailey) have a pleasant Scotch flavor, and 'Songs of the Celt,' by Charles Cashel Connolly (Baltimore: Murphy), have something of the Irish fervor. The Rev. Dr. Thomas Hill's volume "In the Woods and Elsewhere' (Cupples & Hurd) is full of spicy suggestions of the forests of Maine, as is the Rev. John W. Chadwick's 'A Book of Poems' (Roberts Bros.) of the sea breezes of Marblehead. And as a farther bit of local coloring, we like nothing in 'Orestes, a Dramatic Sketch, and Other Poems,' by Harry Lyman Koopman (Buffalo: Moulton) so well as this stirring lay "Isle au Haut," which thus begins:

Highland island of the deep,
Isle au Haut!
Where the storm winds wailing sweep,
And the breakers flash and leap
All a-row,
Echoing up thy rocky steep,
Isle au Haut!"
(p. 49.)

We have felt disposed to interest ourselves in the little volume of Mr. Madison J. Cawein, 'The Triumph of Music, and Other Lyrics' (Louisville, Ky.: Morton) were it only that it comes from a part of the country which has hitherto done itself too little justice in song; but it is spoiled for us by a weak and pervasive imitativeness that makes page after page of it seem mere Swinburne-and-water. We take almost at random the following:

FOREVERMORE.

O heart that vainly follows
The flight of summer swallows
Far over holts and hollows
O'er frozen buds and flowers;
To violet seas and levels,
Where lone Time's locks dishevels
With merry mimes and revels
The aphrodisiac Hours.

O love who, dreaming, borrows
Dead love from sad to-morrows,
The broken heart that sorrows,
The blighted hopes that weep;
Pale faces pale with sleeping,
Red eyelids red with weeping,
Dead lips dead secrets keeping,
That shake the deeps of sleep.
(P. 65.)

And so on through seven stanzas of words, words, words!

In a pretty little volume of Edinburgh imprint, Mr. William Winter has collected many of his poems under the title 'Wanderers' (Ticknor). They reveal him always as a man of essentially poetic mind and sometimes as a poet. There is some, but not very great, promise in 'Iona, a Tale of Ancient Greece,' by Payne Erskine (Cupples & Hurd). The modest little volume, 'Fourteen Sonnets,' by Warren Holden (Lippincott), also indicates some promise; and 'A Story of the Sands, and Other Poems,' by Dr. E. L. Macomb Bristol, "The Flower Poet" (Brentano), none at all. It, however, offers, like others of the very poorest volumes which reach us, the author's picture and autograph.

If we have reserved to the last the volume by Walt Whitman, 'November Boughs' (Philadelphia: McKay), it is partly because it is mainly prose and not verse, and so a little outside of our subject; and partly because, while the battle still wages between his worshippers and his foes, it is difficult either to dismiss him briefly or to do him ample justice. His portrait, at the beginning, is an infinitely sad spectacle, as must be the case with that of every poet who looks eighty at seventy, and whose very last notes are such a wail of sadness:

"Soon to be lost for aye in the darkness—loth, I so loth to depart,
Garrulous to the very last."
(P. 38.)

When we compare this with the brave and cheerful old age of Longfellow, Holmes, and Whittier, it certainly has a bearing on the total estimate of that individuality which Whitman himself has made so inseparable from his poems. There are doubtless those to whom every line of this volume will be precious; but we confess to turning with a sense of relief to the cooler atmosphere offered by Mr. Alfred Pollard's new and delightful edition of Sir Philip's 'Astrophel and Stella' (London: Stott; Chicago: McClurg). Sidney also dared to speak of those physical aspects of humanity on which Whitman still calls, in old age, for "heroic nudity" (p. 16), but in how different a tone! In a sonnet which may well be placed beside Shakspere's "The Expense of Spirit" he thus takes up that theme so difficult:

Desire, though thou my old companion art,
And oft so clings to my pure love that I
One from the other scarcely can descrie,
While each doth blow the fier of my hart;
Now from thy fellowship I needs must part;
Venus is taught with Dian's wings to flie;
I must no more in thy sweet passions lie;
Vertue's gold now must head my Cupid's dart.
Service and honor, wonder with delight,
Feare to offend, will worthie to appeare,
Care shining in mine eyes, faith in my sprite;
These things are left me by my only Deare:
But thou, Desire, because thou wouldst have all,
Now banisht art; but yet, alas, how shall?
(P. 75.)

RECENT NOVELS.

The Rogue. By W. E. Norris. Henry Holt & Co. 1888.

A Mere Child.—Her Great Idea. By L. B. Walford. Henry Holt & Co.

The Septameron. Philadelphia: David McKay.

Madame Silva. By M. G. McClelland. Cassell & Co.

In War Times at La Rose Blanche. By M. E. M. Davis. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

Ninette: An Idyll of Provence. By the Author of 'Véra.' D. Appleton & Co.

In 'The Rogue' Mr. Norris has attempted a difficult task—to make us sympathize at one and the same time with a rogue and a rogue's victims; at least, if this was not his object, it is certainly true that our sympathies need to be thus evenly balanced in order to enjoy the book. One of the difficulties in enjoying it lies in the fact that such an even balance is not productive of pleasure. The hero—rogue, villain, blackguard, and felon—a gentleman who pulls horses, gambles with other people's money, and tries very hard to sell his sister to a fellow rascal who has a "pull" on him, is made to appear a pleasant, good-humored man, a little down on his luck, but well-meaning in the main, whom we are supposed to find very agreeable company at the same time that we are wrung with anguish by the poor sister's sufferings at his hands. To make the story interesting, it should have ended as a tragedy. As it is, it turns out a flat farce. It contains an American—what English novel is nowadays complete without one?—who promises to be a worse creature than the hero, but, strange to say, develops at a critical moment an extraordinary turn for generosity, and lets the sister out of the trap which he had prepared for her with the most cold-blooded and diabolical ingenuity. This is unnatural, though it is a pleasant proof of the novelist's belief in the inherent goodness of the American nature. Mr. Fisher disappears in a blaze of glory, perhaps because it is necessary that an American, at the climax of his career, should be made to do something princely. Nevertheless, with all these drawbacks, we must admit that there is a certain verisimilitude about Fisher, and interest enough in the Rogue's checkered career to enable us to endure the angelic goodness of the sister, and the monstrous priggishness of the good man of the tale.

Mrs. Walford has not fulfilled in 'A Mere Child' the hopes which may justly be entertained by all readers of 'Mr. Smith' and 'Troublesome Daughters.' 'The Baby's Grandmother,' to our thinking, showed a decided falling off from the agreeableness of those earlier novels, and 'The History of a Week' was positively detestable. 'A Mere Child,' while certainly an improvement over its immediate predecessor, bears marks of manufacture which are delightfully absent from Mrs. Walford's best books, and make one feel that while, as always, she does her saying cleverly, she in this case had very little to say that was either new or useful.

In 'Her Great Idea, and Other Stories' the same author has shown the resources of a versatile pen in the making of short sketches and trifling verse. It is hardly possible to read a story from the hand of an expert novel-writer without unjustly high expectations, which often throw the reader's mind at the end into the unsatisfied attitude of one who has hoped for bread and got a marsh-mallow. To be just, Mrs. Walford's stories are as good as the average magazine story, her verses as sparkling as many which grace the weekly humorous papers; yet, being hers, they are unsatisfactory, with an exception or two. We pray this keen observer, this indefatigable note-taker, this graceful humorist, to rest her tired pen and then give us another 'Mr. Smith.'

Of the tales in 'The Septameron'—a curiously polyglot title, by the way, much as if one should say "The Cinqueteuch"—"An Old Town Tale" is easily the least inane, being a sketch laid in Philadelphia during the War of 1812, of which pretty Betty Pringle is the heroine. "Parthenope's Love" is a not ungraceful little fable. The other stories in the volume contain most of the faults one has ever met before in stories, and some which bring astonishment to the mind of the hardened reader, well seasoned to preposterousness of style and substance, so-called.

"Madame Silva" and "The Ghost of Dred Power" are stories of Southern characters concerning whom the literature of the present day is leaving nothing to the imagination. "'All women are fond of children,'" says the Southern heroine of "Madame Silva." "'You are unsophisticated,'" replies the hero, while "an amused smile passes over his face; 'most Southern women are.'" Along with this idiosyncratic fact we have, as ingredients in the story, magnetism, Indian adepts, the mind-cure, and serpents—a somewhat too heavy burden of properties for the slender strength of the story to sustain. A division of labor by farming out these weird mysteries among a larger number of stories would be to the advantage of the stories, and would afford more elbow-room to the mysteries. The matter would be quite worthy the present author's consideration, as he has the art of writing interestingly, and with a certain restrained strength which challenges the reader's attention.

Yet another flower on the now free-blooming tree of Southern literature, and one of utmost delicacy of perfume, is 'In War Times at La Rose Blanche' here republished from its original magazine form. It stands among the best of the lighter war books in its graphic pictures of plantation life during the Rebellion, from a strictly domestic point of view—even from a nursery standpoint; for it is a child's observation and experience and memory that give form to these charming sketches—a child who sees her young brothers go off to the war, and who sits upon the fence to wave them a good-bye as they march down the lane; who sees the work of the sugar plantation devolving on her mother's shoulders; who finds that a Yankee boy among those encamped on the lawn can "play ladies" with her and make delightful wooden dolls. An unaffected pathos and simplicity make these pages seem, not descriptions but experiences; the figures that move through them, old and young, white and black, live and have a veritable being. The whole book, in its truth and tenderness, is like one of its own pictures—a morning-glory growing on a soldier boy's grave.

'Ninette' is a story of Provence—a Provence, according to the author, thrown into ruinous confusion by radicalism and anti-clericalism. The increase of crime is traced to the increase of the liquor traffic and to the suppression of religious teaching. Statistics are given to show that since the "laicisation" of the hospitals in Paris, the consumption of brandy therein has quadrupled. Modern progress, depriving the peasant of superstitions, and giving him instead "lascivious pieces, nudities, and songs to make one blush," gambling in the morning hours, lottery-ticket selling, socialism, in which boys of seventeen are adepts, "increase of crime, madness, suicides, divorces, bankruptcies, and vagabondage," are among the evils which Paul Bert's catechism has let loose upon France, and for which the remedy is to be the return of the reign of kings and priests. For this "deep is already calling unto deep." Against the gloom of this special pleading are thrown the comparatively cheerful shadows of private crimes and vengeance, glimpses into the perfume factories and violet farms of Province, and the delicate tracery of a graceful little love story.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.

One can hardly imagine how it would be possible to write a sweeter story than 'The Birds' Christmas Carol,' by Kate Douglas Wiggin (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). It does not—though the name seems to imply so—tell of the feathered tribe, but of a little invalid girl whose sick-room is the centre of the love and devotion of a household. She is a Christmas child and rejoices in her birthday, and it is fitting that from her should radiate bright and tender influence, not only to her near and dear friends, but to other suffering children and to her poorer neighbors. An artistic foil to the pathos of the narrative is the humorous description of the Ruggles family, and of the Christmas dinner given them, at her urgent wish, in the sick child's own chamber. The sadness of the concluding chapter has been softened with exquisite grace and delicacy.

The same publishers give us 'The Chezzles,' by Mrs. Lucy Gibbons Morse. The author lays her scene alternately on Cape Cod and in France, and details the adventures of Mrs. Chezzle's two little boys at Nipsit, under the charge of Capt. Pepper, and of Mrs. Chezzle herself in her brother's house in a Parisian suburb. These transitions produce an impression of disjointedness in the reader's mind. The Cape Cod part of the story is the more suitable to children, and is doubtless drawn from life; the foreign part, though undeniably entertaining, is open to the objection of making a great point of most iniquitous charlatanry. As a whole, the book is interesting, amusing, and wholesome. The illustrations are small but apt.

Mrs. Molesworth's 'Christmas Posy' (Macmillan) is made up of eight short stories, refined, as usual, told in good English, and illustrated by Walter Crane. There is a fairy story and a true story; one of a lost watch, and another of a lost dog, and a third of missing bonbons. The children addressed are usually of tender age, and they will be satisfied with the simple narrative devoid of plot, with its wholesome moral not obtrusively enforced.

Mrs. Heald's simple little Christmas story, 'Mother Kate and the Brownies' (Philadelphia: Sunshine Publishing Co.), naïvely transfers New England local color to the nominal scene of action—Alsace. The small children who read it or have it read to them will not remark this; and the New England virtues of thrift, industry, and good cheer in straitened circumstances are undoubtedly to be met with in the New Rhine provinces of Germany. For the Brownies it was clearly necessary to go abroad.

One does not know what to say of Ida Waugh's 'Bonny Bairns' (Worthington Co.) except that it will probably please the children for whom it is intended. It would be doing it an injury to take it seriously or to discuss its claims as art or literature; but it is full of pretty childish verses and pretty childish pictures, and that is perhaps all that it need contain to answer its purpose,

The two pages of genuine description of a bit of Maine scenery which preface 'Charley's Wonderful Journeys,' by C. F. Amery (New York: *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co.) are the best thing about the book, which is one of the legion for which the author of 'Alice in Wonderland' is responsible. Despite considerable ingenuity, these dream chapters, with their kaleidoscopic shifting of situations and labored humor, animal and human, are too monotonous to be entertaining. The book is illustrated by a number of hands, sometimes cleverly.

Kate Greenaway's illustrations of the 'Pied Piper of Hamelin' (George Routledge & Sons) show the old qualities and the old defects—the former not enhanced, and the latter exaggerated. The pretty color and the decorative sense of arrangement are much the same as ever, but the weakness of form is greater, or seems so. Miss Greenaway is incapable of drawing weirdness, and the subject of the present little volume is therefore not well suited to her talent; and an abundance of pretty faces and pretty dresses does not make up for the feebleness of conception of the principal figure. The artist has a curious fashion of suspending her figures in the air, as if on strings, which is very noticeable in the drawing on page 46.

The author of 'Scotch Caps' (T. Y. Crowell & Co.), J A K, has attempted the difficult task of portraying a boy as thoroughly good without making him a prig. From this point of view alone the result can hardly be called successful, for in most respects the hero is a fair specimen of the latter type of character. As a story, however, despite some heavy opening chapters, 'Scotch Caps' is interesting and will doubtless exert a good influence. This would have been greater but for the improbability of some of the main incidents, which we trust are pure fiction and not founded on fact.

To speak here of Prof. J. R. Soley's 'The Sailor-Boys of '61' (Estes & Lauriat) is to take the title literally. This clear, spirited, and authoritative narrative is indeed quite within the comprehension of children, but it is not at all "written down" to them or with any special reference to them. It can therefore be read with interest by adults, and we know of no better brief picture of the naval features of our civil war. The spirit in which Prof. Soley writes is admirable, and Southerners can read his pages from beginning to end without offence. So good a text merited better illustrations. For the variety secured, the publishers are indebted to French artists, working, as we suspect, for the civil-war novel of Jules Verne. There are numerous portraits, and some truthful representations of ships and engagements.

Mr. Elbridge S. Brooks's pictorial 'Story of the American Sailor' (D. Lothrop Co.) is still less intentionally adapted for the juvenile understanding, though offered to young and old. It begins with the prehistoric canoeist and ends with the yachtsman, and manages to suggest the naval history of the United States without being closely bound in its selection or proportionate treatment of topics. There is the merest hint that a sailor's life in the past was not altogether pleasant, to say nothing of what it is in our day. For the proper priming on this subject, Mr. Brooks should have resorted to a work not found in his list of the "best hundred books on the American Sailor," namely, McNally's 'Evils and Abuses in the Naval and Merchant Service Exposed' (Boston, 1839). We observe, by the way, that Mr. Brooks follows Mr. Griffis in linking Commodore Matthew Perry's name with the abolition of flogging in the navy—a distinction, it seems to us, not fairly made out for this officer.

Apparently there was room for a new translation of the 'Swiss Family Robinson,' and Mrs. H. B. Paull has undertaken it (Frederick Warne & Co.). She finds fault with her predecessors' renderings, as being either too literal or too free—un-English and obscure, or unfaithful to the original. We have not put her version to a like test, but it is at least good English. To tamper with the time-honored title was probably deemed imprudent; 'The Swiss Crusoes' would be both more idiomatic and more intelligible. The illustrations are very numerous.

When we meet on every page of Mrs. J. H. Walworth's 'History of New York' (Belford, Clarke & Co.) sentences like this: "The Brit-ish sent a splen-did young of-fi-cer named An-dre (*sic*) on this dan-ger-ous er-rand," we must confess that it is written, not in words of one syllable, but in syllables of one word. There is a curious pro-Southern chapter on the late war, not true to the facts, and naïve in its implied horror of immediate emancipation and constitutional opposition to the extension of slavery into the Territories. If it was necessary to touch the causes of the war at all, something different should have been prepared for infants north of Mason and Dixon's line.

Slavery is also the weak point of Mr. Edward Eggleston's 'History of the United States and its People' (Appletons). We include the book in the present list, although it professes to be "from first to last a school-book"; for it has readable qualities, and its distracting excess of illustrations for school-children is well calculated to lure any voluntary young rover. Mr. Eggleston has endeavored to make cause and effect visible, and has, therefore, avoided a strictly chronological arrangement, or "the rigid grouping by epochs." But how does this work when applied to slavery? He admits that the civil war, which reconstructed Constitution and Union, was caused by slavery; but whereas he is at pains to show the nature of Indian life and warfare, he nowhere pictures the condition of the slaves. The only slave-burnings he specifies were in this city in the middle of the last century, and he intimates that this stage of cruelty was got over, whereas there was a slave-burning in Georgia in 1860, on the very eve of secession. He briefly outlines the Constitution, but makes no mention of the pro-slavery compromises in it on which the Union depended. He omits to notice that Texas revolted against a Government which prohibited slavery, and treats the morality of the Mexican war, which was one of pure slaveholding aggrandizement, as an open question to this day. In fact, all that is said of Texan independence is very misleading. Mr. Eggleston discovers "something given to each side" in the compromise of 1850. There is no account of the organization of the anti-slavery sentiment of the country in its various forms. In short, we are always shown the effect, but never the cause. This history has no preëminence over those which have preceded it as a chronicle of events or a picture of tendencies. It is strongest on the non-political side, in its antiquarianism and in its illustrations, which are mostly of a high order. Some statements, like some of the portraits, are open to question. Is it settled that December 21 is the true Forefathers' Day? Is it true that we have "no religious establishment in any part of the country" so long as there are army and navy chaplains, with formal compulsory religious services?

Vassili Verestchagin, Painter, Soldier, Traveller. Autobiographical Sketches translated from the German and the French by F. H. Peters, M.A. New York: The American Art Association. 1888.

It will probably be said that this little book is published as an advertisement for Mr. Verestchagin's pictures now on exhibition in this city. Even granting this, it is nevertheless very remarkable, and deserves to be read for its own sake. It is full of observation, experience, and adventure, and sets forth in a vivid way, not only the horrors of war, which are shown as well in some of the pictures, but the intrigues and petty spirit of rivalry which may exist in an army during a war together with absolute devotion to a great cause. As an exposition of some of the faults of Russian management during the Turkish war, it is very remarkable. It shows with great freedom the shortcomings of the commissariat and staff management, the bad generalship and even the personal weaknesses of many of the officers; yet the reader will scarcely have his sympathy with some of the characters lessened by the picture given of their personalities. The author does not spare himself more than others, as when he admits trying to have two Albanians hanged (although they probably richly deserved it), chiefly for the purpose of sketching something that he had never seen.

This is a genuine, and evidently a true record of personal experience. Even where the author has a little the air of praising himself, he is merely trying to tell the exact truth in a simple Russian way. The character of Verestchagin for straightforwardness is well known. The reviewer happens to have been in every place which he describes, though not on the occasions mentioned, and to have known the majority of persons spoken of (though he has never met the author), from General Kaufmann and the Grand Duke Nicolas down to Khristo, the Bulgarian cavass of General Ignatieff; he has heard Captain Skrydloff tell their adventures when attempting to blow up a Turkish ship, and in the very citadel of Samarcand has heard from Verestchagin's comrades of his bravery during the siege and of his modesty after it, as well as what he does not himself tell—that when General Kaufmann gave him the Cross of St. George, the most coveted distinction in the Russian army, he refused it, saying that he had come to Central Asia "as an artist and not as an officer."

Verestchagin began life as a naval cadet, but had subsequently devoted himself to painting, and, when he wished to go to Central Asia, was given a commission simply that he might wear a uniform and thus have a distinct status and greater freedom of action; but he was not called upon for military duty. He brought back a great collection of sketches as well as some very remarkable pictures—remarkable not only for their freedom from the conventions which then hampered Russian art, but for their truth to nature and life. They made the traveller breathe again the air of Turkestan. These pictures were exhibited in London in 1873 and in St. Petersburg in 1874, and were finally sold to Botkin, the great tea merchant of Moscow, as a nucleus for a public gallery. They excited great enthusiasm in Russia, but the Emperor on his visit to them objected to one called "The Forgotten," which represented a Russian soldier dead in the desert and birds of prey hovering over and attacking him. The Emperor said, "That picture is false; no Russian soldier can ever be forgotten." Subsequently, General Kaufmann took the artist aside and scolded him in severe terms — such as Russians sometimes allow themselves to use — for having dared to paint pictures which displeased the Emperor and brought him in dishonor, after so much kindness had been shown to him and he had received so much Government money, and accused him of want of patriotism that he had so often portrayed the barbarians as victorious Verestchagin replied by taking his knife and cutting three pictures—"The Forgotten," "The Surrounded," and "The Attack on the Fortress"—from their frames, which were left empty for the remainder of the exhibition. Photographs of them, however, still remained on sale at the print-sellers. It was about this time that the writer had occasion to communicate with Verestchagin on an affair of busi-

ness which could be more easily managed by a personal interview. Application was therefore made for his address to Beggrow, his agent, the great printseller on the Nefsky Prospect. Beggrow replied that he did not know it himself; that Verestchagin had refused to give it, and had even requested him not to receive any letter or communication for him.

The Emperor—for admiration had evidently prevailed over fault-finding—asked to have Verestchagin brought to him. A new uniform was ordered expressly for the occasion; but, when the day came, although the barber was in attendance, Verestchagin could not bring himself to sacrifice his beard—for beards were not then allowed in the army—pretended a sudden and violent illness, and stayed at home.

In consequence of the exhibition of his pictures of Central Asia, the Russian Academy of Fine Arts conferred on Verestchagin the honorary title of Professor. This he refused because, as he stated in a brief letter to the *Golos*, he considered all grades and conditions in art to be unconditionally hurtful. Immediately after this he started off on his first journey to India; and then a perfectly unknown Academician attacked him in the newspapers for daring thus to insult the Academy, and accused him of not having painted the pictures himself, but of having had them done by a sort of firm of which he was the head. He declared the pictures devoid of all artistic value, and made a variety of other absurd charges. Verestchagin's friends threatened an action for libel. The Academy declared that the Academician in question spoke for himself only; and he finally retracted all that he had said, implying only that Verestchagin had been led astray by the examples of Raphael and Rubens.

Proverbs, Maxims, and Phrases of All Ages. Compiled by Robert Christy. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1881.

It is doubtless true, as is affirmed by the author of these volumes, that all notable collections of proverbs hitherto published include very many tainted with impurity. It may be added that the ordinary conversation of the common people of all races—who are the great preservers, if not creators, of proverbs—is affected by the same taint. This is not to be attributed altogether to prurience, but is due, in part at least, to the necessity of calling a spade a spade, imposed upon those who deal directly with the great processes of nature. Polite society ignores the existence of many of the functions of animal life, and regards any allusion to them as coarse ; but the working world cannot blink them, and talks of them, as of its other business, in proverbs and comparisons whose raciness and humor are indisputable. The grossness is often more prominent than the wit, but if we would know men as they are, we must not be fastidious.

Still, there is such an obvious convenience in having a book of proverbs suitable for family use that we were favorably disposed towards this collection because of its professions of purity. This disposition was increased by the promise of a topical instead of an alphabetical arrangement of proverbs which was held forth in the preface, and by the extent of the index, which occupies seventy-five pages. We were somewhat disheartened by discovering, after a time, that the list of abbreviations employed was inserted after the title-page of the second volume, that this list comprised only fourteen words, and that only three of this number were names of men, to wit : the Earl of Beaconsfield, Publius Syrus, and William Shakspere. The abbreviation "Maga." applies only to *Blackwood's Edinburgh Magazine*, that periodical having been found by the author to be "stored with literary jewels." Not having regarded Lord Beaconsfield precisely as an author of proverbs, we thought to prove the collection by looking for what is perhaps the most striking of his epigrams, "Youth is a blunder, manhood a struggle, old age a regret"; but to our consternation it did not appear. It was only by accident that we subsequently found that in addition to the rubric "Youth" in its proper alphabetical place, and that of "Youth (age)," which followed it, it was necessary to refer to the sixteenth page of the first volume, where, among the A's under the heading "Youth, Age," our epigram was hidden. As there is no such rubric in the index, and as "Blunder" gave us no help, we felt that our author was not altogether to be trusted—the more that, looking by the way for "It was worse than a crime, it was a blunder," it seemed to have been omitted or concealed.

What hope we still felt in our author's scholarship was turned to despair by the following statement : "Asses' bridge. (*Pons Asinus.*) *The fifth proposition of Euclid*," and by finding that he had credited to Byron "He makes a solitude and calls it peace." Nor were we comforted by learning that Stilson Hutchins had declared that abstinence was the mother of competence, that Dr. Angus Smith had said that foul air slays like a sword, or that C. C. Baldwin had advised the readers of his 'Moral Maxims' to disdain the bitter bread of dependence. The very first line of the book—"There are many rare abilities in the world that fortune never brings to light"—is an index to its character. Platitudes are not proverbs, and were it not for the elasticity of the term "Phrases" which the author uses in his title, we should say, in the language of the law, that half of his collection ought to be struck out as irrelevant and immaterial.

As illustrations of the author's insensibility to the importance of brevity in a household manual, we take the threefold repetition of the maxim concerning the building of a bridge for a flying enemy (vol. i., pp. 297-300), the fourfold repetition of the proverb about touching pitch (vol. 2, p. 127), and the double recurrence of the saying about "little pitchers" *sub voce* "Pitcher" after it had been given under "Child."

In a work of this kind omissions are inevitable, but we have failed to find so large a number of what are really household words that we are convinced of the worthlessness of the book to most purchasers. We had marked as omitted the proverb "Don't cross the bridge before you come to it," having failed to discover it under "Cross" or "Bridge," but afterward stumbled upon it under "Conduct (Rules of)." Even worse as a rubric is "Every," especially as many proverbs beginning with that word are to be found under other heads. There is a notable lack of the commonest of all proverbs, those from the Bible ; we find no "needle's eye," nor, in that connection, any reference to the needle in the haystack. But it would be a waste of space to put down all that we have not found, or further to point out the defects and errors of the index. We cannot regard the author as qualified for such a work as he has undertaken. His scheme is a good one, but he has carried it out so poorly as to produce only disappointment and exasperation. The book is neatly bound and handsomely printed, but upon paper so heavy as to make it fatiguing to handle.

B. C., 1887 : A Ramble in British Columbia. By J. A. Lees and W. J. Clutterbuck. Longmans.

This is decidedly a readable book. The country described is as unknown to the general reader as the interior of Africa, and the description of its physical peculiarities, and of its inhabitants, both biped and quadruped, gains greatly from a number of excellent illustrations. The writers are possessed of a love of nature and an appreciation of its charms, a lack of which would prove fatal to any adequate account of the magnificent Selkirks ; and they possess, moreover, a sense of the humorous which is conspicuous by its absence in most English travellers. On the other hand, the reader has a right to complain of the incessant introduction of puns—such puns as a man may be guilty of in camp, but only on condition that they be not recorded. The following account of the noble red man is not particularly new, but is probably true :

"To begin with, he is *not* noble; his impassive dignity and austere reserve are pure inventions—in fact, one of his most amiable characteristics is a tendency to play practical jokes and to be intensely amused at trifles. . . . He is *not* red—at least we don't think he is ; but he has so many layers of dirt on him that, though in summer time he has very little clothing to cover his geology, still we cannot swear that our vision has ever penetrated his stratification down to the real skin : what we *have* seen is a smoky kind of tan color. And, finally, about half the time he is *not* a man, for as the women all ride on both sides of a horse at once, and are if possible plainer, and in other respects more like them in every way, than the men, who on earth is to express any decided opinion about it ?"

The tendency of the dwellers among mountains to use strong language is thus explained :

"At home we are all sorts of respectable things, such as church-wardens, book-makers, sons-in-law to rural deans, etc., and don't use fifteen shillings' worth of wicked swear-words in a year. But put us out here in B. C. (and we don't need to be much put out either), and the language we habitually use at the top of our voices would disgrace a meeting of teetotalers. The curious thing is, that we are not ashamed of it, mean nothing by it, and pay no attention to it; so we are convinced the blame rests with those centres of imaginative energy, the mountains, and are happy."

After reading about the infinite discomforts of camping out in all weathers, about the disasters that attend baking in the dark, the horrible taste of tea made with alkali water, the vexation of spirit that follows an accidental mingling of the curry powder, the tooth powder, and the flour—the stay-at-home reader marvels at the courage and perseverance of these travellers, and probably comes to the conclusion that they must be very young. This conclusion becomes a certainty when he discovers at page 328 an elaborate criticism of the American people as a whole, based on a very casual acquaintance with some of the Western States. It is the old story of physical deterioration resulting from hot cakes, iced water, want of exercise, etc., etc., the falsity of which cannot be made clear to a certain class of intellects either by life-insurance statistics or by any of the other equally well-known arguments. In spite of such crudities, however, the book will interest and amuse sportsmen and others who have heard of this little-known region, now brought within reach by the Canadian Pacific Railway.

From Flag to Flag: A Woman's Adventures and Experiences in the South during the War, in Mexico, and in Cuba. By Eliza McHatton-Ripley. D. Appleton & Co.

This is one of the books that make writers blush for their craft ; for what is the use of

practice, they may be tempted to ask, if a mere cadet can thus come forward and excel many a *vieux sabreur?* Heavy odds might be laid that a skilled maker of books would not have succeeded in producing so charming a result as that wrought by this inexperienced writer. What in her is a delightful simplicity and straightforward movement—delightful because so evidently natural and unconscious—could only have come from the severest self-restraint in the case of a veteran, whose very expertness would be continually seducing him into excursions and disquisitions and moralizings, all suggested over and over again by the situations of her story, but ignored by her with the artless art of those who know not the doctrine of ill-doing nor dream that any do. Even her literary inexperience falls out to the pleasure of the reader, since the minor defects of her style are water-marks of genuineness, and prepare him to yield himself unsuspiciously to the real attractiveness of her writing. But, of course, literary inexperience does not mean the absence of the literary gift, and Mrs. McHatton-Ripley has some qualities of style which mark her as the possessor of it. Vividness of description is one of them, and her pictures of the panic-stricken flight from Baton Rouge and of the tornado in Cuba stamp themselves on the reader's mind so as not easily to grow blurred.

In a word, the book is an account of personal adventures which would be called extraordinary did not one remember that the civil war must have brought similar ones to many. We are told of a woman, tenderly reared and accustomed to luxury, driven from her beautiful home on the Mississippi by Federal gun-boats, seeking refuge in remote parts of Texas, for several months flitting back and forth across the Rio Grande, and finally settling down with husband and children on a sugar plantation in Cuba. Her hardships are endured with the rarest pluck and good-humor, and her shifty way of meeting difficulties seems almost to point to a Yankee strain in her blood. Best of all, she can write of all that is past without the shadow of bitterness, and tells of the fading of the Confederacy and of Confederate hopes, only to add in retrospect: "We prayed for victory—no people ever uttered more earnest prayers—and the God of hosts gave us victory in defeat. We prayed for only that little strip, that Dixie-land, and the Lord gave us the whole country from the Lakes to the Gulf, from ocean to ocean—all dissensions settled, all dividing lines wiped out—a united country for ever and ever!"

We have read the book with great interest, and would hail it as a contribution to the new Southern literature much more worthy of the name than some writings that are now running their course.

Pen and Ink: Papers on Subjects of More or Less Importance. By Brander Matthews. Longmans, Green & Co. 1888.

MOST of the papers contained in these volumes first appeared in magazines. One of them—the paper "On the French spoken by those who do not speak French"—printed now for the first time in its present form, contains passages from briefer articles contributed during several years to the *Nation* and other publications. The last essay, called "Poker-Talk," is apparently wholly new. All the papers are written in the essayistic vein, once so common and now so rare, the leisurely, half-serious, half-humorous method of treating a subject which relieves both writer and reader of a certain amount of responsibility, and carries the latter gently along in the path which the former wishes him to take, without actually driving him along it with a logical or moral lash. There is a great deal of sound sense and reason behind what Mr. Matthews has to say, as, for instance, in the article on the "Ethics of Plagiarism," which ought to be read—if reading it would do them any good—by the hosts of simple-minded persons who see a theft in every literary coincidence. Mr. Matthews's proposed canon of plagiarism—that "a writer is at liberty to use the work of his predecessors as he will, provided always that (1) he does not take credit (even by implication) for what he has not invented, and (2) that he does not in any way infringe on the pecuniary rights of the original owner"—is only open to this objection, that it is too broad and indisputable. The really difficult cases are those where there is some actual resemblance in external form, and here the verdict must often depend on the question of intent, though the second branch of Mr. Matthews's rule will frequently furnish a very valuable practical test. For example, in one of the great modern fields of the plagiarist, the drama, how repeatedly have the courts been called to decide whether this or that wonderful piece of sensational art—the railroad scene, let us say, in which the victim, bound to the track and left for dead by the villain, is suddenly snatched from the jaws of death by the avenger, amid the roar and rush of the approaching train and the plaudits of a sympathizing audience; or the castle scene, where the brave Irish boy climbs the castle wall from moat to battlement before our eyes, to grapple with his dastard foe in the beautiful moonlight above, and hurl him over the parapet to richly merited death on the rocky shore beneath — whether such scenes as these infringe some copyright or other.

Mr. Matthews contrives to put into his essays a good deal of criticism and information, and if we do not agree with him at all points, it is partly because there are so many that there is room for difference of opinion here and there. His style is always clear, and if he is sometimes a little over-ingenious, as in his "Philosophy of the Short Story," he can plead in defence that this is the defect of his quality—that is, of a keen and discriminating intelligence.

Moralphilosophie gemeinverständlich dargestellt von Georg von Gizycki. Vol. I. Leipzig: Wilhelm Friedrich. 1888.

THE general spirit and drift of the present work are very well indicated in the names of the chief men whom the author acknowledges as his masters. They are stated to be Bain, Coit, Salter, Sidgwick, and Spencer. Germans generally prefer the fatherhood of Kant, and it is not difficult to perceive that Prof. Gizycki, whatever he attributes to the influence of others, has some debts which he owes to the great Königsberger; for a man is always affected by his environment, and Kant, like the great and grand figure of Augustine, has his shadow stretched upon Europe still. Germans cannot escape his influence, for his ideas are a part of their intellectual heritage. But the intelligibility of the work under notice, with or without the perceptible contributions from Kantian thought, is the natural result of its acknowledged parentage. It does not profess to go profoundly into the subject, but it performs a good service by not doing so; for the less recondite mode of presenting ethics is the only successful means of reaching the largest number of those interested in its problems.

Prof. Gizycki is an invalid whose case is comparable to Hartmann's. We therefore turned with special interest to what he had to say of pessimism. The morbid sensitiveness to pain so prevalent in the present age keeps up in minds like Carlyle's and Schopenhauer's a perpetual cry at the existence of evil and suffering. But we naturally expect complaints from those to whom Nature has not been kindly. Moreover, pessimism is the present passion of German thought, due to social causes on the one hand, and to the reaction against the philosophy of Hegel on the other. Prof. Gizycki's philosophy has not taken the color of his misfortune. He preserves his equanimity when the odds of nature are against him. Although in a recent brochure he apologized for the life and philosophy of Schopenhauer, he now makes that brilliant philosopher's pessimism the subject of some very sensible strictures and criticism. These strictures are all couched in terms intelligible to ordinary experience.

Schopenhauer, revolting against the lazy optimism of the eighteenth century, as formulated in Pope's maxim, "Whatever is, is right," showed that ethics were unnecessary or impossible if optimism were true. But he was not content with this: he was bent on the proof of the opposite, notwithstanding the actual existence of some pleasures. He therefore contended that the mere existence of any pain at all was enough to decide the case, no matter what might be the balance between pleasure and pain. But he overshot the mark; for, holding that ethics originated in the sentiment of pity, he assigned to morals an existence which is as incompatible with pessimism as with optimism. If things are incurably evil, social and moral efforts that grow out of pity are useless and irrational. This is all shown very clearly by the author. The truth is, that neither optimism nor pessimism is exclusively defensible. Schopenhauer, however, had to be one-sided or nothing. The causes of his pessimism are many and deep, but they are very well summarized by the author in two remarks, applying to that class of thinkers in general—namely, that it grows out of too extravagant claims on life and the favor of fellow-men; and that a solitary life of brooding over existence, without any experience in human love, and without sharing in mankind's hopes and efforts, can only generate the most morbid sentiments. Sitting down in the universe to see it go, will only jaundice the intellectual and moral vision. It is work, not thinking, that will cure the disease. Goethe saw this, and wrote in Schopenhauer's own album for his behoof:

> "Willst du deiner Werthe freuen,
> So musst der Welt du Werth verleihen."

It is gratifying to see this wholesome criticism of pessimism, especially from one who has less reason to be grateful to nature than Schopenhauer. It is a timely and forcible remonstrance against the unhealthy reaction from the romanticism of the eighteenth century that culminated in the 'Sorrows of Werther.' Life will not be made any better by the belief that existence is incurably evil. Indeed, the very possibility of "meliorism," as George Eliot would call it, seems to be the correlate of knowing that things are not what they ought to be; so that the extravagant assertions of pessimism must be qualified by those contingencies which make the efficiency of the human will available in efforts, at least, to proximate the ideal. The great trouble, outside the sphere of science, is that this is a sentimental age. We cannot live and fight and die, like Homer's warriors. We are all crying about the sufferings of others, like Sterne over the dead ass, never stopping to reflect that half the evils we deplore are the imaginary pains which we *might* suffer

if we were in somebody else's place. There are pain and evil enough, it is true; but we borrow trouble, and exaggerate the amount of suffering in existence, by confusing the possibility of pain with its reality. All this and many other interesting points are brought out by the author with admirable good sense and judgment.

Nearly one-third of the volume is occupied with the relation between theology and ethics, and exhibits the usual radicalism of German writers upon this subject. With the argument we have no fault to find, but the spirit is sometimes unjust, and is in danger of carrying over to the new position the bigotry which is everywhere deplored in theological and dogmatic systems of ethics. Nevertheless, the author's remarks are very instructive regarding a tendency with which all moralists must sooner or later make their peace. It is remarkable that Prof. Gizychi says very little about the relation of evolution to ethics, a question much more vital to the interests of the present age than the one just mentioned. The subject was open to him under the topic "Nature and Morals." The chapters upon this topic have some interest in a critical way, but deal a little too largely with scholastic questions.

The chief faults of the present work are those which characterize all ethics of the chair. It does not occupy itself sufficiently with the problems for which the science of ethics exists. In other respects it is very interesting. It is rich in literary allusions and historical incidents of opinion, calculated to make the subject popular.

History of Insurance in Philadelphia for Two Centuries (1683–1882). By J. A. Fowler. Philadelphia.

THE history of insurance in Philadelphia is, to a large extent, the history of insurance in the United States; for the prudence and frugality of its people have made that city a favorable field for the agencies of companies chartered outside of Pennsylvania, so that the interests and history of other insurance centres are closely interwoven with those of Philadelphia. The work before us is divided into four parts: I. Marine, II. Fire, III. Life, and IV. Miscellaneous Insurance. In each of these parts we find a more or less detailed statement of the conditions existing two hundred years ago, and the circumstances which produced the necessity for some provision for the distribution of loss by fire or marine disaster, and finally led to the formation of organizations for pursuing the business of insurance. It was not until 1759, however, that any corporation bearing the semblance of a life-insurance company was formed, and that was limited to the relief of needy Presbyterian ministers and their families by means of survivorship annuities. From this germ, but largely within the last half-century, has been developed the vast business which now counts its obligations by the thousands of millions of dollars, with more than sufficient assets to meet them as they mature.

The volume is a bulky one, with a complete index to each part, which would seem to obviate the necessity for such elaborate headings to each of the many chapters, by which the size of the book has been materially increased. It is, however, a work of value and interest to the whole insurance fraternity.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Collection of Twelve Photogravures from Original Paintings. Troy: Nims & Knight. $3.
Barnett, Rev. and Mrs. S. Practical Socialism: Essays on Social Reform. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Bidwell, G. Forging his Chains: an Autobiography. Indianapolis: Historical Publishing Co.
Browning, R. Poetical Works. Vols. VII. and VIII. Macmillan & Co. $1.50 each.
Browning, R. The Pied Piper of Hamelin. Illustrated by Kate Greenaway. Geo. Routledge & Sons. $2.
Bryant, W. C. An Autumnal Pastoral. Troy: Nims & Knight. $5.
Bryce, Prof. J. The American Commonwealth. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $6.
By Lawn and Lea. Troy: Nims & Knight. $2.
Cain, W. S. A Trip Round the World in 1887–8. Geo. Routledge & Sons. $2.50.
Chevilard-Lenoir, A. Celebrated Artists with Fifteen Notable Etchings by Flameng, Monzies, Unger, etc. Troy: Nims & Knight. $10.00.
Crooker, J. H. Jesus Brought Back: The Problem of Problems. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Daudet, A. The Immortal: A Satirical Novel. John B. Alden. 50 cents.
Denton, L. W. Under the Magnolias. Funk & Wagnalls.
Dole, C. F. Jesus and the Men About Him. Boston: George H. Ellis.
Dumas, A. Twenty Years After. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Edwards, Amelia B. A Thousand Miles Up the Nile. 2d ed. Geo. Routledge & Sons. $2.50.
Fontaine, Prof. C. Historiettes Modernes. 2 vols. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Garnett, R. Twilight of the Gods, and Other Tales. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Gastineau, E. The Conversation Method for Speaking, Reading, and Writing French. Ivison, Blakeman & Co. $2.
Gems of French Art. Troy: Nims & Knight. $3.75.
Holst, Prof. H. von. John Brown. Edited by F. P. Stearns. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.
Howells, W. D. Annie Kilburn: A Novel. Harper & Bros.
Hugo, V. The Man Who Laughs. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Hugo, V. Toilers of the Sea. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Johnson, Mrs. Herrick. Comfort. New and enlarged ed. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.
Jullien, A. Hector Berlioz: Sa Vie et ses Œuvres. Paris: Librairie de l'Art: New York: Macmillan.
King of the Night. Troy: Nims & Knight. $2.
Lemaitre, J. Impressions de Théâtre. Paris: H. Lecène and H. Oudin.
Levy, Amy. The Romance of a Shop. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Lowell, P. The Soul of the Far East. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Macgibbon, D. The Architecture of Provence and the Riviera. Edinburgh: David Douglas.
May, Caroline. Lays of Memory and Affection. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.50.
Molloy, G. Gleanings in Science: A Series of Popular Lectures on Scientific Subjects. Macmillan & Co. $2.25.
Montelius, Prof. O. The Civilization of Sweden in Heathen Times. Illustrated. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Morehouse, Carrie Warner. The Legend of Psyche, and Other Verses. St. Johnsbury, Vt.: Charles T. Walter.
Munroe, K. Chrystal, Jack & Co., and Delta Bixby: Two Stories. Harper & Bros.
Nye, Bill. Thinks. Chicago: Dearborn Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Peck, Prof. W. H. The Locksmith of Lyons; or, the Weavers' War. Street & Smith. 25 cents.
Pollock, Prof. F. An Essay on Possession in the Common Law. Oxford: Clarendon Press: New York: Macmillan.
Robinson, T. Song of the Palm, and Other Poems. Brentanos.
Sandford, Mrs. Henry. Thomas Poole and his Friends. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $5.
Saunders, W. Insects Injurious to Fruits. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
Say, L. Turgot. Translated by M. B. Anderson. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Sleeper, H. D. Songs of Harvard: A Collection of College Songs and Glees, as Sung by the Glee Club and Students. 3d ed. Cambridge: Charles W. Sever; New York: Brentano. $1.
Southworth, Mrs. Emma D. E. N. The Discarded Daughter. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 25 cents.
Sparhawk, Frances C. Christmas Thoughts. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 25 cents.
Stories from the Persian: Abdûlla of Khorassan; Ahmed the Cobbler. Cambridge: Charles W. Sever.
Webb, C. H. Vagrom Verse. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.

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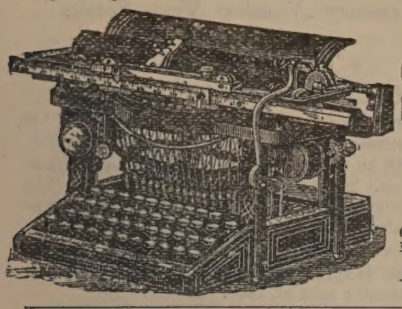

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 27, 1888.

The Week.

THERE appears to be more or less anxiety in England about Lord Salisbury's delay in filling Lord Sackville's place at Washington, lest it should cause some sort of irritation here. Lord Dunraven's pathetic appeal in the House of Lords was based on the assumption that the American public is waiting eagerly for news of a new appointment, and will exhibit vexation in some serious form if their wishes remain much longer ungratified. In fact, he appeared to think that the good relations of the two countries might be put in grave peril by further postponement. Similar alarm has been expressed on behalf of the British people by that irascible old Tory gentleman, Mr. George W. Smalley, who is evidently suffering a good deal from suppressed emotion about the whole matter. We feel bound to say that we see no sign whatever of any deep concern about it in this country. We think it would be very difficult to find a dozen Americans having any work to do, who care one straw whether the vacancy in the British Legation is filled now or six months hence, or who are in the smallest degree opposed to Lord Salisbury's consulting his own convenience in the matter. Indeed, we might go further, and say that probably nine-tenths of the American public do not know at any given date whether there is a British Minister in Washington or not, and would be unable to say, without preparation, what the use of a British Minister resident in Washington was. Lord Sackville's life there during the last six or seven years was so quiet, unobtrusive, and uneventful, he said so little and did so little, that we think his absence from his post during the whole period would have passed unnoticed outside the newspaper offices. The idea, therefore, that the public here will feel angry or ill-used if a successor to him be not promptly sent out, is almost amusing. Lord Salisbury may feel assured that he runs no risk of unpleasantness of any description in taking all the time he needs. The only British representative in Washington who attracts popular attention is the special envoy who is sent out when there is any important business to be transacted, like the Marquis of Ripon and Sir Stafford Northcote, who came out to negotiate the Treaty of Washington, or Mr. Chamberlain, who came out to negotiate the Fisheries Treaty. The permanent representative who remains here in ordinary times for ordinary purposes, is not the object of any interest or curiosity, and is seldom mentioned except in the "society column" of the newspapers.

The bill which Mr. Holman has introduced in Congress, designed to prevent the use of money in national elections, lacks the one provision which is vitally necessary to its success in practice, in case it ever becomes a law. As it stands, the measure is simply a sweeping prohibition of both the raising and the using of money for other than the necessary expenses of elections. It makes it unlawful for any person to solicit or receive, directly or indirectly, or be in any manner connected with or concerned in soliciting or receiving, any assessment, subscription, or contribution of money or of anything of value, to be expended, used, or employed in any manner whatever in any national election, or in the political canvass immediately preceding the same, to control in any manner or to in any wise influence any such election or the result thereof. It also makes it unlawful for any person to contribute in any manner either money or any other thing of value to be used to influence an election. The provisions are very stringent, and the penalty which is fixed for their violation is very heavy, namely, disfranchisement and disqualification from holding office for five years, and also liability to a fine of not more than $5,000 and imprisonment for not more than three years.

Yet, stringent as the measure is, it is scarcely more so than one which has been on the statute-book of the State of New York since 1842, and has been practically a dead letter since the hour of its enactment (Chapter 130 of the Law of 1842, sec. 400.) This law, if enforced, would secure precisely what Mr. Holman's bill aims at; but it has never been enforced, for the simple reason that, while it allows for defraying certain necessary expenses of elections, it places no limit to such expenses, and requires no publication of them after election. Mr. Holman's bill, after absolutely prohibiting all contributions and expenditures, in its first two sections, opens wide the door to both by saying in its third section that "the foregoing sections shall not be construed as applying to any money received and expended in good faith under the laws of any State or Territory for the necessary expenses of any election, or to money so received and expended for the printing of tickets, or in the publication of any newspaper or other publication, or for the distribution thereof." The Wanamakers and Quays would not have the slightest difficulty in continuing their operations on the old plan in future campaigns under this section of Mr. Holman's bill. They could say, as they do now, that they were merely attending to the "necessary expenses," could burn their records and vouchers, and snap their fingers at the stringent prohibitory provisions of the first two sections. There is only one thing which they and their kind would fear, and that would be a law requiring the publication, after election, of a sworn statement, accompanied by vouchers, showing every dollar received, and the use to which it was put. The English Corrupt Practices Act is an excellent guide to follow on this point, for it has worked most successfully from the moment of going into operation. The requirement of publication of expenditures did what the most stringent prohibitory measures against bribery could not do and never can do—abolished the corrupt use of money immediately; the secret ballot, of course, aiding greatly in the work. Unless Mr. Holman puts a similar requirement into his bill, it will not be worth the paper it is written on.

The American Copyright League is about to make an effort to have the Chace-Breckinridge International Copyright Bill taken up again in the present session of Congress. It has issued a deadly parallel, showing who are the principal supporters and who the principal opponents of the bill. The showing is rather a poor one for the latter. We have before us an anonymous circular, probably issued by some one of the parties of the second part in the parallel, dated December 4, containing a characteristic appeal to the working printers against the bill. We do not know where to look for such direct incitements to dishonesty as are to be found in documents of this character. In our day, incitements to theft or fraud are all given orally, except among the opponents of international copyright. They now monopolize the discredit of issuing printed arguments in support of the doctrine that dishonesty is the best policy. The paper before us shows how much money working printers make, and how much American readers save, by robbing foreign authors. Almost every word of it, however, could be used in support of a well-conceived plan for swindling clothiers, supposing there were no legal penalty for such an offence. That is, the clothiers are a small body, while the wearers of the clothing are an immense body. Men must have clothing, they cannot go naked; and the practice of charging money for clothes puts an impediment in the way of the satisfaction of an absolutely necessary and most salutary want on the part of people of small means. One of the funniest parts of the circular is that which pleads against depriving the foreign author of the "popularity" he now enjoys through the cheapness of his printed books. If he were paid for his copyright, says the pamphleteer, fewer of his books would be read, and then where would be his "popularity"? This argument might also be turned against the clothier. A clothier who got nothing for his goods would, if he stayed in the business, soon be the most popular man in the United States. The practice of paying for them necessarily limits the extent to which he is known and admired, and exposes him to the charge of selfishness.

We do not believe such appeals can have any effect on working printers or any other class of intelligent men. The only way they can be led astray is by having it represented to them that international copyright in some way offends against the doctrine of pro-

tection to native industry. This the Chace bill does not do. It compels foreign authors to print their books here; it reduces the amount of printing to be done in this country only in so far as it respects the ordinary laws of morality. It is, of course, cheaper to steal a book than to buy one. There is no getting over the fact that goods in the open market cost more than goods in the store of "a fence"; but we do believe they are mistaken who think they can make this consideration a powerful one in the eyes of American workingmen. They are, like all men following honest callings, interested above all things in seeing that every one gets the reward of his labor, and that the stranger is not stripped of his possessions as soon as he touches our shores.

In one of the 'Political Essays' by James Russell Lowell, written years ago, which have recently been gathered together, he said: "To be told that we ought not to agitate the question of slavery when it is that which is forever agitating us, is like telling a man with the fever and ague on him to stop shaking and he will be cured. The discussion of slavery is said to be dangerous, but dangerous to what?" Then, to illustrate the absurdity of the slaveholders' position by presenting an even greater absurdity, he added: "The manufacturers of the Free States constitute a more numerous class than the slaveholders of the South: suppose they should claim an equal sanctity for the protective system." Less than thirty years have passed since these words were written, but the illustration no longer serves its purpose. A sanctity is now claimed for the protective system which makes its supporters deprecate agitation and discussion as dangerous.

Some of the Washington newspaper correspondents are seeking to belittle the efforts of the Democratic Senators to resist the progress of the Senate Tariff Bill. We see no justice in this criticism. It was a misfortune that Senator Beck, to whom the leadership of the opposition had been committed, should have fallen ill just as his services were most wanted in that capacity. But a surprisingly good defence under the circumstances has been made by Senators Vest, Reagan, Saulsbury, Vance, and McPherson, although the latter has been overweighted by his own bias in favor of protection. It is not necessary that every item should be fought over, nor is it desirable that a factious opposition should be made to the bill. It is only requisite that the character of the measure should be duly exposed. This has been done so far as progress has been made, and will be done, we have no doubt, as long as the bill remains in the Senate.

In the debate on the Senate Tariff Bill, the duty on wire rods being under consideration, Senator Vest read a communication from the New Haven Wire Company asking for a reduction of the duty on steel rods from six-tenths to four-tenths of a cent per pound. The New Haven company represented that they and about twenty other wire-mills in the country were compelled to pay either a duty of 45 per cent. ad valorem to the Government on imported rods, or a bonus of that amount to American manufacturers of the same; that the wire-mills employed more labor than the rod-makers, and that they had learned that a movement was on foot to increase the duty on rods to 55 per cent., or a specific rate equivalent to that, against which they desired strongly to protest. They said that "they now need protection, not against foreign competition, but against the high charges of the American rod-mills." The cost of steel from which rods are made was stated to be $28 to $28.50 per ton, and the cost of turning the steel into wire rods $8 per ton, making the cost of the rods $36 to $36.50 per ton, while the selling price of rods is $41 to $41.50 per ton—a profit of $5 per ton. A rod-mill can turn out easily seventy-five tons per day, and under such conditions can make a net profit of $100,000 per year—in other words, can nearly pay for itself in one year. There are now nine rod-mills in operation in the country, with an aggregate capacity of 250,000 tons per annum, and they are all fully employed. If the present duty on wire rods were reduced one-half, say the petitioners, the Pittsburgh rod-mills could still sell their rods at a profit and keep the foreign rods out of the market west of the Alleghenies, "while at the same time the seaboard wire-mills, which are prevented by inland freights from using American rods, and are compelled to pay the present duty on their foreign rods, would have some hope of life." This appeal for life met no countenance on the part of the Senate. Although the petitioners were manufacturers, and therefore presumably entitled to more consideration than other people, although they were larger employers of labor than the rod-mills, and therefore presumably more in sympathy with the working classes, yet, as they were plainly opposed to the prevailing practice of robbing Peter to pay Paul, they were sent away with nothing but a piece of cold shoulder. All this while the Government is straining every nerve to reduce the revenue.

The movement among American actors to have themselves covered by the Contract Labor Act would probably have been regarded as a practical joke if men like Edwin Booth and Lawrence Barrett were not found taking part in it. Observing this, one begins to feel that they were not unduly alarmed who saw in the warfare of the mechanics' trades unions against superior excellence or diligence among their own members, the beginning of an attack on civilization itself. The human race has been carried out of forest savagery into peace and comfort by the success of some men in effecting improvements in the arts which the bulk of their fellows would never have thought of; and nations have been carried forward in the same way by letting in light from every surrounding nation. The reason China has been stagnant for four or five thousand years is that each generation has insisted on doing what its fathers did, and has treated any one who proposed to do better or differently as a "foreign devil." The reason why Europe has gone forward is that Greece learned from Egypt, and Rome learned from Greece, and all the modern European nations have learned from each other, and are learning more and more every day. One finds it very difficult, therefore, to treat seriously any proposal to take the United States out of this magnificent competition of civilized peoples for the foremost places in the arts, in the sciences, and in literature.

The insatiableness of protection has always been one of the favorite arguments of free-traders against high tariff. They have always maintained, and they maintain every year with increasing force, that you can never satisfy a protected industry with anything short of prohibition; that the more it is protected, the more timid, inert, and unenergetic it becomes, and the greater the terror of "the foreigner" in which it lives. But we believe no free-trade apostle ever dreamed, until the demand for protection against foreign pictures was made in this country a few years ago, that the protectionist doctrine was so contagious that it would make its way into the world of ideas, and would demand the exclusion of foreign truth, and beauty, and eloquence, and poetry, and wit, by custom-house officers. American artists have actually come forward and demanded that the law shall prevent American citizens from owning or even seeing any better pictures than their own. We have heard an American publisher of high standing argue warmly in favor of the exclusion of English books, on the ground that adult Americans would read them and have their minds injured thereby. And now we have American actors demanding a protected stage, so that American adults shall not be permitted to see any actors who are more carefully trained, or whose manners or elocution are better than their own. To bring this about we are told Edwin Booth is "putting his shoulder to the wheel"; and Lawrence Barrett is "entering heart and soul." In other words, we are threatened with a new China towards the close of the nineteenth century, on the soil occupied by "Time's latest offspring."

"A member of the [theatrical] profession" said last week in the *Tribune*:

> "Our attitude towards the foreign actor is precisely that of the American people towards the Chinese. Why do we keep out the Chinese? Not that we've got any personal feeling against the little Mongolian. Why, bless you, the little fellow is quiet, industrious, unobtrusive, raises no rows, always attends to his own business, and lets ours alone; but he simply comes here to get our money and take it home when he gets enough. He never becomes one of us, therefore we don't want him."

The "member" knew well that he was departing from the truth when he said this. He does not really want the English actor to settle here and become "one of us," simply because he thinks the Englishman is the better actor, and for that reason and no other would "get our money." Besides, it is not bad actors' money the good foreign actor gets,

but the money of playgoers who want the best acting the money will bring, and have no idea of going to a play simply in order that bad American actors may be able to earn a livelihood. The truth is, a bad actor, such as the "member" probably is, is not entitled to a livelihood or to anybody's money. He is one of the most useless of created beings—far more useless than any Chinaman—and ought to be hunted into some honest calling, if in no other way, by open competition.

Washington is full of rumors about the political future of Mr. James G. Blaine, the sum and substance of which are that he cannot have a "Cabinet position," but can have, and probably will be content with, the Mission to England. The Mission to England will not, however, be completely at the disposal of President Harrison. The English Government have to be satisfied with the appointee, and it is very certain that Mr. Blaine would not be received at the Court of St. James, even if he had the brass to present himself there. The Madison Square speech at Pat Ford's meeting, and his notorious alliance with that particular dynamiter, would make it difficult for any civilized Government to receive him, and impossible for that of Great Britain. We feel sure he knows this very well himself, and if he is working for the English Mission it is probably simply in order to have the honor of refusing it before going into retirement. The Turkish Mission would probably suit him better than any, because Constantinople is the only capital in Europe where he would not be found out and where his stories would pass current.

Gen. Harrison was harassed with a particularly pertinacious batch of politicians on Friday, who went to him to urge the claims of various Cabinet aspirants. To one of them who had told him that nine-tenths of the Republicans in New England desired to see Mr. Blaine in the Cabinet, he exclaimed: "I don't think I ought to be crowded into appointing men because other men think they have a claim on me on account of their services to the party." To that precious pair of Platt advocates from New York, ex-Speaker Erwin and Senator Vedder, who were trying to convince him that "Tom" had carried the State for him, Gen. Harrison said: "I propose to recognize no factions in the Republican party. I shall do all I can to heal factional disputes and make the Republican party united and harmonious." These two utterances, which are sent out by many correspondents, and are apparently of undoubted authenticity, had the natural effect of dampening the ardor of the whole army of place-hunters. The man who was advocating Blaine as the Favorite Son of New England admitted sorrowfully, after the interview was over, that the General's manner when Blaine was under discussion was not favorable. "I got the idea," he said, "that Mr. Blaine will not go into the Cabinet."

If the great Republican principle that Cabinet office should be given first of all to those aspirants whom the Mugwumps most severely criticise were to prevail, President Harrison's Cabinet would necessarily include the following: James G. Blaine, John Wanamaker, T. C. Platt, W. W. Dudley, William Mahone, Pat Ford, and Wharton Barker. That is a full set; they are all candidates, and are all known to be looked upon with more or less disapproval by the Mugwumps; and yet we are afraid that there is not a Republican newspaper in the country sufficiently loyal to advocate the adoption of the entire batch by the President. Now, this ought not to be the case, if Mugwump hostility be the true guide to Republican goodness and greatness which such cool and sagacious minds as that of Charles Emory Smith have solemnly assured us it is. There must be something wrong in a principle which breaks down under so simple a test as this.

The way the Philadelphia newspapers throw their shields round "John Wanamaker," as they affectionately call him, is both touching and diverting. Even those who are most opposed to bribery and corruption at elections, and are readiest to suspect it in other places, cannot be persuaded that any of the money which their John raised went in any such wicked ways—he is such a "respectable business man," you know, and such a "valuable church member." Of course the uncharitable smile when one expresses surprise or sorrow at this, and remark that the quality of advertising is not strained; that it droppeth like the gentle rain from heaven on the place beneath; that it is thrice blessed, it blesseth him that gives, and him that takes; or, in other words, that John surrounds himself with a subsidized public opinion, which holds him harmless in Philadelphia. How far this is true, we have no means of knowing, and do not care to discuss; but we will make one remark at which no one can take offence. In all other great civilized Christian cities that we know of, a respectable business man and valuable church member, when his use of a large sum of other people's money is criticized, answers his assailants and confounds them by *publishing his accounts and vouchers*. This is the rule and practice of religion and morality, as well as the custom of merchants. It ought to be the rule of politics; and any Christian man who, handling political money, refuses to obey it, because it is not the law of the land, brings reproach upon himself, on his church, and his country, and makes his journalistic apologists ridiculous.

The South Carolina Legislature adjourned on Saturday night without having adopted the proposition to submit a constitutional amendment establishing an educational test, and the same fate appears likely to befall the similar scheme in Alabama. Outside those States the project has not received much support, and there has been no little opposition in the press of the two States. The general opinion appears to be that, suffrage having been once given to everybody, no attempt at placing an educational restriction upon its exercise will ever be carried through.

Apparently the bulk of Osman Digna's forces were not engaged in the fight at Suakim on Wednesday week, but the British success has certainly steadied public opinion in England as to the expediency of holding the town, and will very likely determine the Government to take possession of it, in the Queen's name, instead of keeping it as now in the Khedive's. The neighboring tribes, it is supposed, would not object to its becoming British territory. What they — apart from the slave-dealers—are resisting in attacking it, is an attempt to reëstablish Egyptian domination on the upper Nile. To this all accounts agree they will never submit. It was the badness of the Egyptian rule which produced the Mahdi, and converted the Sudanese into the fierce warriors they have shown themselves to be ever since 1882. Sir John Adye, the chief of Lord Wolseley's staff in the Egyptian campaign, and sometime Governor of Gibraltar, writes to the London *Times* to say that, while Zebehr Pasha, a noted Sudanese chief, was a prisoner at Gibraltar he repeatedly told him that this was the real root of the hostility of the tribes to the British garrison at Suakim, and intimated that if it were known to them for certain that the British were not acting for the Egyptians, accommodation might be easy.

The triennial elections for the Norwegian Storthing have resulted disastrously for the Sverdrup Ministry. The two groups of the Left, the Moderates or Ministerialists and the Radicals, have been waging war to the knife in the press and on the hustings, and have preferred to wreck their party rather than to unite on a policy which both might be able to support. The next Storthing, which will meet in February, 1889, will have 54 Conservatives, 22 Moderates, and 38 Radicals. Efforts will undoubtedly be made to patch up some sort of compromise between the two groups of the Left, and some of the objectionable members of the Ministry, notably Jacob Sverdrup, the Premier's nephew, Minister of Ecclesiastical Affairs, will probably be sacrificed in order to save the rest. Such a compromise would, however, be a precarious experiment, and would scarcely be respected long. The hostility of the Radicals to Sverdrup is so bitter that they will let no opportunity slip to repay him for the humiliation he has inflicted upon them. They attribute to his machinations the defeat of their three ablest leaders, who all failed of reëlection. The middle course which the Ministry has chosen, between clamorous demands of the Radicals for manhood suffrage and ecclesiastical reform and the conservative sentiment of the peasantry, who demand economy in administration and lightening of the burden of taxation, has apparently failed to satisfy either party. The probable result will be a return of the Conservatives to power before the session is far advanced.

OUR POOR UNPROTECTED STAGE.

THE infantile cry for protection raised by some of our native actors amounts to nothing less than an acknowledgment of hopeless inferiority, and no other interpretation will be put upon it by the general public. All pretences of a patriotic or philanthropic motive are too shallow to deceive any intelligent or unprejudiced person for a moment; and it is to be hoped that the few eminent performers who have permitted their names to be associated with this extraordinary exhibition of pusillanimity may be able to appreciate this fact, and reconsider their course before further damage is done to their artistic reputations. It is useless to try to befog the point at issue. The restrictions asked for must operate, and are doubtless intended to operate, not only against "leading men," as they are called in theatrical jargon, and companies imported for the support of foreign stars, but against the foreign stars themselves. There is not a manager in the country who does not understand this fully, and the managers who support the movement do so because the only possible result of it must be the exclusion of all first-class foreign dramatic performances from these shores.

Their policy is based upon an argument as simple as it is selfish and despicable. Put into plain words, it would be something like this: "Mr. Irving comes here, and takes away money which ought to go into our pockets. His success is due largely to his splendidly trained company. To legislate against him personally would be too barefaced an outrage; let us rather shut his company out, and then offer him a hearty fraternal welcome." They know, of course, that Mr. Irving, or any other player of his rank, would scout the idea of collecting a new cast out of the theatrical odds and ends floating about in Union Square, and that, even if he could be willing to descend to an expedient so unworthy of his high aims, he could not afford the time for organization and rehearsal. They know too, none better, that this unhappy public has suffered too greatly from the domestic combinations of stars and sticks to hunger after foreign mixtures of a similar kind. The rule which they propose would apply equally to all nationalities, and they would be well pleased, doubtless, if they could compel M. Coquelin, Herr Possart, and others to draw their support from the waiters in the restaurants or the beer-saloons.

The complaint that "leading men" are imported from England in large numbers, to the exclusion of native "talent," would be justified if there was any evidence of favoritism in the matter. But there is nothing of the sort, the fact being that the supply of the American article falls far short of the demand. Nor is the reason far to seek. There is no natural quality in an Englishman to make him peculiarly fit to impersonate the heroes of old or modern comedy. The American is as fair to look upon, is as well equipped in respect of lungs and limbs, and is certainly not inferior in respect of average intelligence. How, then, does it come about that young Englishmen succeed in securing so many of the best positions in a business conducted by men notoriously devoid of sentiment? The only possible answer is that they are more competent than their American brethren; and it is equally clear that their superiority must be due, in most cases, not to natural gifts, but to their training.

It has been suggested that the English actor carries with him a certain air of social distinction, traceable to his familiarity with the more formal manners of an older civilization; but in this there is a large element of humbug. The fiction that the stage-player is the idol of the British court or camp has no surer foundation than the fancy of the press-agent. Some of them have been educated in the public schools, a few in the universities, one or two at Sandhurst; but, speaking generally, the English actor has no social opportunities beyond the reach of the American actor. There is no monopoly of good manners nowadays on either side of the Atlantic, and the main difference between a London and a New York drawing-room is geographical. The vital point, moreover, is not whether an actor is a gentleman in his behavior in his private capacity, but whether he can deport himself as a gentleman upon the stage, where his conduct is not natural, except in appearance, but artificial. The veriest Chesterfield in a ballroom might be mistaken for a boor before the footlights. What is wanted here is not so much a school for actors as a school for managers. There are plenty of apt pupils, but there is a most woful dearth of teachers.

The force of this remark will scarcely be appreciated except by those readers who chance to have some personal knowledge of the intellectual and moral character of the men who now control the destinies of the American stage. There are not, in the whole country, more than half-a-dozen managers (three of whom are in this city) who are in the least degree entitled to that name in its proper sense, as it would be applied, for instance, to Phelps, Irving, Charles Kean, or Macready. The rest are speculators pure and simple, who know nothing and care nothing about the art by which they make their living; whose sole idea is to make money, "honestly if they can, but by all means to make money"; and who "run" their theatres as the Bowery man "runs" his museum—by sheer force of advertising. Of literature, of history, of archæology, of architecture, of painting, of costume, or of acting, they are as ignorant as Macaulay's fourth-form schoolboy, and they would laugh at anybody who hinted to them that education of any kind was essential to their profession. All they care about is a sensation which will "draw." There is not one of them who would know what to do with a stock company, if he had one, or who could presume to select a play or give a direction at rehearsal. If a piece has been successful in Paris, Berlin, or London, they contract for its production in one or more of their circuit of theatres, and are interested in nothing but the scene plan, which, as a matter of carpentry, they can comprehend. With the play they get their company; or if by any chance they have to cast the piece themselves, they select one or two prominent performers, and fill up the remainder of the list almost at haphazard from such actors as may happen to be disengaged. If the play, on account of a tank, a horse-race, horse-play, dirt, or what not, chances to make a hit, it is sent the round of the country until the receipts fall off, when it is shelved for something else. In the whole experiment there is no thought of art, either with respect to the play or the manner of its representation. At the end of the season, be it long or short, the actors are scattered to pick up their next employment where they can.

Thus it comes to pass that the American actor, except in a few theatres where the stock system still prevails, is never subject for any length of time to intelligent supervision and direction, but is left to his own resources. If he betrays special aptitude for one line of work, he follows that line exclusively, and either becomes a "star" in the narrowest of orbits—before he has learned the rudiments of real acting, whose aim is general impersonation—or drifts into the abysses of general inutility. If he is lucky, he makes a small fortune in a year or two, and becomes too conceited to play second fiddle to anybody. If he is unlucky, he disappears in inglorious and laborious oblivion. From this latter class comes the despairing wail for protection.

The speculative "manager" is at work in England too, but there he is yet in the minority. In that old theatrical centre there is some virtue in the spirit of conservatism. This it is that keeps alive the memories of tradition and forbids the total abandonment of the stock-company system. The actors who come here to be "leading men" are not in the front ranks at home, but they have served some apprenticeship in schools not altogether dead to the influences of the past. They have learned to read moderately well, to assume an air of repose, and to control the rawest impulses of the beginner; they have enjoyed, in short, in some degree, the advantages which are denied to the beginners here. Some of them, perhaps, although this is not so certain, have been benefited by a more liberal general education. In natural ability, however, they are in no way superior to the American raw material. Many of them do not even speak their own language as well as their American rivals; but they are more expert in detail, are more at home in a dress-coat or in ruffles, and are able to mimic, often very feebly, the comedy style handed down from generation to generation. But there is no tradition in London which does not exist here, and there is not the least reason why America should not lead the way in the theatre as in other paths of civilization. After more than a century of acting, with some of the most glorious names on the roll of theatrical fame, to whimper for protection is more than cowardly—it is disgraceful.

THE CAUSES OF RAILROAD MISMANAGEMENT.

WITHIN the past three weeks the railroad situation has been publicly reviewed by two of the highest authorities in the country—first by the Inter-State Commerce Commission in its annual report to Congress, and next by Mr. Adams in his speech to the Commercial Club of Boston.

Up to a certain point the two are in harmony. Both agree in laying severe blame upon many of the present methods of railroad management. In a large number of cases, rates are not made with any intelligent regard to the interests of the property. Sometimes the subordinate agents act without control from the general management; oftener still the general management acts without control from the stockholders, if not in open defiance of their interests. The agent, in his desire to do a thriving business, is only too ready to meet a cut rate of a rival, however low. In this system of rate-cutting he is sometimes directly encouraged by his superiors. The directors of our large corporations have other means of making money besides the legitimate operation of the property under their control. Fortunes are more quickly made by stockjobbing than by the slow accumulation of dividends. By borrowing other people's money to build and run railroads for speculative purposes, the manager obtains a chance of gain out of all proportion to his own personal risk. The present loss falls almost wholly on the investor: the ultimate gain, whether the stock rise or fall, will accrue largely to the speculators.

Mr. Adams and the Inter-State Commerce Commission are in full agreement as to the serious character of these evils. Both make them a fundamental cause of existing troubles; but the Commission draws the inference that the Inter-State Commerce Act has not had much to do with producing the present state of things, while Mr. Adams believes that it has. Some critics have gone so far as to accuse him of inconsistency in assigning two separate causes for the same result, sometimes making it depend upon one and sometimes upon the other. We do not think that this criticism is well founded. Mr. Adams's explanation may seem less consistent with itself than that of the Commission; but it is more consistent with the facts. For really there are two sets of causes operating to produce the present crisis: one dependent on the errors of railroad managers, and another upon those of the Inter-State Commerce Act. The two are so closely intermixed that the predominance of one set or the other will largely depend upon the point of view chosen by the observer.

If all railroad managers were angels, the Inter-State Commerce Law would not have the bad effect upon railroad property which it has at present. So much we may readily concede to the Commission; and so far we are justified in laying the blame upon the sins of the managers, rather than upon the act itself. But nobody makes laws upon the supposition that all the people subject to them are going to be angels. In point of fact, railroad managers show the same mixture of good and bad qualities as do other people, some of them being thoroughly honest and competent, some indifferently so, and some conspicuously lacking in one or the other of these respects. Now, taking human nature as we find it, was the law adapted to the needs of the case? Experience indicates that parts of it, at least, were not. The prohibition of pooling destroyed more safeguards than the pains and penalties of the rest of the law were able to create. It has actually resulted in the building of parallel lines and in the demoralization of rates. The Commission tries to show that these were not in any way attributable to the operation of the act; but Mr. Adams gives clear indications that they were.

Pools were by no means an ideal means of securing amicable relations between different roads; but they were the best which the experience of half-a-century had been able to devise, and the only one which had accomplished the object in view with even moderate success. When these were made illegal, the railroad system of the country was placed at the mercy of its most reckless members. If one road inaugurated a fighting policy, it inflicted losses upon other roads, which were equally serious whether they entered the fight or kept out of it. The Commission was unable to grant any relief, and simply went about crying, "Peace, peace!" when there was no peace. This is the state of things today; and it is one for which the law is in one sense largely responsible.

We do not attempt to palliate for a moment the action of the more reckless railroad managers; in a recent issue we have ourselves criticised it most severely. But we believe that the effect of the law is to increase these evils, giving the reckless managers more influence, and the conservative managers less, so that the former can dictate the policy to be adopted in large sections of the country. Nor is the prospect for improvement at all promising. To repeal the pooling clause seems out of the question for the present, to reform human nature is almost equally so; but the immediate outlook for the latter is better than for the former. Any means which shall secure real publicity in railroad rates or railroad management is to be welcomed as a powerful aid in this respect.

The proposal for a railroad clearing-house is one which is worthy of careful attention. As far as its operations could go, it would do much good and no possible harm. It is not so radical a measure as many people imagine. When the Southwestern clearing-house was proposed, many of the newspapers described it as a railroad Trust. This was far from the truth. It was not even a railroad pool. It was simply an administrative measure by which rival roads could keep track of one another's operations, and common action could be secured for common ends. So far from being a consolidation of interests, it was intended as a means for rendering such consolidation unnecessary.

Such clearing-houses have existed for about fourteen years in the Southern States, and for over forty years in England. In both cases they have been highly successful. But it should also be said that each of these clearing-houses, in the early stages of its development, was accompanied by a highly organized system of pools. The two things helped one another. It remains to be seen what would be the success of a clearing-house without a pool. So much of our competitive traffic—say from Chicago to New York—is carried over but one system, that it would not enter the clearing-house at all. One set of roads would be held to a greater measure of publicity than another, and the latter would be an object of suspicion to the former. It would require all the ingenuity of our best railroad administrators to meet this difficulty.

Publicity of accounts is no less desirable than publicity of rates. In this respect the workings of the Inter-State Commerce Law may be of decided benefit; but in matters of railroad financiering the public conscience needs education quite as much as the public intellect. Even if stockholders are told pretty accurately what has gone on during the past year, the information often comes too late to do any good. The directors know that it will come too late; and the possibility of future action on the part of the stockholders has little or no deterrent effect. If the public came to regard breach of a director's trust in its true light, it would be quite another thing. When the man who has knowingly, though indirectly, converted investors' funds to his own uses, receives the penalty of social ostracism, and can no longer be associated with financial enterprises of good standing, then the most important of all steps towards railroad reform will have been accomplished. However remote the prospect of this result, it is well worth making the effort to attain it.

THE RAGE FOR OFFICE.

THE cause of the American eagerness to hold office under the Government has been analyzed a great deal, both by political and social philosophers, without any very satisfactory result. It used to be considered a peculiarly American passion, but this theory has, we think, been disposed of by the experience of France under the Third Republic, which indicates that the passion exists in every democracy, and will show itself with great violence whenever the opportunities for gratifying it are sensibly increased. That is, as soon as it becomes plain that everybody who uses certain means has a fair chance of getting into the public service, under any popular government an enormous increase in the number of candidates takes place—an increase so great that it sometimes seems as if half the voting population were place-hunters. Nothing seems to hold this passion in check except absolute hopelessness. The vacancies have to be rare, and the conditions of appointment hard, in order to turn the popular attention away from this mode of gaining a livelihood.

It is not by any means, however, in the character of a means of livelihood that

office-holding most inflames the popular imagination. As a means of livelihood, in fact, it has but little to recommend it to any man who has character, or capacity, or friends, and is still in the prime of life. The pay is small, and the tenure very precarious, and in this country there is no pension for the superannuated or disabled civil servants. In fact, if it offered nothing but the salary, it would probably lose one-half of its attractiveness. What makes it so seductive in democracies is undoubtedly the fact that it is the only place or business within the reach of the ordinary citizen which confers *distinction*, or, in other words, which seems to raise him above his fellows or mark him out from them as a person peculiarly situated. The same salary in the grocery or dry-goods or hardware business would not confer distinction. It would not mark out the recipient as a man above his fellows. It would not clothe him with any dignity or authority, or put him forward as the representative, or type, or symbol of anything. But as soon as he becomes a postmaster, or custom-house officer, or revenue collector, or marshal, or sheriff, he is at once raised on a pedestal : he seems to stand for the State or nation, and to have been selected by it to bear responsibility and speak with its voice. He is no longer a simple villager, or farmer, or storekeeper ; he is raised above them, and forms a separate class, of which he may be the only member.

To appreciate the force of these considerations one has only to remember how ordinary people in a democracy suffer from obscurity. No one knows as much about this as newspaper editors and reporters. Men and women often manage to conceal their passion for notoriety from their immediate friends and acquaintances ; but to the editor and reporter it is often revealed, with startling simplicity, that perhaps the worst of human ills, after poverty, disgrace, or disease, is to be "nobody in particular," that is, to be a person who is not talked about, who has no mark of difference from his fellows, and of whom the world outside his home circle has never heard. As a general rule, men and women do not ask or hope for anything that can be called fame ; but they live in eager desire for some slight elevation above their neighbors, some distinctive mark, if not of eminence, of meritorious peculiarity or segregation, some sign that by somebody somewhere they are more honored or trusted or observed than the other individuals who compose the public. An office, however humble, furnishes this mark. It makes a man peculiar. It clothes him with a little brief authority. It makes him on some subjects an oracle to his neighbors. It takes him out of the crowd. It secures him the certainty of being pointed out in any small company as a person to whom something off the common has happened, whose life does not run in the ordinary groove, and who is, in short, a local notable.

There is, however, one peculiarity of American office-holding which has the effect in this country of deepening the office-holding passion beyond anything of the kind elsewhere. We mean the theory, born of the spoils system, that every office-holder, however lowly his place, assists in "making the Administration a success," and that, therefore, every administration must, in order to be a success, fill all the offices with "its friends," meaning by "friends" men of the same party. This theory was, in fact, necessary from the beginning, in order to justify the Jacksonian "clean sweep." It would be difficult to justify the wholesale expulsion of clerks, postmasters, letter-carriers, custom-house inspectors, and scrubbing women without maintaining that Democratic clerks would not keep books, and Democratic postmasters would not despatch mails, and Democratic letter-carriers would not sort and deliver letters, and Democratic custom-house officers would not prevent smuggling, and Democratic scrubbing women would not scrub floors, in a proper and efficient manner for a Republican President, or vice versa. Consequently, all the underlings of the Government, however obscure or unimportant their duties may be, are, under the spoils theory, supposed to be sharers with the President and the Cabinet in the work of carrying out the policy of the Administration.

This view took firm hold of the office-holding class in this country, and, though somewhat weakened of late years, is still strong and rife. In England, or even in France, it would seem very ridiculous. If a Liberal post-office clerk in London were to proclaim that he was unwilling to do his letter-sorting properly lest it should help Lord Salisbury to maintain his hold on power, it would be received with shouts of laughter, and he would probably be dismissed as a crank. But there are still thousands of subordinates in our Government service who sincerely hold that they can hardly be expected to discharge their duties properly, and are really unwilling to be efficient, if they do not belong to the same party as the Administration.

The self-importance this gives even a small office-holder is easily understood. It can hardly help lending a little extra strut to his walk, and heightening his tone when he is laying down the law at his boarding-house table. To have a real part in directing or carrying out the policy of a great government makes even $500 a year seem a great salary, and gives dignity, if not splendor, to the duty of scrubbing the floor and cleansing the spittoons. If, too, it makes it hard for a Republican to sort letters or cast up accounts correctly under a Democratic President, it gives the task some of the glorious bitterness of martyrdom. The fact that the work is odious lends it a certain nobleness and elevation, and makes the man who does it feel himself a sufferer in a great cause. It is, of course, just the same, a ridiculous and mischievous delusion which has to be destroyed. The civil service will never be thoroughly reformed until all subordinates in it feel themselves to be heart and soul the servants of the American people, or, in other words, of all taxpayers.

THE CONDITION OF IRELAND AS EXHIBITED BY OFFICIAL STATISTICS.

DUBLIN, December 1, 1888.

THE opening address to the Irish Statistical and Social Enquiry Society was delivered last week by Dr. Thomas Grimshaw, the President, who, both in his official capacity as Registrar General of Ireland and Chief Census Commissioner, and as a private individual long versed in vital and other statistics, is probably the most competent authority on such matters in this country. After reviewing at length the statistics of population, agriculture, trade, education, pauperism, and taxation from 1841 down to the present time, he arrived at the conclusion that, since the great famine of 1846-7, Ireland has advanced more rapidly, and has recovered from a condition of almost total wreck more completely, than any country ever has done. This conclusion is so completely at variance with the popular judgment that one may well hesitate to accept the inference he draws from facts and figures which, if not indisputable, approximate to accuracy as closely as such statistics are capable of doing.

The population of Ireland has fallen from 8,300,000 in 1845 to 4,900,000 in 1888. The decrease was most rapid in the years of famine and those immediately succeeding, but it has been continuous, and still continues. The result is, that per head of population we have more acres of land, more pounds of assessment, more cattle, sheep, pigs, and poultry, more agricultural produce, more tons of shipping, more manufactures, more deposits in banks, more capital in every shape, more pupils attending schools, more miles of road and railway, fewer paupers, fewer inferior houses. If this is not progress and prosperity, what is it? The enormous decrease in population is the most striking fact; but a stationary or even diminishing population is not necessarily an evil. The condition of the Irish people before the great famine was deplorable ; population undoubtedly was excessive in this sense, that, as property was constituted—that is, under the existing system of land tenure—the produce available for the subsistence of the mass of the people was insufficient for health, comfort, or happiness. It has frequently been estimated by skilled agricultural authorities and economists that the produce of the soil of Ireland would be sufficient for the support of from ten to fifteen million people. It is an undoubted fact that the produce from the soil has always been far less than it might; even now a vast proportion of the country is capable of reclamation and permanent improvement that would make it infinitely more productive than it is. The chief agent required is labor, and the wages of labor have been for the last century lower here than in most European countries. There has always been a dearth of employment for the poor in Ireland, and there never has been a time since the days of Swift when the Irish population was not considered redundant by the official and land-owning classes; whether the population was three, eight, or five millions, emigration for the "masses" has been the universal panacea of the "classes," to whom the poverty of the peasantry has been a puzzle, a nuisance, a problem, and a crime.

The condition of the country has been and is an economic paradox. The means of subsistence are, if not abundant, sufficient; they might be largely increased by the expenditure of capital in employing labor, which is abundant and cheap: but poverty, squalor, wretchedness, and want of employment prevail. Few years pass without Government grants being made or private funds being raised for the relief of distress; yet the causes of distress are not removed, and these chronic grants serve only to confirm and develop habitual pauperism.

Dr. Grimshaw's interpretation of the official

figures is simple. The mass of the people were dependent on one crop: it failed, hence the famine. Ireland is almost wholly dependent on agriculture, which has ceased to be as remunerative as formerly, hence the continuous decline of the population, with the result that there is more material wealth for the residue. The explanation is insufficient: why should the peasantry have been dependent on the potato crop alone, when corn, cattle, sheep abounded, when the land was but half cultivated? Other European peasantries suffered dire distress from the potato failure, but were not swept away in millions, like the Irish. The true cause of the dire effects of the famine, of the unceasing annual decline of the Irish agricultural population, consisted in the constitution of property, in the system of large estates cultivated by tenant occupiers on the frailest tenure by which a peasantry ever lived in their native country—a tenure under which it was impossible that capital could accumulate among the people, who had therefore, in a time of sudden calamity, no resources in the shape of savings to fall back upon. No economic law operated in the distribution of wealth or land-ownership in Ireland, or in causing the disappearance of nearly half the population.

Mr. Senior, the well-known economist, and poor-law commissioner for many years in Ireland, told a Committee of the House of Commons that a smaller portion of the produce remained with the tenant in Ireland than in England or Scotland. Morally, the Irish tenant was entitled to a larger share of the produce, inasmuch as he provided all the fixed capital and equipments of his farm—house, fences, roads, drains, and so on. The rest and best of the produce—corn, butter, beef, mutton, wool, leather—was applied in paying absentee rents and charges amounting to eight million pounds sterling, in paying an excessive proportion of imperial taxation, and in maintaining an unproductive and improvident class whose existence was a necessary accompaniment of the large-estate system—the landlord himself, who in most cases rendered no services in return for his rent, agents, bailiffs, rent-warners, process servers, and a whole host of legal functionaries whose chief business was the collection of rent.

The less remunerativeness of agriculture is not so evidently the *causa causans* of the disappearance of the Irish people as Dr. Grimshaw suggests, for the decline continued in times of prosperity as well as adversity. In England Prof. Thorold Rogers tells us that his researches show that the "principal lever in the elevation of rents was the loss consequent on dispossession." Prosperity led to this elevation of rent in England, and to dispossession on a large scale in Ireland. The principal agent of depopulation in Ireland has been the power which the possession of vast estates gave to individuals. The owner could use his power either to depopulate absolutely, or to make the conditions of life such that the people fled. At the end of the last century, when land rose suddenly in value, an increase of rent on the estate of a London company in County Derry produced an almost total emigration from the district. The "clearance" system was in full swing before the famine, after which the fact of farming becoming more profitable led to the population being removed from some of the most fertile lands in the country. Alan Pollok, an Englishman, bought an estate in Galway for two and a half million dollars; it was then covered with a peasantry of small farmers; the correspondent of the London *Times* said "he made a *tabula rasa* of it by a process, not ungentle indeed, but rather painful." T. G. Adair cleared 30,000 acres in Donegal, the pretext being a murder, now believed to have been committed by one of his Scotch servants; he turned the district into a ranch. In 1873 fifty families were dispossessed off 2,000 acres of fertile land in Meath, the use of which at that time had become very remunerative. By chance I met this year, in another county, three brothers, elderly men, who had been among the dispossessed. Men of unusual energy and rare thrift, though struck down and deprived of their home and business in middle life, they had with their savings purchased other farms, and, after a painful struggle and much self-denial, again attained to moderate competence.

In these instances, which are types of what went on all over the country, it was not distress and non-payment of rent, or even excessive rents, that led to the clearances, but the power which an owner can arbitrarily exercise over vast tracts under our system of landlordism. A nobleman who used to boast he was the largest meat manufacturer in Ireland, pursued on his estate in Kildare the policy of getting rid of every small farmer near him; he was the terror of his neighbors and tenants. "There wasn't a cabbage garden but he must have it," said one of them to me lately. He took a pride in pursuing this course: "It's the only way to improve the country," I heard him say some years ago. He thus obtained the occupation of some 3,000 acres of fertile, fattening land, on which 150 families might have lived, thriven, and paid rent. In such districts there may be statistical progress—more cattle, sheep, and assessment per head; but towns and villages decay, there are roads without traffic, schools without scholars, posts without letters, tradesmen without customers, for "bullocks wear no breeches."

The population of fertile Meath has diminished 56 per cent. since 1841, and is still diminishing, while that of Mayo, where the people are more dependent on the potato, is increasing. The population of Achill Parish has increased 36 per cent. since 1851, and the assessment per head is one-twentieth of what it is in Meath. The dispeopling of Meath is distinctly due, not to any economic law, but to the power vested in the landlords of resuming occupation and use of the land almost at will. The result is an enormous decrease of people in those districts where the landlord, either from caprice or avarice, chose to oust the peasantry. The only economic tendency illustrated is that men may choose, regardless of moral considerations, to do that which will bring them the greatest money return. Population in Ireland remains most dense where cultivation in small parcels yields the greatest return in rent, and where it would not have benefited the landlord to have seized on the occupation. Lords Lucan and Sligo cleared vast tracts of land in Connaught; a farm of 30,000 acres exists on one of their estates still wearing traces of extensive eviction.

To the question whether the condition of the peasantry has improved, the answer as to some districts is that there are no peasants in them now. Yet the desolation of these districts is one factor in the result deduced from Irish statistics. In districts where the land is poor there is doubtless an overdense population. How to deal with them is one of the Irish problems. How they contrive to live is a puzzle; but as they have not only done so, but paid rent as regularly, until recent years, as the tenantry on better lands, the problem cannot be insoluble. Effects remain after their causes have apparently passed away; and one cause of the dense population in poor districts was the direct encouragement of the owners. In former days a numerous population gave political strength to the owner of the district, and spade labor produced from the poorest moorland five times the rent it would have yielded in its natural state. It was profitable to the owners to dispeople the rich lands, and such districts have been cleared; it would have been unprofitable to do so with the poorer districts, and they remain "congested." A low standard of living was begotten by the conditions in which they lived; and the independence which is the peculiar characteristic of a freeholding peasantry, has never had a chance of being developed.

The standard by which the prosperity and progress of Ireland should be gauged is found in comparison with other European countries. Such a comparison recalls a letter written in 1843 by Smith O'Brien, a landlord, and until then a Conservative, on the occasion of his joining the Repeal Association. He said, "After visiting Belgium and all the principal capitals in Germany, I return impressed with the sad conviction that there is more human misery in one county in Ireland than in all the populous cities and districts which I have visited." In each of the last six years I have visited agricultural districts of France and Switzerland, and country towns of from 10,000 to 50,000 inhabitants. One person can see but little. The observer of agricultural economy is at a disadvantage; the area is vast, the population scattered, the habits of rural life and the conditions of individuals are more varied than those of city life and of the industrial classes. But the observer may supplement his own observation by conversation with others, and extend his experience by the study of books, statistics, and laws. A traveller comparing the Irish peasantry of to-day with those of Belgium, France, or Switzerland, could not fail to come to the same conclusion as O'Brien in 1843. The appearance of the children of the poor is a good test; and the following sentence, from a report of Matthew Arnold in 1884, sums up the whole matter:

"What has been said of the general equality of conditions in Switzerland supplies an answer to the question whether there are *separate schools for dirty and neglected children*—THERE IS NO SUCH CLASS OF CHILDREN."

In the United Kingdom we are so accustomed to look on the landlord and tenant system as the natural state of society that its economic evils are never thoroughly appreciated. In Ireland it means a tax amounting to ten million sterling pounds a year paid by the peasantry, comprising 500,000 families, to a class consisting at most of 20,000 individuals and their creditors, in return for which scarcely any services whatever are rendered. The ideal landlord—a father to his tenantry, fulfilling magisterial duties, promoting education, an example in agriculture, a wise dispenser of charity—has rarely existed in Ireland. The power vested in this class over the homes, lives, and industry of the peasants has been and is a cause of continual unrest and disturbance. More than half the enormous civil-service expenditure in Ireland is incurred in maintaining and regulating this system.

Until the system of large estates and landlordism is broken up, I believe there can be neither progress nor prosperity for the peasantry in Ireland. That which is exhibited by official statistics simply means that the people have been removed or have fled, and that their homes and farms have been converted into ranches.

AN IRISHMAN.

THE MONUMENTS OF AREZZO.

AREZZO, December 1.

IF anything will teach a man how much more than two one and one make, it is the pass-

ing a day alone in an Italian mediæval city, where the civic importance is diminishing and the civic vitality consequently waning. The narrow, poverty-stricken intellectual life in these spent *municipia*, once such flaming, volcanic centres of patriotic fervor, has so little in it which interests the active Western mind that it is of no use to get letters of introduction to the magnates of the city: a half-hour's conversation on the provincial characteristics will, at best, exhaust all there is in common between the American and the Italian, and then the formal politeness of the race makes a mutual torture of tedium obligatory for the rest of the stay. And so it is better to know nobody.

Thus it happens that I am here in the gray of the deepening twilight, having left Florence in the early morning and gone thoroughly through the round of interesting material—as thoroughly, at least, as one can do it alone at one visit—and seen all that calls for seeing in this cradle of great men; and as I must continue on to Rome by the morning train of to-morrow, I am absolutely stranded, what with the ebbing day and exhausted matter for examination—and hours yet to sleeping time! I had hoped to find here Gamurrini, the explorer of Falari and master of Etruscan archæology; but he is at Rome, probably, helping to arrange his findings in the new museum of Papa Giulio, and so the only Arretian with whom I could have had an hour's conversation is gone. Two people in this case can multiply indefinitely, and not merely by two, the attraction of a subject held in common.

Moreover, Arezzo is a place that has but few points of attraction on the decline of a gloomy autumn day, with a cold tramontana wind blowing after the rain, and the sunless landscape shivering off the last few sere leaves from its trees. There are some churches of interest, and especially that of the Madonna della Pieve, certainly one of the earliest and most original of Italian churches, reputed to be of the seventh century, and as free from Byzantine influence as if Ravenna had not existed; and it is perhaps as striking an instance of the barbaric state of the arts in Italy while the artists of the Eastern Empire were preparing the way for St. Mark's at Venice. This barbarism renders it the more interesting. It suggests, perhaps, Pisa, but not logically. It has a long façade with four stories of colonnade; but the motive is different, for the Pisan front is obedient to the motive of the basilica, the colonnades diminishing upwards, while the façade of the Arretian church is one immense front, a massive mask with four colonnades—the lower one having six columns, the second twelve, the third twenty-four, and the fourth thirty-two; each colonnade being terminated by the ponderous pier which, at the right, rises as a part of the campanile to the full height of the same. Most of the columns have, I think, been taken from temples or other early structures, for the variety is curiously accentuated by occasional repetitions, and the sculpture, which is evidently *ad hoc*, is of the rudest possible style. The central archway, which holds the great gate, is supported by two piers, and the inner surface of the arch bears sculptures in detached relief, which, like those over the other doors and a votive relief in the church, are of the most archaic work and evidently local. The "rule of thumb" is written on it all.

The interior is delightful—a large, simple disposition of the members, a broad nave, and two diminished aisles; on the left, four immense columns, and three on the right, besides the pier which helps carry the campanile, and which takes the place of the fourth. The capitals are ornamented with human heads, animals, and foliage—sculpture which, to me at least, gives the impression of having been done by men who had seen the work of the Byzantines, and tried to emulate it without much training. It is of a large and attractive mould. The choir is elevated about ten feet above the floor of the church, with a spacious staircase leading to it on each side, and a circular apse. The treatment throughout is admirably simple and large, and so different from most work of the region that one is led to wonder by what channels it has drifted down to us. Of course, there could have been no part of Italy which, from the time of the supremacy of the Church, has not had its artistic traditions, and, in architecture, in painting, and in mosaic, some kind of continuity; but it would be interesting to see how the Roman basilica led to this church, which is distinctly basilical in type, yet differs from all basilicas by a marked individuality.

The exterior, except the façade, has been restored with great care, and with all the fidelity to the detail of the original which is characteristic of the work done under the care of the present Ministry of Public Instruction. But the stone of which the church is constructed is a most friable sandstone, which has yielded to the elements so completely that it is difficult to find the details for restoration; and were it not for the keeping with the work of the interior, which has not suffered, one might doubt if the restorers had not worked by a moral consciousness. On the exterior of the apse there is a charming colonnade, like all the rear and flanks of the church, quite renewed; but, owing to the delightful gray of the material, there is nothing of the crudeness of the restorations of Pisa and other marble-built churches which so offends the pictorial sense of the followers of Mr. Ruskin. This is a building which the student of ecclesiastical architecture cannot neglect.

Then the Duomo, by Lapo, though still without a façade, has a great architectural interest, not only from its noble proportions, but, to me, from the suggestion in its external ornament of the Duomo of Orvieto, confirming, *pro tanto*, my attribution of the latter church to Arnolfo di Lapo (in the *Nation* of a year or more ago), while its interior is full of interest. The high altar has a magnificent screen, with the life of St. Donatus in bas-reliefs framed in Gothic ornament. Murray attributes it to Giovanni Pisano, but it is certainly earlier than his work. The tomb of Gregory X. by Margaritone is an example of the most chaste simplicity, the effigy of the Pope lying straight and stiff, with his face partially turned to the spectator, and not cut from the same block as the lid of the sarcophagus, so that it lies free, and his head is simply in contact with the marble pillow on which it lies, as a marble head must be on a marble pillow. The trefoil arch above him has at its apex a bas-relief of Christ blessing the Pope as he lies. Gregory died in Arezzo, on his way back from the proclamation of the crusade in 1276. The immense and imposing tomb of Guido Tarlati, the warrior Bishop of Arezzo, who defied the Pope and was excommunicated by him, but immortalized by his fellow-citizens, was the work of Agostino and Agnolo of Siena, and designed, Vasari says, by Giotto. Like the reliefs of the monument of Gregory, it shows how far sculpture was in advance of painting at the time it was executed.

But what I came chiefly to see was the frescoes of Spinello Aretino and Piero della Francesca, in which Arezzo was once so rich. The former decorated his native city with a profuseness which indicates that the little republic was a lover of the arts, for it was immediately after the popular revolution in 1360 that he was called into this work. He was the greatest in direct line of the artistic successors to the traditions of Giotto; for Orcagna, the greatest of all the painters between Giotto and Michael Angelo, was not in the legitimate descent from Giotto, and had qualities so entirely his own that he must be set apart from any school as completely as, at a later period, must Correggio be. Spinello was strictly orthodox, and in his art there is nothing that will not be found in some form in that of the head of his school; but in this line of succession there was no one who can be compared to him for the energy and fertility of invention with which he covered the walls assigned to him. Called to Siena, to Pisa, to Florence, and continually recalled to Arezzo, the authorities of which seem to have reluctantly allowed him to serve other cities, he covered entire walls with a power which had no equal in his day. Of all his work, we have only enough to justify his contemporary reputation. In San Domenico of Arezzo he had evidently covered the entire space offered by the almost unbroken walls of the church with his compositions; for we can still see here and there, in the waste of dreary whitewash, fragments of frescoes—a head here and a confused indication of a group there; and in one place there remains, apparently as part of a series of sacred personages, a portion of one of those architectural decorations which framed the minor subjects, in this case representing two apostles, St. James and St. Philip, standing under Gothic canopies and with, on each side, two stories from their lives, and overhead, subjects from the life of St. Catherine. But the whole is surrounded—perhaps for protection, perhaps in ignorant mutilation—by an absurd frame of relatively recent times, which cuts off a part of all the subjects, yet leaves the Apostles and their Gothic framing intact. This is extremely interesting, as showing to what an extent the character of the architecture and the mingling of sculpture with the purely architectural ornament had influenced the character of painting; for sculpture, as the elder art, had had possession of the field long enough to determine the type of decoration, just as in prehistoric archæology we find the shape of stone implements determining that of the bronze which superseded them. The pictures were introduced into a painted framing just as the sculptures had been into the architectural ornamentation of the façades of the churches, and the imitated relation was carried out in the interiors. Of this, which seems to have been a rule in the early art, even carried out in the panels and altar-pieces, there is a good example in the Boston Museum, in a picture of one of the scholars of Lorenzetti, which has its original framing complete.

It may be supposed that Spinello gave his best efforts and perhaps his best art to his native city, and these two figures are certainly of the best he has left, the composition of the draperies and the pose of the figures being very fine, and all the more interesting that they are still in the purely conventional style of Giotto, which is the legitimate development of the Byzantine motive of decoration. The intervention and use of the model, either as a person or as the material of accessories, is as yet unknown, and this is a consideration which must never be lost sight of in comparing the results of ancient and modern art, whether it be Greek sculpture or mediæval painting; for it is impossible to put in the same category the work of a man who is a mere copyist of nature, and who follows the model, or makes

a cast of the drapery he wants in his picture, and then draws or paints what he sees before him, and that of the man who has the whole repertory of his art in his mind, and works from pure invention, and consequently obtains a unity and harmony in the entire creation which the worker on the modern system can never hope to obtain, and can only imitate superficially. Italian painting, from Cimabue to Masaccio, was purely ideal in the sense that it was the reproduction of mental images unaided by the use of studio properties. It would have been probably considered as sacrilege for any man (and still more so for a woman) to pose as a saint for the use of the painter of sacred subjects, just as it was in the case of Phidias, who was condemned to death for having put his portrait in one of the sacred sculptures. It is a curious coincidence that it was not till Fra Filippo—who committed the more palpable form of sacrilege in eloping with a nun—broke over the conventions of sacred art by using individual types, that the direct use of nature appears. We have orthodox painters after him; but practically Spinello is the last great painter who had been untouched by the heresy, and preserved unbroken the sacred traditions of religious art. His importance is therefore very great in the history of art.

The frescoes of Piero in Arezzo are also very important, but except one figure, a Magdalen in the Duomo, they are not to be seen at present; the Church of San Francesco, in which is the remainder, being converted into a barrack, and not accessible to the public. There are there also some frescoes of Spinello, which are involved in the same danger and the same seclusion. W. J. Stillman.

Correspondence.

UNION WITH CANADA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your remarks in to-day's *Nation* on the prematureness of Mr. Butterworth's resolutions on union with Canada lead me to express the hope that the politicians will let the question severely alone. It is not one to make capital out of, for the blindest ought to see that such action only antagonizes the object which it proposes to further. I suppose that there are few thoughtful men who do not regard the eventual extension of the Republic to the Arctic Circle as inevitable, and that there are none who desire it until it is sought by our neighbors. Until that time comes, we are better off without such addition of territory.

What renders Mr. Butterworth's action especially ill-advised is, that peaceable union with Canada will scarce be brought about in any such way as his resolutions contemplate. In all probability it will be preceded by a disintegration of the ill-assorted provinces constituting the Dominion, which are bound together by a political organization destitute of any *raison d'être* save historical accident. Self-interest will act with different attractive powers upon the different provinces, and with gradually increasing force, until first one and then another will break loose and seek incorporation with the territory to which it naturally belongs. Some years since I had an opportunity of learning something as to the popular sentiment in the Maritime Provinces, where the desire for annexation to New England seemed general. We have recently witnessed the resolute purpose of Manitoba to have free access to her natural markets to the south. Suppose the Maritime Provinces secede, and offer themselves to us, thus cutting off Quebec and Ontario from overland access to the sea; suppose their example followed by Manitoba, thus bisecting the remaining territory: what, then, is left for the isolated fragments save to make the best terms they can? Natural forces will bring all this about quite as soon as it is desirable, and meanwhile all such demonstrations as Mr. Butterworth's only aggravate the chances of rupture by irritating national pride.

Very respectfully, H. C. L.

Philadelphia, December 20, 1888.

ELECTION BRIBERY IN INDIANA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The character of the frequent comments which I have seen concerning a recent letter in the *Nation* by my colleague, Mr. R. H. Dabney, suggests the propriety of my adding a word to this discussion of bribery in elections: First, for the reason that there are those who *cannot*, as well as those who will not, believe the testimony offered by Dr. Dabney in regard to the state of things in this locality, it would seem that a corroborative statement, together with a few more or less important additions, ought to be in a measure convincing to the former; while of the latter there are a few, perhaps many, who will be more inclined to accept the witness of one born and bred a Republican in the Wooden Nutmeg State. In the second place, I write because I conceive that the duty as well as the self-interest of all honest men and women demand an earnest and entirely impartial search for and public exposition of the truth in matters political as well as industrial, social, or religious—this, in spite of the fact that, between the marked indifference or exceptional caution of one class in the community and the bitter intolerance of others, one gets but little credit for his efforts in the interest of good government through good citizenship, be he ever so honest and earnest.

In the present instance I would say that I was with Dr. Dabney for some time on election day, saw the same disgusting and, to an American citizen holding even moderately high ideals, the rather disheartening sights that he did, and feel very much as he does in regard to the whole matter. While he was voting—in Perry township—I held a brief conversation with a "worker," who proved to be a Democrat. In reply to some questions from me, he said substantially: "No, they are gaining on us a little this morning. They have more money to spend than we have. We try to be *economical* and get votes as low as we can, but they have three dollars to our one." He seemed to think that from $3 to $5 ought to be enough—that is, he was a buyer at that rate; and our conversation was twice interrupted that he might receive reports from his assistants. This gives, however, only a partial view of the direct use of money. A goodly body, perhaps the majority, of those who can be "influenced" by pecuniary considerations are not open to offers from the other party. *If they vote*, they will vote the Republican or Democratic ticket, but they are not disposed to vote at all unless the way is made easy for them. It must be paved, so to speak, or they will not exercise this sovereign right of casting a ballot. This first came to my notice two years ago, when a student, himself an ardent Republican, remarked to me on the morning following the election that the Republicans were *awfully mad* because they had to pay two dollars each to a large group of otherwise good Republicans in order to induce them to vote. The Democrats may have had a similar experience. I am not informed.

Why not convict some of the more prominent of the guilty ones in each party? Evidence ought not to be lacking, for certainly the business was conducted in a sufficiently open and high-handed manner here on November 6. One of our most ardent politicians said early in the day that he had evidence which would beyond question convict a certain notorious manipulator of Democratic votes; but he has not as yet made any use of the evidence, so far as the public generally is informed. Given an entirely proper court, it is really very difficult to bring acceptable legal proof. Take, for instance, an illustration from my own observation. About eleven o'clock I was conversing with "worker" No. 2; this time, I knew beforehand that he was a Republican. We were standing near the polling-place when a stranger came up and inquired for Mr. —— from Richland Township (I did not recognize the name). He stated that *he had made an arrangement* with Mr. —— *concerning voting* before moving from Richland, and was now anxious to see him. In less than two minutes I saw what looked to me very much like an actual payment made him there on the square by two men who were also unknown to me. This may be good circumstantial evidence, satisfactory to the individual, but hardly reliable in court.

I may say that it is not surprising to me that men should sell their votes. For a great many people the national Government is a long way off, and the local governments only known for their taxes on property, which, of course, makes them odious in proportion as taxes seem high. The lack of interest in the one and strong dislike to the other each urge the acceptance of a new suit of clothes, a barrel of flour, or a new pair of boots in exchange for one straight vote. Moreover, the moral code cannot be expected to require so-called honest voting. Is it not as right for the individual to sell his vote as for "Statesman X" or "Statesman Y" to go to the Legislature or to Congress and make laws in the interest of this railroad or that bank or the other industry? Agitators tell of how conventions are manipulated, and there are many who cannot avoid the conclusion that if manufacturers and mine-owners and railway stock gamblers do not themselves accept the honor conferred by the popular choice, they hire their attorneys to do it for them. If we are actually governed by those most heavily interested in the game, why should the individual voter take a personal interest in the question as to which of two nearly equal contestants really wins? What does the average citizen care who nominally "represents" him? The impression once abroad, surely this philosophy must become more and more widely spread, for it is not difficult to comprehend, much as it may be out of harmony with our notions of democratic government and republican institutions. Much as we may lament its prevalence—and this by some is of course grossly exaggerated—vote-buying is the necessary outcome, the invariable accompaniment, of the extensive exercise of the right of suffrage in the presence of extreme industrial inequalities. Men not equal, either in moral or social energy or the product of both, cannot be brothers in politics; whether women could be sisters is at least doubtful.

In conclusion, I will confess that I recognize the futility, the immorality even, of exposing a public evil, a social disease, unless there is a straight road along which we can see the good, and are willing to struggle towards it. But if I read the signs of the times aright, such roads are opening before us. Politically, the suffrage question is one of the legal restraints which honest men, interested solely in good government for everybody, may be able to put upon

trading politicians, or that these may be inclined to put upon each other. Morally, it is a question of impressing alike upon young and old, upon natives and foreigners, the duties and responsibilities of good citizenship in this democratic republic. There is much to encourage in both directions; but it seems to me that the chief source of danger (and hence it may be the most feasible point of attack) is the purse of those Pharisees, as Judge Gresham has called them, who supply the villains with the means of carrying on their nefarious traffic.

Very truly yours,

A. B. WOODFORD.

BLOOMINGTON, Indiana.

CANON TAYLOR AND THE SPREAD OF CHRISTIANITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation* has the reputation of being willing to grant a hearing to both sides upon any question, and therefore I trust that what I have to say may find a place in your columns. In the issue of December 13 (p. 479) you say: "In the interest of those who give, and especially of those who give mistakenly, cannot a similar study to that of Canon Taylor in the October and November *Fortnightly Review* be undertaken in regard to the management, operations, and results of the various American Missionary Societies, by some one who is interested and yet not prejudiced?" This sentence assumes that Canon Taylor's work is that of an unprejudiced observer, and is to be trusted. It is well to remember that there is a prejudice of negation as well as of affirmation. Canon Taylor made the statement that for every additional Christian in Asia and Africa there are one hundred and eighty-three additional heathen and Moslems, and that "it would take all the agencies put together [including the Catholics] sixty-four years to overtake the increase of the non-Christian people in a single year." It does not take much insight to see the fallaciousness of such reasoning. It is something like the old riddle of the dog chasing the squirrel around the tree. The squirrel always keeps ahead of the dog: how can the latter go around him? In the days of early Christianity the increase of those who were not Christians in the Roman Empire must have been fully as great if not greater proportionately than the increase of which Canon Taylor speaks; and yet Christianity conquered the Roman empire. Statistics have no value, and are very deceptive in estimating the progress of great movements, unless they are comparative. Canon Taylor overlooks the fact, also, that there must be years of preparation before the years of ingathering on the missionary fields can come. We must not forget that in Japan, at the end of five years' work, only one Japanese had been baptized; at the end of twelve years, only ten. But during the next seventeen years, down to 1886, the Christians increased more than one thousand-fold. A short chapter in the history of the American Board concerning the closing of high-schools on the mission fields, and its effect on the work, will also teach the value of civilizing agencies as instruments of Christianization.

But I do not wish to answer Canon Taylor's statements by words of my own. Two witnesses of great authority have spoken during the past year as to the value and progress of missionary work in India—one of them, Sir Charles Aitchison, late Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab, in an address at Simla, India,* in June, and the other Sir William Hunter, for twenty-five years a high official in the English service in India, in an address before the Society of Arts in London, February 24,* and also in an article in the *Nineteenth Century* of July. The former says:

"One of the most hopeful results of mission work is the lesson which is silently infusing, through native society and vernacular literature, ideas of integrity, honor, philanthropy, truth, purity, and holiness, that are distinctively Christian. In every movement for the welfare of the people, too, Christian missionaries have led the van. . . . In a thousand ways preparation is being made for the coming of the kingdom, and the blessed influences of gospel teaching and preaching are manifest to all who have eyes to see."

Sir William Hunter adds words like these:

"To a man like myself who, during a quarter of a century, has watched the missionaries actually at their work, the statistics of conversions seem to form but a small part of the evidence. . . . I know of no class of Englishmen who have done so much to awaken the Indian intellect, and at the same time to lessen the dangers of transition from the old state of things to the new. . . . The careless onlooker may have no particular convictions on the subject, and flippant persons may ridicule religious effort in India as elsewhere. But I think that few Indian administrators have passed through high office, and had to deal with the ultimate problems of British government in that country, without feeling the value of the work done by the missionaries. Such men gradually realize, as I have realized, that the missionaries do really represent the spiritual side of the new civilization and of the new life which we are introducing into India. . . . The opinion of a Viceroy like Lord Northbrook, or of a clear-headed administrator like Robert Cust, on the actual value of Indian missionary work is beyond suspicion. Such men range themselves unhesitatingly, as at the late International Conference, on the side of the missionaries."

But these men do not merely state their own observations: they also give official statistics as to the growth of Christianity in India, and these figures agree on one result. Sir William Hunter's statistics show that the Christian population of India from 1872 to 1881 increased at the rate of 30 per cent., and the total population at the rate of only 8 per cent. In the province of Bengal, which contains one-third of the population of India, "the general population increased in the nine years preceding 1881 at the rate of 10.89 per cent., the Mohammedans at the rate of 10.96 per cent., the Hindus at some undetermined rate below 13 64 per cent., the Christians of all races at the rate of 40.71 per cent., and the native Christians at the rate of 64.07 per cent." Sir Charles Aitchison sums up the whole matter when he says:

"It may surprise some who have not had an opportunity of looking into the matter to learn that Christianity is spreading four or five times as fast as the native population, and that the native Christians now number nearly a million of souls. . . . How is it that, turn where we will, north or south, east or west, in our oldest provinces or in our more recently acquired possessions, we find the Christian community spreading at a rate unknown since the apostolic times? You and I know the true explanation: it is the breath of the Spirit of the Lord. . . . The gospel message has not lost its power."

Perhaps if some one "interested and yet not prejudiced" would study deeply into the facts of the missionary work in Turkey, and especially into the facts of the work of the American missionaries throughout the world, which is spoken of in such high terms by foreign travellers, some of the facts which these eminent Indian officials have set forth might be found to be paralleled.

EDWARD S. PARSONS.

GREELEY, COLORADO.

* *Missionary Herald*, October, 1888.

* *Missionary Herald*, May, 1888.

Notes.

OUR readers already know something of the great enterprise for which Mr. B. F. Stevens of London lately asked, through Secretary Bayard, the support of Congress. Congress having adjourned without heeding either the application or its hearty endorsement by the State Department and by our learned societies, Mr. Stevens lays aside for the moment the thought of publishing his Indexes to the American historical manuscripts in the European archives (on which he says he is still vigorously engaged), and solicits subscriptions for what he calls his Transcripts. He purposes publishing facsimiles of the papers in question, carefully selected for their importance to American history, and accompanied (as we judge from a sample) by a fair copy in our modern hand with the needful description of each paper. These will be of a uniform foolscap size, and the price asked will include a box-cover for the "volume" of documents (say 500 pages to the volume). The price is $25 each, or, what is preferred, $100 for five volumes as an initial subscription, with the privilege of continuing at $20, and discontinuing whenever sated. A hundred subscribers will put the enterprise in motion; a few more will make it profitable. We can hardly doubt that the libraries and historical societies of this country will furnish that number; but we may drop a hint to men having plenty of money, that the obscurest of the small public libraries dotted over the country can, by the gift of a "volume," or for $100, be placed *pro tanto* on a par with the archives themselves as a source of original investigation by students. Mr. Stevens's address is 4 Trafalgar Square, London, W. C.

Under the title of 'Oude Kunst in Nederland,' a collection of etchings by W. Steelink, after notable paintings by the old Dutch masters in private galleries, is to be published in thirty parts (Amsterdam: T. Van Holkema; New York: F. W. Christern). The accompanying text will be furnished by J. F. Van Someren, assistant librarian in the University Library at Amsterdam. The form will be that of Arendzen's 'Moderne Kunst in Nederland.' There will be the usual variety of impressions—artist's proofs on Japanese paper, proofs before letter, etc.

The exceptional character of the past twelvemonth as regards sovereigns is shown by the portraits in the new *Almanach de Gotha* for 1889 (New York: B. Westermann & Co.). Usually four, they are now six—President Sadi-Carnot being one, the Crown Prince of Italy another, and the rest being all German—the late Emperor Frederick and his wife, and the present Emperor and Empress. But, as the editors remark, the change of President in France has caused them more trouble in recording the displacement of office-holders than the death of two Emperors across the Rhine. Otherwise, they call attention mainly to the army and navy statistics as showing the tendency of Europe at this moment. We need say nothing more of this latest issue of a time-honored authority, but our eye chances to fall on an error on p. 522, by which Senator Sherman is set down as Vice-President of the United States. This was done, of course, in virtue of his former Presidency of the Senate—a post he no longer holds; and meanwhile a new statute of Presidential succession makes Mr. Bayard, as Secretary of State, the heir-expectant.

For the third time, M. Jules Lemaitre has gathered into a volume a selection from his weekly *feuilletons* in the *Journal des Débats*; and this third series of 'Impressions de Théâ-

tre' (Paris: Lecène & Oudin; New York: F. W. Christern) is quite as interesting and quite as amusing as its predecessors. M. Lemaitre, although he has not the profound and intimate knowledge of the stage and of the principles of dramatic art which is M. Sarcey's chief characteristic, resembles the latter in having a great fondness for the theatre, and in bringing to dramatic criticism a mind at once learned and original. His 'Impressions' are very "personal," as the French say; that is, they are his own. He looks at the stage with his own eyes, and not through the opera-glass of his neighbor or the spectacles of tradition. His playful wit and his frequent satire serve only to set off his solid understanding. His analysis here of M. Georges Ohnet's "La Grande Marnière" is a masterpiece of irony; and it is not a mere repetition of the crushing discussion of M. Ohnet's popularity to be found in the first series of his 'Contemporains.' Among the best criticisms in the present volume are those on the "Œdipus" of Sophocles, the "Polyeucte" of Corneille, the "Misanthrope" of Molière, and the "Mariage de Figaro" of Beaumarchais.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, issue an interesting little volume on 'Cousin,' by Jules Simon, translated by M. B. and E. P. Anderson. It depicts with considerable force the philosophy and the man who, in 1828, electrified French audiences with the idealism of Schilling and Hegel in the reaction against the materialism of Condillac and Baron d'Holbach. There are some good reflections on Cousin's political views. For technical students the work has no value—the latter part of it especially is fragmentary and "phrasy"; but for the general reader it has merits, because Cousin, who had suffered for philosophy, is a very interesting man in a very interesting period; and Jules Simon, himself no ordinary man, has looked at his master through the medium of the present day.

The characteristic fault of 'A Brief History of Greek Philosophy,' by B. C. Burt (Boston: Ginn & Co.) is that it is too meagre for the student and unnecessary for the teacher. The author is at least half conscious of this when he apologizes for writing a mere history, by saying that the problems of philosophy are in a large measure always the same, and that Greek solutions of them have a value not possessed by others, because of their originality and freshness. This is true enough; but to imply that they are still problems makes their history much less important than their solution. The great want of philosophy at present is some earnest effort to solve these problems. Even as a text-book the work is defective, because it is almost exclusively narrative, with little or no attempt at philosophic construction or systematic interpretation.

We have neglected mention in its proper place and time of the new edition of Mrs. Helen Campbell's 'American Girl's Home Book of Work and Play'—a lineal descendant of Mrs. Lydia Maria Child's 'Girl's Own Book.' It embraces a great variety of themes, from dolls' furniture to lawn tennis, swimming, wax flowers, wood-carving, and now—by the addition of two chapters—homemade candy and broken-china tiles. The book is freely illustrated and has undoubted utility.

That rival of Niagara, the great Falls of the Snake River, is the subject, together with "other Western wonders," of 'Shoshone,' an unconventional guide-book by Edwards Roberts (Harpers). Americans are used to making plans long in advance for their summer pleasuring, and hence the present season is a good time for making a trip with Mr. Roberts on paper. Mr. Charles Francis Adams furnishes a preface by way of endorsement, and bids the tourist in search of uncivilized nature to hurry up. He points to the prophecy of a companion of Mr. Parkman's at Pike's Peak, when on "the Oregon trail" forty years ago, about the future settlement of the region, and to its overfulfilment—if we may use the word. Mr. Adams ventures on one of his own about a great hotel at Henry's Lake in Idaho, and a frequenting like that witnessed by the White Mountains or the Catskills. This little book is pleasingly illustrated. The Yellowstone Park is within its scope.

We have received a new edition, the third, of the 'New York Charities Directory'—"a descriptive catalogue and alphabetical analysis," published by the Charity Organization Society of this city.

The *Andover Review* announces, among other topics for forthcoming papers in 1889, "Socialism in its Present Aspects," "Religious Instruction in Common Schools and in Colleges," and "Is the West becoming secularized?" (by the Rev. Dr. J. T. Duryea.)

Kneass's *Philadelphia Magazine for the Blind*, now in its twenty-second year, and *Music Journal for the Blind*, now in its thirteenth year, make appeal for an endowment fund to give them stability and a wider circulation. The publisher may be addressed at No. 219 Church Street, Philadelphia.

The principal paper in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for December is Sir Wm. W. Hunter's suggestive address on the "Historical Aspects of Indian Geography." He first draws attention to the influence of the overwhelming forces of nature upon the native of India, giving form to his mythology, shaping his history, and above all developing his gregarious instinct from his conscious inability to "stand alone against nature." From this cause sprang the "many sorts and degrees of mutual insurance, from a joint responsibility for keeping up the continuous embankments against the river, or for maintaining the common reservoir or irrigation lake, to a joint liability for the revenue or even a joint distribution of the crops." He adds that, under the protection of the British rule, the villager grows more self-reliant and less anxious about his individual risks. "One of the strongest solvents of corporate village rights in India," he remarks, "has been found to be canal water." After rapidly reviewing the sources of Indian history and the work of the various scientific surveys of the English Government, the Trigonometrical with its 3,472 stations, the Geological, Botanical, and Statistical, the results of the latter contained in 128 volumes of 60,000 printed pages, he sketches the four seats of ancient Indian civilization, in the deltas of the Ganges, the Indus and the southeastern rivers, and in the north in the upper valleys of the Ganges. In conclusion he answers the question: "Will there ever be a united India?" by saying that he does not look forward to an India which will be a single State, but "to an India firmly knit together into a great empire."

—In the history of the legal profession there can be but few cases, recorded or unrecorded, of continuous practice for sixty-seven years, or nearly the proverbial term of the life of man. Such could have been the boast of the late Samuel Edmund Sewall, who died in Boston on Thursday, having completed last month the eighty-ninth year of his age. That great ancestor of his, Judge Samuel Sewall, who died about a century and a half ago, lived to be seventy-eight, and, bequeathing the sinews of longevity and an aptitude for the law, bequeathed also, as the author of that early anti-slavery tract, 'The Selling of Joseph,' those humane and tender instincts which made the subject of this notice an indefatigable opponent of American slavery. Mr. Sewall was born in Boston November 9, 1799, graduated at Harvard College in the distinguished class of 1817—George Bancroft and Caleb Cushing being among his classmates; entered the first class at the Harvard Law School, and graduated in 1820—being at the time of his death the oldest surviving graduate of the School; and was admitted to the bar in the next year. He had been practising for ten years when William Lloyd Garrison, just released from the Baltimore jail, came to Boston and delivered a lecture "to vindicate the rights of two millions of American citizens who are now groaning in servile chains in this boasted land of liberty; and also to propose just, benevolent, and constitutional measures for their relief." Mr. Sewall, in company with his cousin and classmate, the late Samuel Joseph May, attended this unpatronized lecture, and were instantly overcome by the force of argument and the personality of the speaker, and enlisted among his life-long friends. It was in Mr. Sewall's office that the meetings were held in November, 1831, which resulted in the organization of the first society avowing its aim to be immediate emancipation. Though scruples kept him from being one of the actual twelve founders of the Massachusetts Anti-Slavery Society, he quickly became one of the board of managers, and was fully identified with the "Garrisonian abolitionists." His benefactions to the *Liberator* and its editor kept that paper alive in its first struggle for existence, and were never afterwards withheld. When in 1839 the agitation for a political anti-slavery party, subsequently known as the Liberty party, began, Mr. Sewall took a warm interest in it, notwithstanding its antagonism to some of his old associates, and he passed through all the phases of the same movement under different names, casting his vote and being voted for (as a candidate for Governor), and all the time coöperating with the abolitionists and maintaining the most friendly relations with Mr. Garrison. In the midst of the current idolatry of the Republican party, it is significant that Mr. Sewall was not too old to give his public adhesion to the cause of reform as impersonated in Mr. Cleveland, both in 1884 and in 1888.

—Mr. Sewall's legal activity was exerted for two public ends of lasting importance. He was, in company with the late Ellis Gray Loring, counsel in the famous Med case, which led to the judicial decision that slaves brought voluntarily to Massachusetts by their owners were free. The *fugitive* slave was equally the object of his gratuitous services, and no man did more than he to promote legislation intended to prevent the kidnapping of freemen and to hinder the recapture of fugitives in Massachusetts—the so-called Personal Liberty laws, which South Carolina put in the forefront of her grounds of secession in 1860. Long before this occupation was taken away from him, Mr. Sewall effectively busied himself with the amelioration of the laws affecting the rights of women (including the suffrage). The very last session of the Legislature was a witness of his efforts at improvement in this direction in a number of minor details. In 1868 he published a treatise on 'The Legal Condition of Women in Massachusetts,' which has passed through several editions. With

all this conspicuity before the public (he was elected a State Senator in 1852), Mr. Sewall was one of the most modest and retiring of men; and those who saw his pale, intellectual face, white locks, and frail figure could not suspect the fire, elasticity, and persistency which lurked beneath. His liberality to all good causes was incessant, and it may be said that no nobler Bostonian has died within the present century. He was twice married, and leaves a widow and two daughters, with a posterity which may yet prolong the strain if not the name of Sewall.

—The provinces of Southern Italy are at present engaged in an effort to place the ancient University of Naples upon an equality, so far as material equipment goes, with its northern sisters. Founded in the first half of the thirteenth century by the Emperor Frederick II., its first professors were members of the Dominican and Franciscan orders, and a little later it numbered among them the learned Thomas Aquinas. At that time the lectures were delivered in the old Dominican Monastery, where the cell of the Angelic Doctor is still pointed out to visitors, and a marble tablet records that the famous theologian received as his salary an ounce of gold monthly. In 1780 the University was reconstituted, and is now composed of the five faculties of philosophy, law, mathemathics, natural science, and medicine, and the number of students in attendance is about four thousand. The present building was erected in 1557 as a Jesuit college, and, though large, by no means affords adequate accommodation for the present needs of the University. It is situated, too, in a narrow, gloomy street of the old city, and presents more the appearance of a prison than an institution of learning. The plan now proposed is to sell the old buildings, which are estimated to be worth eleven million lire, and to this five million lire are to be added by contributions from the southern provinces and the central Government. With this sum it is intended to erect and equip sixteen new buildings. One of these, to be known as the University Palace, will provide quarters for the rector and the offices of administration, and will also be the home of the faculties of philosophy and law; another will be shared by the library and the chemical department, while a third will contain the natural-history and medical museums, with suitable lecture halls, and others will be given up to the departments of mathematics, botany, pharmacy, etc. The new buildings will be situated on the high ground in the new quarter of the city near the present Botanic Garden, and are expected to be completed in about ten years.

—One of the most ancient works of fiction that have come down to us, if not the very oldest, is the Egyptian story known under the title of 'The Tale of the Two Brothers.' First described at length, and in part rendered into English by C. W. Goodwin in the last one of the "Cambridge Essays" for 1858, it owes its wide reputation to-day to the complete translation contributed by P. Le Page Renouf to the second volume of 'Records of the Past.' Though simple, or even childish, in conception, yet no more so than we should naturally expect of such high antiquity, this little romance at once became famous again for the insight it affords us into Egyptian life and notions at the very period of the Hebrew bondage and exodus, and for some remarkable parallelisms—in the Bible, to the story of Joseph and Potiphar's wife, also to the creation of Eve (or, in classical legend, to the fashioning of the fair Pandora, endowed with all the gifts of the gods); and in late Egyptian mythology, to the fable of Rhodope and her Cinderella-like slipper. Its hieratic original is called the "D'Orbiney Papyrus," from the fact of its having been acquired from Madam d' Orbiney, an English lady in whose possession it had been during many years previous, by the Trustees of the British Museum in the year 1857. Being very clearly written, and admitting of easy understanding except in a few passages, Mr. Wm. N. Groff, an American student of Egyptology in Paris under MM. Grébaut and Guieysse, has brought out an edition (Paris: E. Leroux) designed to aid *débutants* in the study of the ancient Egyptian language, styling it an "Étude." On the one side, the left-hand page, he presents a transcription of the text, and on the other, the right-hand page, he gives a translation in French interlined with references to authorities, supplementing both of these by explanatory notes and a complete vocabulary of the words occurring in the papyrus. In so doing he has placed at the service of others the text-book and the instruction he himself has enjoyed at the École des Hautes Études—a service that will be still more available to beginners in the Egyptian language with us when an English edition shall have appeared. The present work, being a compilation as Mr. Groff acknowledges, has allowed its author no opportunity for original work, and so presents no result new to its science, as was the case in his recent Memoir upon 'Jakob-el and Joseph-el, or the Tribes of Jacob and Joseph,' which, since the moment of its issue, has not ceased to provoke comment, even though it has gained for its proposal only limited acceptance.

—To the linguistic families of America which were explored at an early day belongs the Carib group, spoken in dialects almost innumerable along the northern coast of South America, and to the eastward about as far as the mouth of the Marañon. The extinct historic and the extant dialects are difficult to classify on account of their multitude and ever shifting habitats, and new dialects of this stock are being discovered even in our epoch. Many Indians speaking these dialects are distinguished from other American natives by their complexion, which approaches nearer to the color of metallic copper than that of any other Indians. The grammars and dictionaries of the earlier missionaries settled upon the coast have been long out of print, and Dr. Julius Platzmann has therefore thought it advisable to reprint them. His beautiful facsimile editions have just been sent abroad by his customary publisher, B. G. Teubner, and amount to five large octavo volumes. They are as follows: Fr. de Tauste, 'Arte, vocabulario, doctrina cristiana y catecismo de la lengua de Cumaná;' M. de Yangues, 'Principios y reglas de la lengua cumanagota, con un diccionario;' Matias Ruiz Blanco, 'Arte y tesoro de la lengua cumanagota;' Diego de Tapia, 'Confesionarios en lengua cumanagota: (1) mas lato (2) mas breve.' Each of these two fill a whole fascicle of about 220 pages, and, as will be seen from the above titles, three grammars and as many vocabularies are contained in the first three volumes. Moreover, the dictionary of Fray Blanco is arranged etymologically in such a manner as to serve as a powerful help to any linguist wishing to compose a grammar of the coast dialects in the modern scientific way. Blanco was a missionary among the Piritú Indians, and in his volume he treats of their language more especially. The manual of De Tauste was first published in Madrid in 1680, that of De Yangues in Burgos in 1683. The Chayma Indians appear to have spoken a dialect identical with that heard at Cumaná during the seventeenth century, and the large majority of the syllables within the word end in vowels, whereas many final syllables have -n, -t, -r and other consonants as their terminal sounds. Of the closely related dialects of the Carib group, the Tamanaco was formerly spoken on the banks of the Orinoco River, at the Encaramada mission, whereas the Cumanagotas lived in and around the present seaport of Cumaná, and the Chaymas on the rivers Guarapiche, Areo, and Caripe, in the province of Cumaná.

—An eclipse of the sun will exhibit the phase of total obscuration in parts of the northwestern United States on the afternoon of January 1. This important phase lasts nearly two minutes in Northern California, and, as it occurs before two o'clock, the sun is at an altitude very favorable for delicate observation. The area within which the total eclipse may be seen is nearly one hundred miles broad, northerly and southerly; and this shadow-track, as the astronomer terms it, extends easterly, at the same time veering towards the north, thus traversing parts of Nevada, Idaho, the Yellowstone Park, and Montana. Weather probabilities in this tract are not encouraging to the eclipse observer. Having regard for considerations astronomical and geographical, the best stations are in California, not far from the coast; but while there is chance of little but fogs and cloud there, further to the east the prospect is more hopeful, though by no means ideal. In the general area to the north of Sacramento, meteorological averages make cloudy skies somewhat more likely than clear ones, while in the favored region of Nevada it would seem to be about an even chance whether the eclipse can be observed or not. Many years have elapsed of late without large astronomical results from solar eclipses; and instruments and observers have thus a fine representation in the field, for the most part in California. No foreign astronomers have yet appeared, but American observatories are well represented. Chief among them is that of Harvard University, located at Willow, California, nearly two hundred miles north of San Francisco, at an elevation of about 2,000 feet above sea level. Mr. W. H. Pickering is in charge, and the variety of complex apparatus for eclipse work has probably never been equalled. Many novel devices will be brought into operation, among them a quadruplex photographic spectroscope for determining the nature and constitution of the solar atmospheres and appendages. A 13-inch photographic telescope will picture the sun's corona on a scale never before tried with success. A special 8-inch lens will be used to photograph the stellar regions about the eclipsed sun, in the hope of getting the outlying streamers of the solar corona, and of affording new light on the existence or non-existence of supposed intra-Mercurial planets. While the spectroscopes have been so arranged as to photograph the lines in every part of the spectrum of the corona, and with a completeness unsurpassed, the preparations for photometry of this mysterious object are almost equally full. With clear skies, the extended capabilities of the apparatus will in large measure make up for the rather short duration of the total phase. No telescopes whatever will be used in ocular observations.

—Most unfortunately, the bulk of the Harvard apparatus is necessarily at a single station; local cloud may thus cause nearly entire defeat. Other parties are in the field, with equipments of more or less significance. Professor Swift, the comet astronomer of Rochester, will attempt to verify his supposed discoveries of

intra-Mercurial planets in 1878. Professor Upton of Brown University and Mr. Rotch will undertake the prosecution of important research, mainly meteorological, on much the same plans they were thwarted in executing in Russia a year or two ago. Mr. Keeler of the Lick Observatory, nearer the Pacific Coast than any of the foregoing, will employ a six-inch telescope with spectroscope attached, for investigating the diffraction theory of the sun's corona. Mr. Barnard of the same institution will photograph the corona with ample apparatus. Other members of the Observatory staff remain on Mount Hamilton, where the eclipse is not total, to observe such phenomena as may be seen there. California parties will visit the eclipse-track with apparatus of varying capability, and glean much in the way of precise record of the phenomena of lesser interest. Professor Young, eclipse observer for a score of years, will be unable to see this eclipse. Mr. Brashear of Pittsburg goes out with special means for research into Hastings's theory of the corona. The opportunity of intelligent residents along the shadow-path will not be lost to science. Operating under the auspices of the National Academy of Sciences, and on a plan similar to that successfully carried out on previous eclipses, Professor Todd has prepared a series of instructions for simple observations of the eclipse, which is expected to bring in results of importance. Detailed directions are given for sketching the sun's corona in whole or in part, and for seeing the zodiacal streamers discovered by Langley and Newcomb in 1878, but never seen since, though looked for by Norman Lockyer in 1886, and regarded by him as of the first significance. Certain geometric observations of value are also included. The instructions have been amply distributed at every available point along the line of totality, from the Pacific to Manitoba; so that, while the astronomers themselves may be in part unsuccessful through clouds at individual stations, the entire area of total eclipse is not likely to be hidden from the sun completely, and everything thus be lost.

THE ENCYCLOPÆDIA BRITANNICA.

The issue of the twenty-fourth volume of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons) brings to practical completion this monumental work. It may safely be said that no other publication in the English language of the present century has had enlisted in its behalf such varied and eminent talent as is enrolled among the list of contributors to the ninth edition—talent borrowed not only from the mother country, but also from France, Germany, Italy, Russia, and America; and it may be equally safe to venture the assertion that no such combination of intellectual strength will again be found until the preparation of a new edition of the same work. Sixteen years or thereabouts have now intervened since the inception of the enterprise, a period that carries us back almost to the foundation of the present German Empire, and to within seven years of the close of our own civil war. Since that time four Emperors—Napoleon III., Alexander II., William I., and Frederick the Noble—and two Kings of first-class Powers—Italy and Spain—have followed in the footsteps of their forefathers; one monarchy—Turkey—has been all but theoretically effaced from existence, while three petty kingdoms—Servia, Rumania, and Bulgaria—have been launched into the foreground of history. We mention these facts merely to point out what compass of changes may be involved in the space of only a few years, and to indicate the disadvantages which must necessarily follow such a protracted publication.

The 'Britannica,' while eminently useful, is in reality a combination of an old book and a new book, and it must be said it is more old than new. The reader who turns to the article "Africa," in the first volume, and finds there but a bare mention of Stanley's first explorations, and no mention whatever of his famous march across the "dark continent" in 1874-77, nor of the labors and researches of Oscar Lenz, Holub, and De Brazza, may reasonably ask himself if he is consulting the latest edition of a cyclopædia only just completed. He will probably be equally startled at finding, under "Botany" (vol. iv), no reference to the now classical labors of the late M. De Bary, and by the statement in "Chemistry" (vol. v) that oxygen and hydrogen have thus far resisted all attempts at condensation and liquefaction. But it is, after all, the time-honored custom of omitting the biographies of living people which gives the flavor of antiquity to the 'Britannica.' History without our contemporaries is only half-history; and it seems ludicrous, to say the least, that a work which aims at comparative completeness in presenting the intellectual activity of the world, should bar out the very men whose deeds, in one form or another, attract the greatest amount of general attention. To present history without Bismarck, Moltke, Grant, Beaconsfield, Gladstone, Kossuth, and Garibaldi, or Darwin, Huxley, Tyndall, and Spencer, or Carlyle, Tennyson, Arnold, and Hugo, is a task which lies well beyond the abilities of the editor-in-chief and his assisting corps of editors. True, it is argued that the deficiencies arising from such omissions may in a measure be made good by expanding details in the special fields of activity with which our contemporaries are associated; but this has not been done in the case of the 'Britannica.' We have already had occasion to point out, for example, that the name of Moltke does not occur a single time in either the articles "Germany" or "France," and that the name of Tyndall is similarly missed from "Heat" and "Light." Gambetta, if we mistake not, receives but a single mention in the article "Germany," and he is barely less summarily disposed of under "France." The eventful career of Jules Favre, extending over a period of half a century, is permitted only a single mention in French history, and that in connection with his participation in the Government of National Defence in 1870. The biographer of George Henry Lewes finds no word for George Eliot, who consequently drops from vision entirely; nor can recourse be had to the article "English Literature," since that production ceases with the epoch of Walter Scott. Huxley, who has for a full quarter of a century held a foremost place among the naturalists of our day, and who has probably done more to further the "new biology" than any other person, with the exception of Darwin himself, is given hardly more than passing mention in the rather elaborate article "Zoölogy"; nor do we find, either here or under "Vertebrata" (both from the pen of Prof. Ray Lankester), the name of a single American naturalist or anatomist, if we except a simple allusion to the younger Agassiz. These are serious omissions, and they limit materially the general usefulness of the work. It is to be hoped that in succeeding editions the purely personal considerations which appear to have actuated both editors and publishers in pursuing the narrow course which they have chosen, will be abandoned in favor of a more intelligent method.

The volume before us, like its predecessors, shows a goodly array of strong articles, but most of them belong to the departments of natural and physical science. Among these we may enumerate "Variation and Selection," by Prof. Geddes, "Vascular System," by Prof. M'Kendrick, "Vegetable Kingdom," by Prof. Sydney Vines, "Ventilation," by Prof. Ewing, "Veterinary Science," by George Fleming, and "Vertebrata" and "Zoölogy," by Prof. Lankester. Profs. Flower and Newton continue, as heretofore, the minor and usually admirable notices in mammalogy and ornithology. The *pièce de résistance* of the volume is the article on "Wave Theory of Light," an essentially mathematical dissertation by the present Professor of Physics in the Royal Institution of Great Britain, Lord Rayleigh, from which the reader will learn that the modern conception of light-propagation, which is so neatly and clearly delineated in school text-books, has still about it much that is vague and incomprehensible to the learned specialist. We have already referred to certain anomalies in the, on the whole, able article on Zoölogy by Prof. Lankester—the omission of the labors of many of the foremost naturalists of the age; but they will scarcely surprise those who know what importance the author attaches to his own labors, and the low estimate in which he holds the labors of those who have ventured to differ largely from him. They will be prepared for the observation that "great accuracy in work, as well as great abundance of production, has only distinguished one among all the great names of zoölogy—that of Johann Müller." Prof. Lankester dissents from the notion which traces back the ancestral forms of the true vertebrates to the tunicates, inclining rather in the direction of the nemertean worms; and he likewise opposes the contention of Dohrn and others, that metameric segmentation indicates special affinity among the different animal groups in which it is developed. The article "Vaccination," by Dr. Charles Creighton, is largely an elaborate statistical review tending to prove the negative results of inoculation, or, at any rate, intended to question the positive results that have very generally been claimed. The data presented are certainly abundant and sufficiently reliable, and if they are not held to be conclusive in determining an important question, they are yet of a character that forbids their being passed over in silence. Want of space prevents us from entering into an analysis of the figures presented, but it may be interesting to note, as bearing upon the supposed special efficacy of re-vaccination, that the statistics culled from the civil and military population of the German Empire seem clearly to indicate an increase in the death-rate more or less proportional to the amount of re-vaccination. It would be important to have these data verified, and supplemented by others coming from a possibly less partial source.

The geographical and historical articles of the volume are in the main unimportant, and the same is also largely true of the biographical notices. Altogether, the volume shows distinct traces of crowding, abbreviation, and elimination, manifestly with the desire of closing off the work. Thus, the wholly inadequate article "West Indies," with a historical survey terminating practically with the year 1660, has but two and a half pages devoted to it, or less type-material than is crowded into the article "Westmoreland." The subject of volcanoes is dismissed with a mere reference to "Geology," and we thus fail to find notice of two of the most remarkable eruptions of which we have record—those of the Sandwich Islands of 1886, and of Krakatao in 1883, the latter considered to represent the greatest paroxysm

in nature of which history has rendered account. The White Mountains of New Hampshire are wholly wanting; nor do we find even a reference for Yorktown, Va. Less than one page is permitted to Germany's late ruler, William I.—although six pages are still considered necessary for Wellington—while the Williams of the Netherlands, apart from the dates of birth and death, are referred wholly to "Holland." And even the famous Xerxes of old, barring such history as is contained in the articles "Persia" and "Greece," is limited to three lines, although the various Artaxerxeses are allotted upwards of two pages in vol. ii. No room seems to have been considered necessary for Joseph Warren and Anthony Wayne of Revolutionary fame, and none either for Eli Whitney, the inventor of the cotton-gin, or for our distinguished anatomist, the late Jeffries Wyman.

In turning over the pages of this in many ways remarkable work, one is constrained to ask, For whom were these pages prepared? The inspection of such articles as "Wave Theory," "Mollusca," "Light," and "Geography," where frequently for entire pages the meaning of no two consecutive lines can be comprehended by the average college graduate, not to say the ordinary reader, clearly indicates that the work is intended largely for specialists, and, it might be said, for specialists in science; but, on the other hand, the character of the geographical and historical articles fails to bear out the high standard which is imposed upon the work by the scientific ones, and this is equally true of a large number of essentially trivial biographical sketches and notices of unimportant geographical localities with which the pages are interspersed. The want of even an approximately thorough revision, and the numerous deficiencies, likewise tend towards the less elevated side of the balance. The 'Britannica' is, in short, a highly valuable undigested work for scholars.

VISCOUNT STRATFORD DE REDCLIFFE.

The Life of the Right Hon. Stratford Canning, Viscount Stratford de Redcliffe. By Stanley Lane-Poole. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. 1888.

The attention of competitive examiners and other persons engaged in the devising of educational torments for the rising generation ought to be directed to Mr. Stanley Lane-Poole's 'Life of Lord Stratford de Redcliffe.' It would afford an admirable criterion for testing the toughness and endurance of a student. Any one who can read through this truly formidable work without having recourse to the demoralizing practice of "skipping," may congratulate himself on an achievement hardly less laborious than the building of the Great Pyramid. The two volumes contain one thousand pages of closely printed matter; and a biography running to this inordinate length, unless of quite exceptional interest and importance, could hardly fail to become heavy and unreadable. Neither in the career nor in the character of Lord Stratford de Redcliffe was there anything to justify this excessive prolixity. The large space which at one period of his life he filled in the public eye, was due to circumstances, rather than to any intellectual eminence in the man himself.

But independently of this want of interest in his hero, Mr. Lane-Poole has added to the heaviness of his book in another way. Lord Stratford de Redcliffe was, all his life, a diplomatist. Now, the life of a diplomatist is often interesting by reason of the men and things that he has seen; it never can be interesting in virtue of what he has done. Indeed, a diplomatist can hardly be said to "do" anything at all: he ought rather to be described as a professional card-player on a great scale. The "hands" which he has to play are not of his own making—they are dealt out to him; and all that is left for him to do is the display of more or less *finesse* in the winning of "tricks." These successes affect the course of human history about as much as the dykes which children build on the seashore affect the action of the tides. The consequence is, that there is probably no reading so wearisome and unprofitable as the minutiæ of diplomatic conflicts which occurred a generation or half a century ago. The ultimate result may possibly retain some significance still; but the moves which led up to it—who won this trick, who lost that, and so on—are as devoid of interest to all sane people as the particulars of a game of whist played in the days of our great-grandfathers. Regardless of this, Mr. Stanley Lane-Poole has drawn out with laborious minuteness the details of his hero's diplomatic labors, dating from a period as far back as the beginning of the present century. Intrigues long ago forgotten—Russian, French, Turkish—are recovered, so to speak, from the dust of the ages and galvanized into a semblance of life. It is only a biographer filled with a fine enthusiasm for his subject who is capable of feeling an interest in these attenuated shadows of what were hardly more than shadows in their most vigorous period of existence. Readers generally will be content with a timid glance at these early records, and hurry on to that later period when Lord Stratford de Redcliffe had won a name for himself as "the great Elchi." It is upon the judgment formed of his acts and policy at this crisis of his career that his position in the history of Great Britain will depend. Mr. Stanley Lane-Poole desires to have him regarded as a great and far-seeing statesman. We hold an opposite opinion; and that judgment has been confirmed, rather than shaken, by the eloquent eulogy of his biographer.

Very sudden and unaccountable is the genesis and rapid development of Russophobia in England. It clearly did not exist during the Napoleonic wars, for at that time the Russian Czar Alexander was a supremely popular person in Great Britain. At the battle of Navarino, a Russian squadron actually assisted the French and British ships in the destruction of the Turkish fleet; and in 1828, when the Czar Nicholas invaded European Turkey and forced the Porte to sign the Treaty of Adrianople, although Russian policy was disliked and distrusted in England, there were no indications of that half-frenzied feeling of fear and antipathy which nowadays finds expression in the press whenever half-a-dozen Cossacks are seen moving in the direction of India. Later on, when Mehemet Ali was overrunning Syria, a Russian army, 30,000 strong, was actually encamped in the immediate neighborhood of Constantinople; and so little impression did this appalling spectacle produce upon the British mind that few Englishmen are aware that it ever occurred. Russophobia dates from the Crimean war. It was about this time that the French ceased to be regarded as "our natural enemies," and the Russians, to all seeming, entered in and took possession of the vacant space. The totally unaccountable fact is that, simultaneously with this national antipathy of Russian policy, arose the conviction that it was imperative, in the interests of Great Britain, that Constantinople should not pass into the power of Russia.

In what respect Great Britain is specially interested in the status of Constantinople is a mystery, for the explanation of which we have diligently searched the literature of Russophobia, but wholly without result. Mr. Stanley Lane-Poole is as barren, upon this point, as others whom we have consulted; but of this more presently. It was in the year 1853 that the politicians and people of Great Britain felt that they were "drifting" into a war with Russia in defence of the divine rights of the Turk. About the Turks or the Ottoman empire they knew hardly anything, and turned to Lord Stratford Canning de Redcliffe as the one man in the United Kingdom who possessed the knowledge which was lacking in every one else. His diplomatic connection with Constantinople began so far back as 1808, when he had been appointed Secretary to the Mission. In 1810, still a very young man, he had become Minister Plenipotentiary, and in that capacity had played an active part in negotiating the Treaty of Bucharest, which made peace between Russia and the Sultan in time to set free a large Russian army to act upon the flanks of the French army retreating from Moscow. In 1824 we find him once more at the head of the British Embassy at Constantinople. He was there when the battle of Navarino was fought, and all through the Russo-Turkish war of 1828–29. Three years later he was again sent on a special mission to Constantinople, to arrange the terms on which the freedom of Greece was to be conceded; and for ten years, from 1841 to 1851, he remained, with but a single break, the British Minister at the Court of the Sultan. Thus his experience of the theatre of the coming war had been great and prolonged.

He was fully alive to the evils of Ottoman rule. We find him writing in 1821 to his uncle, the celebrated George Canning: "As a matter of humanity, I wish with all my soul that the Greeks were put in possession of their whole patrimony, and that the Sultan were driven, bag and baggage, into the heart of Asia." In 1841, when he entered upon his post of Ambassador, he saw clearly that the only hope of preserving the life of the Ottoman Empire was to infuse some degree of European justice and liberality into the violent, narrow, and defective methods of Turkish administration. For ten years he labored single-handed at this impossible task. He possessed all the strength and indomitable energy of purpose which spring from the unphilosophic mind. He saw but a single face of the difficulty which he had to overcome, and was convinced that it was the whole. He extracted from the Sultan and his Ministers laws and proclamations which would have changed the face of the Ottoman Empire, given justice to the Moslems, and liberated the Christians from their disabilities—if only there had been any power to carry them into effect. In the absence of such power, they remained little more than a dead letter, and when Stratford Canning resigned his post, it was with a depressing consciousness of failure. The terror which his strong and overbearing character had inspired in the minds of the Sultan and his officials had saved many individuals from injury and oppression, but the influence was altogether personal; the Ottoman Empire had not advanced an inch in the direction of convalescence and lasting improvement. "The great game of improvement," he wrote to Lord Palmerston in April, 1851, "is altogether up for the present; and though I shall do my best to promote the adoption of several measures, it is impossible for me to conceal that the main object of my stay here is all but gone."

He had, however, hardly set foot in England

when the growing difficulties between Russia and the Ottoman Empire occasioned a species of popular demand that he should again return to the scene of his past labors. He reached Constantinople when Prince Menshikoff was there, ostensibly to settle the rights of Russia as regards the sacred places at Jerusalem, but really to extort from the Sultan a secret treaty conferring upon the Czar a protectorate over the Christian subjects of the Ottoman Empire. He remained in Constantinople through the many months during which Great Britain was helplessly "drifting" into a costly and unnecessary war, and it is the endeavor of his biographer to show that he exerted a commanding influence all this time over the Turkish Government. To us it appears, even from Mr. Lane-Poole's narrative, that he exerted hardly any. The Turks, in fact, completely outwitted both the French and English Governments. They temporized until they perceived that France and Great Britain were so deeply committed that retreat was impossible, and then, despite the remonstrances of Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, they rejected all offers of accommodation, and declared war against Russia. The Turkish Government dragged France and Great Britain at its heels. It dictated the policy of which their befooled allies had to pay the cost.

The *casus belli* was the occupation of the Principalities by a Russian army. This unquestionably was an aggression upon the Ottoman Empire which justified a declaration of war. The Turkish Pashas, however, had been much too astute to resent the action of Russia until the possibility of their being left unsupported had disappeared. The reasons which induced the Emperor Napoleon to promise his support are obvious enough. He wanted, no matter at what cost, to become a recognized member of the Royal and Imperial Society into which he had intruded himself by means of the *Coup d'État;* but it passes the wit of man to conjecture why Great Britain should have put herself into that particular galley. The Russian occupation of the Principalities was a menace to the peace and commerce of the Austrian Empire which absolutely prohibited that Power from acquiescing in its continuance; her military position, also, on the exposed flank of the Russian army, enabled her, whenever she chose, to compel the Czar to relinquish his hold, merely by the threat of putting her troops in motion. Under such circumstances, for Great Britain to step in and, at an immense cost in men and money, do the work of Austria was, as Mr. Kinglake truly says, "as though the forces of the United States were to come across the Atlantic to defend Antwerp from the French, while the English looked on, and thanked their enterprising friends for relieving them of their duty."

This, however, was only the beginning of British folly in this matter. Austria, as all the world knows, did at last set her troops in motion, and the instant result of this operation was the evacuation of the Principalities by the army of the Czar. The pretext, such as it was, on which Great Britain had agreed to assist the Turks against Russia thereupon disappeared altogether; and then it was that, without the semblance of a *casus belli*, without reason or provocation of any kind, the British Government decided, in conjunction with France and the Porte, to invade the Russian Empire. This amazing stroke of policy brought about the death of about a quarter of a million of human beings, and when the Peace of Paris was concluded, this frightful carnage was the solitary result which the Triple Alliance could put down to the credit side of their balance-sheet. They had killed that quantity of human beings; they had achieved nothing else. Now, before we are prepared to concede Mr. Stanley Lane-Poole's proposition that Lord Stratford was a great and far-seeing statesman, we should like to know the relation in which he stood to this monstrous policy. But copious and prolix as Mr. Poole is about matters of secondary or no importance, his pages are an absolute blank so far as this critical question is concerned. He does not quote a letter or a despatch of Lord Stratford which shows that the writer was aware of the absurdity of Great Britain taking upon herself the function of cat's-paw to Austria. Lord Stratford, so far as appears in these pages, saw nothing worthy of reproach in the unprovoked invasion of the Crimea, nor anticipated a bit more clearly than the most ignorant British Russophobist the difficulties of the enterprise, or the fragile character of the alliance on which its success absolutely depended. Mr. Stanley Lane-Poole would claim for him that, among the shifting and perplexed counsellors of that time, he was the one man—save and except the Emperor Nicholas—who kept a firm and unshaken grip upon "the great Eastern Question" throughout. This, we maintain, is exactly what Lord Stratford did not. He never apprehended the all-important fact that, outside of the Ottoman Empire, the two Powers inextricably entangled in this question were Austria and Russia. Not having apprehended this, he was blind also to the fact that if Great Britain took action in the matter at all, she could only do so profitably as the ally, not of the Turk, but of the Austrian. He "rejoiced," Mr. Poole tells us, at the determination to lay siege to Sebastopol, not understanding that, even if successful, the ensuing weakness of Russia was not a fresh lease of life to the Turks, but simply an advantage to Austria.

Great Britain, thus forced into a false position, has been unable from that day to this to extricate herself from it. She has been forced to continue acting as the sustaining prop of a hopelessly corrupt and decaying domination. Millions of her wealth have disappeared in the same gulf which swallowed the enormous expenditure of the Crimean War, and it was only by the skin of its teeth that the nation was preserved in 1877 from a repetition of the insanity of 1853. Finally, this persistent and causeless opposition to Russian policy in the East has driven Russia to retaliate by a menacing advance in the direction of India, to the manifest satisfaction of both Austria and Germany. The last British invasion of Afghanistan, with its still incalculable consequence, was linked, in a direct sequence of cause and effect, with the abortive invasion of the Crimea.

VILLAGE COMMUNITY AND FEUDAL MANOR.

A Hand-Book to the Land-Charters and Other Saxonic Documents. By John Earle, M.A., Professor of Anglo-Saxon in the University of Oxford, etc. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1888. 8vo, pp. 519.

Professor Earle has contributed a most valuable aid to the study of the early institutions and social condition of England in this well-chosen collection of documents. It will serve to supplement Bishop Stubbs's 'Select Charters,' having for its aim rather social and economical than political and constitutional relations; having also the advantage of an excellent commentary, a feature which Stubbs's collection lacks. The editor explains that his plan was modified and enlarged as he was engaged in his work, so that documents appear in one part which might more properly have gone into another. The largest part of the work consists of what he calls "Primary Documents," being genuine records, chiefly from Kemble's 'Codex Diplomaticus'; these occupy two hundred and seventy-seven pages. Part II., "Secondary Documents," "comprises documents which are preserved in single parchments as the primary records are, but which, unlike those, are not contemporaneous with the date assigned to the transactions, while yet, on the other hand, probably not later than the eleventh century." Of these there are one hundred and sixty pages. They are divided into fifteen groups, some being fabrications, some from special chartularies, and some from other sources. We do not find any statement of the whole number of documents, but it cannot be far from three hundred, perhaps about equally divided between Latin and Anglo-Saxon.

An introduction of one hundred and eleven pages treats first, of the forms of the charters, secondly, of social and land relations, and thirdly, of the language of the documents. The second of these divisions possesses special interest for students of social history, and must be regarded as the most important contribution to this department of English history since the publication of Mr. Seebohm's treatise in 1883. Like Mr. Seebohm, Mr. Earle has advanced the discussion by a distinct step towards the solution of the problem; possibly he has solved it, but there still remain some considerations which he does not appear to have taken fully into account.

The problem to be solved is the conversion of the free village community into the feudal manor. The accepted theory says that this was accomplished by "encroachment on the part of some overgrown ceorl." Mr. Seebohm contends that there never was a free village community at all, but that the manors existed from the first, essentially as they were in feudal times. Mr. Earle accepts the free village community, but by its side, or in connection with it, the manorial system, as "part of the first plantation"; and says that this theory ought to approve itself by "the luminous effect which new truth generally has in lighting up places that were dark." It is certainly so. Mr. Seebohm taught us to recognize the manorial feature which the accepted theory ignored, but, on the other hand, he ignored the free elements of society. Mr. Earle has developed a theory which, in its general character, seems to reconcile perfectly the two contradictory systems.

The starting-point in this theory is Mr. Kemble's words: "There can be no doubt that some kind of military organization preceded the peaceful settlement, and in many respects determined its mode and character." The people of England, like the primitive Germans, were, on their first settlement, organized in military divisions, and the territorial areas which they occupied were based upon and determined by these military divisions: the territorial hundred was simply the district occupied by the numerical hundred. "Upon this military principle," Mr. Earle goes on (p. lv), "I conceive the English settlements were originally founded, that each several settlement was under a military leader, and this military leader is the ancestor of the lord of the manor"—the *thane* of the later Anglo-Saxon period being the connecting link between the two. "The military officer, settled with a suitable provision by the side of his company, is the lord by the side of the free owners" (p. lxii). This theory commends itself as well by its simplicity as by the completeness with which it explains the evolution of the manor. But when we carry the in-

quiry further into detail, and ask with what Anglo-Saxon class we are to identify these military leaders, the question becomes more complicated and the answer more uncertain. Mr. Earle's suggestion may be the right one; it has much in its favor, but, on the other hand, leaves some difficulties to be explained. This theory is that the *gesithas* of the early Anglo-Saxon laws, the *comites* of Tacitus, were the officers of the invading army, and that they, settling "with a suitable provision" of land by the side of their free companions, became a kind of "local police officer. In the Laws of Ine it is assumed and implied that there is in every township a gesith. This is a universal institution: the local administration of public order rests everywhere upon the gesithas" (p. lxviii).

This assertion is more positive than the evidence will warrant. The laws of Ine do not say a word about townships in connection with the gesithas, nor do they in any explicit or certain way attribute to them any police powers. One of the three passages cited (Ine 50) must certainly be omitted, as the word *inhiwan*, rendered 'community,' is in the Latin translation *familia*, and in Schmidt's Glossary, *der Familie angehörig*. The passage (23, 1) which gives the gesith a share of the fines, need not necessarily imply "a magisterial privilege," but may mean that the King shares the fines with his followers. The obligation upon the gesith (30) to pay his wergeld is most naturally explained, as not for the misdemeanor of the ceorl, but for a similar misdemeanor on his own part. This is, at any rate, the only passage which can with any probability be made to support Mr. Earle's view, and this is too obscure to be relied upon with any confidence. On the other hand, the gesithas are distinctly mentioned (Wihtred 5, Ine 50, 63, 68) as a class of dependent followers.

Again, the *comites* of Tacitus—with whom these gesithas should unquestionably be identified, as Mr. Earle, following Kemble, holds—do not appear to correspond to the officers of an army, but to the suite or personal retinue of the chief. This is not by itself a conclusive objection, as such members of a staff, as we may call them, might easily have been assigned to duty as division commanders; but there is no indication that this was the case. They lived in the household of the chief, and served in his company as horsemen, being apparently the cavalry described in the sixth chapter of the 'Germania.' But the infantry of the Germans, as is shown in this and the following chapter, was made up of family groups, and, it is natural to suppose, was commanded by the heads of these family groups. This was the German people in arms; the chief and his followers were an excrescence. We should say that Mr. Earle's military leaders, the ancestors of the lords of the manor, were more likely to be these heads of families than the personal followers of the king or chief. It may be observed, further, that this theory of the police functions of the gesith conflicts with the generally accepted doctrine of the mutual responsibility of the *maegth* or kindred, while this mutual responsibility would be naturally and easily associated with the heads of the family groups.

If there was any class of officers over the free tribesmen, other than the heads of their families, we should incline to think that it was the *eorls*, a class which Mr. Earle, like almost every recent writer, regards as "nobles," but, as we think, without sufficient reason. It is surprising how slight is the ground for this now accepted view. Mr. Earle confesses (p. lxviii): "I do not know that a clear instance of EORL in this original sense can be found after the Laws of Aethelberht, though there are many passages where it might seem so to the unwary reader." If there are no passages after the Laws of Aethelberht, there are certainly none in these laws, for they mention the eorls only twice (chapters 13 and 14), in speaking of an eorl's *tun* (town or farmstead) and *birele* (handmaid), in a connection which might quite as well mean an officer as a noble. This word is found in no laws before the tenth century (where it is admitted to have had a different meaning) except the laws of Kent. Now, the settlers of Kent were Jutes, that is, akin to the Scandinavians, and the Earls of Kent must of course have been the same as the Scandinavian Jarls, who were appointed officers, not an hereditary nobility. Indeed, a speech of Wihtred of Kent, in the 'Saxon Chronicle,' says that the King appointed his *eorlas*.

We are inclined to think, therefore, that Mr. Earle is mistaken in making the gesithas to have been township officers. Their relation to their chief makes it improbable; the laws of Ine do not clearly support it; and it is much more likely that the officers of the infantry were the heads of their own families, or, if appointed, were the eorls. Mr. Earle is himself embarrassed (p. lxxx) by the mention in the laws of Ine (ch. 51) of two classes of gesith—the one landowners, the other having no land. He understands "by the latter such gesithas as had no family estate, whether ethel or bookland, but were provided for in the common field." A much more natural interpretation is to compare them with the two classes of *vassi* mentioned in a capitulary of 825, one, *qui in nostro palatio serviunt*, the other, *qui beneficia nostra habent*.

Whether Mr. Earle is right or wrong in this particular point, it must be admitted that his theory gives a perfect explanation of the origin of the class of thanes, or country gentlemen, as derived out of these natural heads of the village communities. Not that there was any absolute uniformity in the matter. The common theory admits that there may have been manorial estates (*eorl's tuns?*) intermixed with the free communities; and Mr. Earle admits (lxxvi) that there were, at least afterwards, lordless free communities. And it should be noted that his theory requires on the part of the head of the community a process of encroachment such as that usually ascribed to the "overgrown ceorl," by which he was converted into the lord of the manor. We must not forget, too, that we have distinct testimony to the latter process in the provisions "of Peoples' Ranks and Law" by which it is said that a ceorl might become a thane; and "of Wergelds," where it is said that he may become "of gesithcund race."

We think Mr. Earle is mistaken (p. lxiii.) in making the Court Baron "the original court of the free settlers under a president." The Court Baron had no president of its own, but was necessarily presided over by the lord of the manor or his steward. It is true that Sir Henry Maine, Professor Freeman, and Bishop Stubbs make the Court Baron to have been "the ancient gemot of the township"; but this is because they considered the free tenants of the feudal period to have been the survivors of the free proprietors of the early period, while, in fact, they seem only to have made their appearance after Domesday Book, and to have been an integral part of the feudal institution of the manor. The Court Leet, an absolutely democratic institution, and, according to Ritson and Elton, the most ancient court in the land, may probably be identified with the original assembly of the free township—the prototype of the New England town meeting. Neither can we accept Mr. Earle's distinction between *township* and *vill*. *Vill*—a mere abbreviation of *villata*—is the Latin equivalent of *township*, and is regularly so used in medieval documents.

While, however, we cannot—at least, with our present light—agree with Mr. Earle in regarding the *gesithas* as the antecedents of the lords of manors, we gladly recognize that he has put us upon the right track. He has given us the key to the problem, even if he has not himself solved it.

Delia Bacon: A Biographical Sketch. By Theodore Bacon. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888.

THE task which Mr. Bacon set himself he has performed with success. No one henceforth will question—if any heretofore has questioned—that the subject of his sketch was of rare intellectual force, of absolute sincerity, of self-annihilating devotion in her work. The world henceforth, if it will speak of her, can speak of her with some knowledge of what she was and what she did. We have nothing but admiration for the clear, strong style in which Mr. Bacon has told his story; for the dignified severity with which mere prying curiosity is rebuked; for the skill with which that is presented which ought to be presented; and for the judgment that has directed the omission of what is omitted. There has been, of course, nothing set down in malice, nor has anything been extenuated. The life is laid before us as it was lived; there is but little comment upon it, and the letters speak for themselves.

Yet, with all respect for the pious motives of Miss Bacon's nephew, we question the desirability of this publication. The story is too painful. It is a tragedy without a lesson, a history without a moral. A harsh fate shrouded Miss Bacon's earlier years in the direst poverty, and when her brilliant genius and arduous industry had beaten back this sordid foe, her own fatal perversity exposed her again to its cruel and successful assaults. It is not only charitable, but reasonable, to suppose that she was insane from the time when she first conceived the plan of tearing the laurel from Shakspere's brow; but why should we follow the progress of her delusion and witness its deplorable results? Still, we are bound to say that Mr. Bacon touches these sad details with so gentle a hand as to come well within the limits of the Horatian interdict.

There is one gleam of light upon these dark pages—the almost superhuman goodness displayed by Hawthorne towards a woman sorely smitten by fortune, and yet rendered incapable by her delusion of appreciating what was done for her. We take no account of the attentions of friends and the devotion of relatives; but Hawthorne was a stranger, burdened with family cares, and with heavy drafts upon his income as well as his time. Nevertheless, he responded instantly to Miss Bacon's appeal, reading her manuscript with sympathetic care, giving her the benefit of his literary judgment, relieving her pecuniary distress, and even, it is presumed, supplying the funds without which the publication of the book into which her life had gone would have been impossible. The ingratitude and reproach which rewarded his interest nowise affected the generous flow of his benevolence; and the tenderness and consideration which mark his letters, after as well as before Miss Bacon had spurned his assistance, are incomparable. We have not space to quote from what he has written of her; those

who do not see this book will find an epitome of her story in 'Our Old Home.'

Nor have we space for more than the briefest extracts from Mr. Bacon's account of her "revelation." It does not appear that her family name stimulated her interest in the problem; the suggestion came rather from the literary studies in which she had been for many years engaged:

"Revelation, discovery, or fancy, however—whatever it was, an utterly subordinate part of it all, though an essential part, was that which concerned merely the authorship of the plays. . . . Finding in them a higher philosophy even than in the 'Advancement of Learning,' a broader statesmanship, a profounder jurisprudence, and, above all, a bolder courage than in all the avowed writings of the great Chancellor, she only obeyed the teachings of that inductive system which he had expounded in seeking an adequate authorship for so magnificent a creation. . . . If the plays were really such a system of philosophic teaching, not only was it difficult to accept the competency for it of the Stratford poacher and London horse-boy: it was hardly less trying to credulity to impute so vast an enterprise, added to all the gigantic intellectual labors which he avowed, even to the greatest Englishman of his age. She judged, therefore, that as there had been collaboration before and since in literary work, so here the most brilliant and philosophic minds of the Elizabethan court coöperated in the work which was too great for one, and consented together, for their common safety, to the imputation of their united work to the theatre manager who brought out the plays, and whose property they were because they had been given to him. . . . It is scant justice to her memory to say that . . . she never devoted herself to whims or fancies about capital letters, or irregular pagination, or acrostics, or anagrams, as concealing yet expressing the great philosophy which the plays inclosed."

No one can read the noted article in *Putnam's Magazine* in which Miss Bacon first made known her views, without somewhat yielding to the persuasiveness of her argument, or without feeling the greatest admiration for the brilliancy of her style. It is a masterpiece of irony, and as such deserves a permanent place in our literature. If it is true, as so clear-headed a man and so sagacious a critic as Hawthorne declared, that Miss Bacon's book could have been shaped into a "volume full of eloquence and ingenious dissertation—criticisms which quite take the color and pungency out of other people's critical remarks on Shakspere"; that "this bewildered enthusiast had recognized a depth in the man whom she decried which scholars, critics, and learned societies, devoted to the elucidation of his unrivalled scenes, had never imagined to exist there"; that "she had paid him the loftiest honor that all these ages of renown have been able to accumulate upon his memory"—if this be true, would not the most decorous monument to Miss Bacon have been such a volume as Hawthorne describes?

Modern Methuselahs. By John Burn Bailey. London: Chapman & Hall. 1888.

This is not a practical book. Mr. Bailey discloses no rule for the attainment of a centenary of years, unless such a rule may be deduced from the generalization that most persons who have approximated to that age have been below the average height. But he does not make it clear that this may not have been due to shrinkage, and, moreover, there is very high authority for the futility of attempting to regulate our stature by taking thought about it. So far as precept is concerned, therefore, Mr. Bailey does not have much to offer us, while some of his examples can only be described as pernicious and demoralizing to the last degree. What but evil can result to our young men from reading of William Riddell, who died when one hundred and sixteen, having had "a remarkable love of brandy, of which he drank largely, but he carefully avoided water; for two years before his death he subsisted on bread soaked in spirits and ale"? Even more shocking is the record of the one hundred and four misspent years of Mr. Thomas Whittington, who "actually never took any other liquids, as liquids, into his stomach than ardent spirit—London gin; of which compound, until within a fortnight of his death, he took from a pint to a pint and a half daily." And who can be advised to emulate the woman who preserved her faculties for fifteen years over a century upon a diet of buttermilk and greens, or that other centenarian who attained like results by restricting herself to potatoes?

In other respects the record of the personal habits of some of these worthies is equally unedifying. Mrs. Lewson is said to have reached the age of one hundred and six years without having washed herself, satisfying the requirements of neatness and conventionality by smearing her face and neck daily with lard, while she touched up her cheeks with rose-pink. She entertained the opinion that people who washed themselves always caught cold. These aged persons seem to have been invariably married—some of them, in the language of Artemus Ward, very much so, as, John Weeks, who took his tenth wife when he had attained the age of one hundred and six. Perhaps John Rovin was more fortunate, as his wife was spared to celebrate with him their one hundred and forty-eighth wedding anniversary. Of the celebrated Thomas Parr, who is reputed to have attained the ripe age of one hundred and fifty-two years, nine months, and some days, we blush for humanity in recording that during the lifetime of his first wife, and after he had turned his hundredth year, he was compelled to do penance in Alberbury Church for a violation of his marital vows.

In justice to humanity, however, we must declare, in the words of Mr. Thomas Bailey, the author of 'Records of Longevity,' that "many of these alleged facts are deficient in that strict verification which would enable a man to speak positively as to the truth of the statements." It is perhaps not speaking too positively to say that there is no satisfactory evidence that any human being has ever lived much more than a hundred and five years. The records of the life-insurance companies of London show only one case of a centenarian policy-holder, and they deal only with selected lives. The late Mr. Thoms, editor of *Notes and Queries*, devoted himself to the investigation of a number of these cases of reputed longevity, and found them, with few exceptions, fabulous. It has been maintained by men of science that the natural term of life for every animal is five times the period needed for the full development of the skeleton, a period in the case of man of about twenty-one years. Prof. Owen calculated the term of human life upon this basis at one hundred and three years and a few months, and it is not very probable that this term has been often exceeded. Placidity and regularity of life perhaps help men towards this limit as much as anything; as Dickens says: "Father Time, though he tarries for none, often lays his hands lightly on those who have used him well."

Mr. Bailey's book does not purport to be the result of original investigation, and is of little value to those who take a scientific interest in its subject. So far as he has followed in the footsteps of those who have made a careful study of the records of "long-lasting," and tested them by collateral evidence, he has made an agreeable compilation, and he adds some contributions of his own; but, by an extraordinary freak, he has devoted the larger part of his work to the biographies of a number of more or less distinguished people who lived to be ninety-five years old, but who have absolutely no other claim to be mentioned between the same covers. They range from St. Anthony and Johannes Cantacuzenus, Emperor of the Eastern Empire, to Titian, Mrs. Garrick, Miss Herschel, and Sir Moses Montefiore. In most of these cases it is obviously impossible to assign any cause for longevity; and why Mr. Bailey should care to condense such works as Cavalcaselle's 'Life of Titian,' giving critical estimates of his work as an artist, etc., and pad this volume with the results, we are unable to conceive. He has very nearly spoiled what might have been a useful and entertaining little monograph.

Essays in Criticism. Second Series. By Matthew Arnold. Macmillan & Co. 1888.

In this series of essays Mr. Arnold goes over some very old ground and pronounces some new judgments. The first essay, on the study of poetry, shows that whatever he may have said elsewhere on the subject of "seeing the thing as it is," and in disparagement of abstract standards of criticism, he was always at the core a literary realist—if one more use for this much-abused term may be pardoned. That is, in poetry he believed in permanent, real tests of excellence, apart from questions of fashion or character or local taste. There are two fallacies with regard to poetry, he says, against which we must guard—one the historic fallacy, the other the personal fallacy. By the first he means the tendency to exaggerate the importance of a poet's work on account of the importance of his historic position in the development of poetry—the common fallacy of scholars and specialists; by the other, the tendency to dwell on the personal impression produced by the poet upon ourselves. Mr. Arnold believes that there is a certain classical quality of wisdom and sober earnestness in the very best poetry, moreover, which differentiates it from all inferior poetry; and he holds that this quality may be detected in single lines and even phrases of great masters, such as Dante and Shakspere.

In the main, does not the English or American reader sympathize with the view here expressed? Does he not feel a resentment against those who would maintain that all literature is a matter of impressions, taste, and times? Does he not always in his secret soul adhere to the conviction that the great masters of poetry have had visions of the Real, the True, the essence of things as distinguished from their appearances? It is interesting to find in this latest expression of Mr. Arnold's opinions something which not remotely resembles the view of poetry taken by another great critic of our time, himself also a poet—Mr. Lowell. Mr. Lowell has always maintained the mystic power of poetry to detect and reveal the hidden meaning of things—a view opposed to the skeptical attitude of most modern criticism, and which a critic of the school of Taine would probably explain as being a result of the peculiar characteristics of the earnest and at the same time imaginative race to which both Mr. Lowell and Mr. Arnold belong. And so no doubt it is, and so also (would Mr. Lowell and Mr. Arnold reply) is the incapacity of the most gifted critic of the French school to perceive the true glory of English poetry, a result of the peculiar characteristics of the

skeptical and rationalistic race which produced a Voltaire, but could not produce a Shakspere. Probably the difference can never be settled, for even the arbitration of a third system of criticism would be unsatisfactory to both sides; and we can do no more than note in passing that Mr. Arnold is not to be regarded as a renegade from the old English view.

As a realist, he gives the reader a much needed warning against allowing himself to be carried away by the *personal* test; but here the essay, it seems to us, might have been made stronger. It is not merely the personal relation of the poet to ourselves, but our interest in the character of the poet, that tends to confuse the judgment. The fondness for confusing and debasing literary tests by considerations of a purely personal character is, and we may add probably has always been, one of the marked difficulties in the way of obtaining real judgments of value. Compare the fortunes of Byron and Shakspere. Of Byron we know almost everything that is to be known, and we never think of his poetry now without thinking at the same time of his character. Of Shakspere we know little or nothing, and our feeling about his plays is influenced in the very smallest degree by our estimate of his character. But blot out what we know of Byron's life, imagine the name to be a great shade hovering over his works, like that of Homer over the 'Iliad,' or Shakspere over the Sonnets, forget his cynicism, his immorality, and his unfortunate married life, and then read "Childe Harold," and make up your mind as to what in real essence it is—a great poem or the work of a charlatan. This is practically what time in the long run effects. It makes personal considerations indifferent, and enables us to distinguish, after hundreds of years, perhaps, what is classical from what is impermanent and hollow. Perhaps it is impossible for anything short of the lapse of time to accomplish it; perhaps the real fact is, that criticism is always personal during the lifetime of the poet and for a long time afterwards, that then comes the period of real criticism, when character counts for little and the work for everything. But if criticism were what it ought to be, we should surely be better able than we are to discriminate; and Mr. Arnold, with his clear insight, almost persuades us that under his guidance we may learn to pick out what is "classical" in poetry, as an expert in a different line will unerringly pick out the real coin from the counterfeit.

The volume contains a number of essays previously published, but not generally known, on Byron, Keats, Milton, Wordsworth, and, in a wholly different field, Tolstoi and Amiel. Those on English subjects are more or less pervaded by the same central idea—that of distinguishing between the classical and the non-classical, between the true and the false, between the soberly serious and the frivolous or superficial. Here Mr. Arnold is a sure guide. Making all due allowances for his hortatory tendency to iteration, there has been no such keen insight, no such delicate and true taste, no such mastery of style in our day. Perhaps he is better when he is severe than when he is lenient, but then we must remember that he is always a preacher. As a specimen of analysis, we should like to quote from the essay on Byron; but after reading and rereading it, we find that no detached paragraph gives any fair idea of the whole. And this is true of most of Mr. Arnold's writing. Isolated passages are false, because they so often bring out his peculiarities without giving a true idea of his strength. To the mass of readers he has been too much already known by catchwords, "sweetness and light," "Philistinism," etc., etc.; but to his real admirers it is not such matters as these that constitute his interest. It is as a poet, as a master of a prose style unmatched for beauty, delicacy, force, and point, and finally as perhaps the greatest critic of a critical generation, that he has left a deep and lasting mark on our literature.

Around the World on a Bicycle. Vol. II.—From Teheran to Yokohama. By Thomas Stevens. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1888.

Mr. Thomas Stevens is a wholesome and sturdy young fellow, whose hand we are proud to have shaken as we encountered him once at a meeting of wheelmen. His achievement is an extraordinary feat of perseverance and pluck, and the book in which he records it is a nonchalant, unaffected account of interesting adventures. We have already paid our respects to his first volume. We have the same good opinion of his second volume, which appears now after an interval of more than a year. In fact, the second part of the record contains even more to enchain the reader than the first part. The incidents related take place in lands less known to us, and filled with wilder men; while the cyclist's courage and adroitness are even more marked than in his earlier journey. The great fault of the book is that it is twice too large. Even the most enthusiastic cyclist will not care to mark every turn of Stevens's wheel during the 13,500 miles of its rolling from San Francisco eastward to Yokohama; yet it is almost this that the reader is called upon to do. One cannot contemplate such a panorama of gyration without feeling his head swim uncomfortably.

After spending the winter in Teheran, Stevens pushed northeastward in the spring of 1886, hoping to cross the Siberian frontier, and, after reaching the valley of the Amoor, pass that way to the Pacific. He travelled hundreds of miles only to have permission refused him at last by the Russian officials, whereupon, turning southward, he forced his way through Afghanistan to Herat, with the idea of proceeding thence into northwestern India. Here, too, his path was blocked, leaving him no recourse but to turn back from the heart of Asia, which he had so fully pierced, to the Mediterranean, and proceed ingloriously by steamer to Kurrachee. Thence ascending the Indus, he conscientiously mounted his bicycle at the nearest possible point to the Afghan fastness he had before succeeded in reaching, and spun by Lahore, Delhi, Agra, and Benares, through the whole breadth of Hindostan to Calcutta. Another sea voyage carried him by way of Singapore to Hong Kong, where, taking his life in his hand, he dashed into China, penetrating to a tributary of the Yang-tse-Kiang. Here, after other hairbreadth escapes, he was rescued from the murderous rabble of an interior town by good-natured officials, who, out of mercy to him, sent him under guard to Shanghai. Reaching the southern border of Japan, he traversed that land from south to north through a friendly population, and reached San Francisco at last from Yokohama, by the *City of Pekin*, rather more than two years and a half from the time of setting out.

If it had been done for some great cause, Stevens would be a hero worthy of an epic. Since it came about only from a spirit of adventure, no more can be said than that he was marvellously dexterous and cool. How often his neck was in danger it would not be easy to say. The peril is of various kinds—headers from his machine in pathless wildernesses, the fingers of stranglers who have him at their mercy, the swords of barbarians angry at his intrusion into their dens. The record, however, is by no means entirely of hardship and risk. He rides through many a lovely landscape, and often sees a pleasant side of human nature; as, for instance, in the picturesque Afghan nomads who fling the backsheesh he offers them contemptuously on the ground, in hospitable Orientals who entertain him with tea and tom-toms, and in expatriated Europeans glad to welcome a white face. Here is a good touch of humor from page 243:

"Among other distinguishing qualities, Mr. M. shines in Teheran society as the only Briton with sufficient courage to wear a chimney-pot hat. Although the writer has seen the stove-pipe of the unsuspecting tenderfoot from the Eastern States made short work of in a far Western town, and the occurrence seemed to be scarcely out of place there, I little expected to find popular sentiment running in the same warlike groove, and asserting itself in the same destructive manner, in the little English community at Teheran. Such, however, is the grim fact; and I have ventured to think that after this there is no disputing the common destiny of us Anglo-Saxons, whatever clime, country, or government may at present claim us as its own. Having seen this unfortunate headgear of our venerable and venerated forefathers shot as full of holes as a colander in the West, I come to the East only to find it subjected to similar indignities here. . . . More than our common language, methinks; more than common customs and traditions; more than all those characteristic traits that distinguish us in common, and at the same time also distinguish us from all other peoples—more than anything else does this mutual spirit of destructiveness, called into play by the sight of a stove-pipe hat, prove the existence of a strong, resistless undercurrent of sympathy that is carrying the most distant outposts of Anglo-Saxony merrily down the stream of time together, to some particular end; perchance a glorious end, perchance an ignominious end, but certainly to an end that will not wear a stove-pipe hat."

Here is a scene upon a Chinese river, page 388:

"Anon there come along men, poling with surprising swiftness slender-built craft on which are perched several solemn and important-looking cormorants. These are the celebrated cormorant fishers of the Chinese rivers. Their craft is simply three or four stems of the giant bamboo turned up at the forward end; on this the naked fisherman stands, and propels himself by means of a slender pole. His stock-in-trade consists of from four to eight cormorants, that balance themselves and smooth their wet wings as the lightsome raft speeds along at the rate of six miles an hour from one fishing-ground to another. Arriving at some likely spot, the eager aspirant for finny prizes rests on his oars and allows his aquatic confederates to take to the water in search of their natural prey, the fishes. A ring around the cormorants' necks prevents them swallowing their captives, and previous training teaches them to balance themselves on the propelling pole that the watchful fisherman inserts beneath them the moment they rise to the surface with a fish; captive and captor are then lifted aboard the raft, the cormorant robbed of his prey and hustled quickly off again to business."

With a touch now of humor, now of pathos, and an unlimited amount of picturesque description, the story, though over-long, is seldom dull, and is to be heartily commended as certain to afford much incentive to manliness in the youth by whom it is sure to be read.

Names and Places: Studies in Geographical and Topographical Nomenclature. By J. D. Whitney. Cambridge, 1888. 8vo, pp. 239.

This is such a satisfactory and admirable little book that it is to be regretted that the author has limited the edition to a hundred copies; but, whatever the size of the edition, there is little doubt that the contents will, through the compilers, speedily find their way beyond its pages. The geographical studies include only

"Appalachian and Cordilleran" and "Oregon and Pend' Oreilles." The topographical section is divided into four parts: (1.) Introductory; (2.) Mountains, Peaks, and Sierras; (3.) Valleys, Gorges, and Cañons; and (4.) Plains, Prairies, and Savannas. A couple of the letters of the index, of average comprehensiveness, will best illustrate the range of topics. Under M are Marsh, Meal, Mesa, Meseta, Montaña, Montañuelo, Monte, Monument, Moor, Morass, Moss, Mound, Mount, and Mountain; under T appear Table, Table-land, Table-mountain, Talus, Terrace, Teton, Todi, Tooth, Tor, Tower, Tundra, Tuque, and Tuquet.

The term Appalachian is derived from Appalache, applied by De Soto, 1538-43, to the southern end of the chain, the northern extremity of which was discovered by Cartier in 1535. The name has various forms, as Palassi, Apalchen, and Apalatcy, in different writings, and was no doubt the aboriginal name of a locality, or of a tribe of Indians of the neighborhood. To the conclusions of the author confirmation may be added from Rochefort, 1658, with another form of the name: "L'État des Apalachites contient six Provinces, trois déquelles sont en cette belle et spacieuse vallée qui est entourée des montagnes d'*Apalates*, au pied déquelles ces peuples habitent" (p. 354). Appalachian is now applied to the entire system, while Alleghany, preferred by some geographers, designates but a portion of it.

Cordilleras and Cordilleran were chosen by Prof. Whitney, 1868, for the complex of ranges west of the Mississippi basin, Andes and Andean being by common consent restricted to the western system of South America. This seems to have met with favor on all hands, though the Spanish word "cordillera," a mountain range, is of very general application. The name "Rocky," from Arrowsmith's map, 1802, and "Sierra Nevada," from Verrazzano's chart, 1582, are fixed respectively upon the eastern and the western portions of the Cordilleran system.

The chapter on "Oregon and Pend' Oreilles" may commend itself rather more to others than to Oregonians. The latter, however, will find it difficult to subvert the argument. Lieut. Symons, in his report on the Columbia, suggested that the origin of the word "Oregon" might have been in the Spanish *oreja*, the ear, or a derivative. Our author goes farther, and proves the original to have been *orejon*, big ear. To do so, he first establishes the presence of the Spaniards in the region, by means of the testimony of the early French explorers, of Lewis and Clarke, and others. In this the use and abundance of horses play an important part. The next step is to show the existence of a tribe of Indians in the region to which the Spaniards would apply the name Orejones, big ears. The "ear-bobs" of the English and the "Pend'Oreilles" of the French supply what is needed here. Certain Indians of South America, who enlarge the ear by ornaments, are at present called Oregons by the English or Orejones by the Spaniards. Commenting on the paper by J. H. Trumbull, who states that the name is not Spanish, the Professor claims to have answered every argument advanced. As he puts it, he has shown that the name *was* recognized on the Columbia as of Spanish origin; the Spaniards *did* inhabit the region; there *is* a tribe of Indians dwelling on one of the main branches of the river to which the name is peculiarly appropriate; the word "Orejon" *would* naturally be written "Oregon" in English, as at the present time, by persons writing about South American Indians; and the *g* more nearly renders the sound of the Spanish *j*, for instance, Vallego for Vallejo.

To give the results in this way conveys no idea of the excellence of the style or of the amount of information in the author's discussions of usages, causes, and conditions in the different localities. An example will better illustrate the treatment of topographical names.

"*Marsh* is a word in common use in both England and the United States, with a meaning not essentially different from that of 'swamp.' Skeat defines it as 'morass, swamp, fen,' and says that it has the form in middle English of 'mersche,' and in Anglo-Saxon of 'mersc,' which latter is a contraction of 'mer-isc,' originally an adjective signifying 'full of meres or pools.' As used in the United States, the word 'marsh,' often pronounced 'ma'sh,' is heard much more frequently along the seacoast in New England than it is in the interior and farther south. The low lands along the New England coast liable to overflow by the tide are always called 'salt-marshes.' The same word 'marsh' is one commonly used in Northern Germany in almost exactly the same way in which it is used in this country. The 'Marschländer' (called also simply the 'Marsch') form an important topographical feature along the coasts of the Baltic and North Seas, and especially in the vicinity of the Elbe. They are uniformly level, the monotony of the surface being hardly broken by the dikes by which they are traversed at regular intervals, and the ditches which accompany them. On the dikes grow magnificent trees, the soil is very fertile, the cattle superb, and farming highly successful. The contrast between these marsh lands and the region of sand and gravel —the 'heath' and 'moorland'—which lies adjacent to them on the south is most striking."

Within the limits indicated by the headings of the chapters the omissions are very few. A prominent case which occurs to us is that of the word "slough," in common use westward, instead of marsh or swamp. For example, in a late number of *Shooting and Fishing* (a Boston periodical), there is a notice of the "excellent duck and goose shooting the slough ponds and lakes afford." Naturally under the name "Hole" there is no mention of the recently coined "Holl" (in "Wood's Holl"), the *o* in which is asserted by ironical mariners to have been originally an *e*. Among the more than three hundred names in the work that have become generalized and applicable to class or form of scenic feature, there is not one of Indian origin. Our names of this character are nearly all derived from three languages, the English, the French, and the Spanish. The scholarship required to trace the evolution of the terms, as is done in the studies before us, is not by any means to be measured by a knowledge of these three. The thoroughness with which literature has been ransacked by the author is evidenced by abundant quotation and reference, largely poetical, from the early writers. The reader who is led by its title to expect dryness and lack of interest in this book will be most agreeably disappointed.

The Soul of the Far East. By Percival Lowell. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Mr. Lowell entitles his study of the social life, language, art, religion, and general characteristics of the Chinese, Coreans, and Japanese, 'The Soul of the Far East.' This is on the principle of *lucus a non lucendo*, for, on approaching his subject, he found that the mind of the Eastern Asiatic is almost entirely destitute of that principle of individualization which is so marked a trait in the Western man. To the Chinese and their pupils in civilization, the Coreans and Japanese, he denies all mental initiative. They are copyists who cannot originate anything. The stimulus of individuality being absent, so also is the principle of progress. The individual is nothing, and the community is itself the unit. The youth who is born and reared amid the numbing impersonality of the Far East is never truly "born again" into that self-consciousness which marks the second entrance into life of the Occidental. The degree in which the various races of men have felt the force of this birth of mind not only differs vastly, but it registers its effects in facts, fancies, faiths, and indeed in all those outward shadows of the mind which make up civilization; or, to put it in Mr. Lowell's own words, as the thesis which he would prove by a study of the Chinese and their pupils: "The degree of individualization of a people is the self-recorded measure of its place in the great march of mind" (p. 195).

With a literary skill and facility and copiousness of choice language equal to his thorough analytical power, Mr. Lowell gives first the results of the examination of the Far-Eastern family and the institution of adoption. He then puts their language, art, and religion under dissection, only to find these expressions of thought strikingly deficient in the elements of personality. His are not the resources of a scholar familiar with the vernaculars or literatures of the nations who still use ideographs, and some of his statements, meant to be expressions of facts, may be challenged; yet these trifling defects do not invalidate the general force of his conclusions. He is careful to quote as authorities only those whose names carry their own guarantee of accuracy. As at least one very large side of truth, his little book is an original and fascinating contribution to our knowledge of the extreme Orient. The rising young men of Japan should read, learn, mark, and inwardly digest its contents, and reveal to us, if they can, the other side of the shield. It seems very certain that if Newtons and Shakesperes are to be grown on the soil of Japan and China, the inhabitants must change their course of thought. For lack of vision, they are in danger of perishing before the onset of the self-asserting individuals who make up the nations of the West. Building better than he knew, Mr. Lowell has either innocently, or covertly with a purpose, slipped into the hands of the scientific and religious missionary a most powerful argument and warrant. Not only should the Mission Boards furnish a copy to their clerical emissaries, but the governments of China and Corea, not to say of Japan, might well recommend its study as a text-book.

The volume is a reprint of the author's papers contributed to the *Atlantic Monthly*, and is exquisitely bound in white, with modest Japanese symbols on the cover, the typography being of that elegant and satisfying sort with which the Riverside Press has made us long familiar.

The Boyhood of Christ. By Lew Wallace, author of 'Ben Hur' and 'The Fair God.' Harper & Bros. 1889.

If magnificence of type and paper could atone for lack of matter in a book, it would do so here. Some of the wood-engravings, also, are excellent in their design and execution. Those which reproduce well-known old or modern pictures are easily the best; some of the others are extremely weak. That the child in these illustrations always has the halo must be a grief to Gen. Wallace, who has a theory that this was a development of his maturer years. Gen. Wallace cannot be congratulated on the success of his performance. From beginning to end he has written in the most stilted manner. His dedication and his preface do not escape the general inflation. The setting of the story is absurd. Uncle Midas, whose name indicates the luxurious character of his surroundings, gives a Christmas-eve party to his young friends.

Puss and Nan leave the dancing, and, penetrating his study, where he sits magnificent as the good Haroun al-Rashid, beg him for a story, and give him a subject, "The Boyhood of Christ." Strauss's waltz music cannot beguile them when once the story has begun. Other young people come to drag them off, but stay to listen, until only the fiddlers are left — but no, they have followed the rest. Gen. Wallace has also kindly indicated the interest of his narration by a running fire of exclamations of delight from his young friends. And what is the story that could delight so much and make a youthful company indifferent to Strauss's music? It is not, as many will anticipate, an attempt to conceive the life of a little Jew of Galilee in the time of Jesus. It is mainly a rehash of the Apocryphal Gospel of the Infancy. The senseless stories of that book are told at first in Gen. Wallace's own gaudy style. It is a great relief when Uncle Midas takes the book and reads.

The lecture upon Snakes in Iceland was prophetic of Gen. Wallace's 'Boyhood of Christ.' He comes to the conclusion that Christ had no boyhood to speak of, only a "marginal time in which to taste something of natural boyish freedom." For one thing, "his precocity was miraculous. At a time when other children are muling in their mother's arms, the cells of his understanding began to enlarge and fill with knowledge." He does not think Christ was reared in poverty. "It is to be remembered that among the gifts of the Magi there was gold, and I please myself thinking there was enough of it to support the holy family while it was in Egypt and afterwards in Nazareth." "As to the social position of the family, it is enough to remark that, besides being a just man, Joseph was a lineal descendant of David the King." It is evident that Gen. Wallace is troubled by no critical considerations. He passes by, as idle wind which he respects not, the fact that, between David and Jesus, Luke has fourteen more generations than Matthew, and that the lines of descent are different. Gen. Wallace does not, however, feel obliged to accept all the statements of the New Testament. That says "Mary kept all these things in her heart," but Gen. Wallace thinks she did not—that she told Jesus that he was to be the Christ, and so made any further boyhood for him impossible. He has done his best to make his book as agreeable to Roman Catholics as to Protestants. He tells us that he is with Cyril against Nestorius in their great controversy, and that he has a kindly feeling for Pope Gregory because he made it lawful to call Mary the "Mother of God," and with the worship of Mary he has "no quarrel." The bathos of the book reaches its lowest depth when Byron's line,

"Soft eyes looked love to eyes that spoke again,"

is quoted as if pertinent to the relations of Jesus and his mother. But worst of all is the 100th page, where one of the boys has asked the meaning of the term "my Father's business." The answer is substantially, though it is couched in polysyllabic rhetoric, that the Father's business is something with which we have no concern.

The Five Talents of Woman. By the author of 'How to be Happy though Married.' Charles Scribner's Sons. 1888. 8vo, pp. 301.

We often wonder where those women live who like to think of themselves as having been created for the purpose of making man's existence pleasant to him. It is plain that there must be such women, from the fact that one now and then comes upon books written expressly for them; but it is probable that they are to be found in the inland towns, and that they attend the good old-fashioned orthodox churches. It has never been our fortune to number them among our personal acquaintances. Most American women have rather the opposite way of thinking: they believe that the world was made for them, and that it is the function of man to provide ways for them to enjoy the pleasures of living. A juster way than either, and one less likely to wound the sensibilities of men or women, is to consider, as the older theologians ought in consistency to have done, that both were created for the glory of God, and that each is forbidden, by a high sense of duty, from making the other the sole end of his existence.

The style of the author of 'The Five Talents of Women' has not the dignity and moderation that one usually expects to find in a writer on morals. One is at a loss to know what his nationality may be: from such phrases as "the American Girls' University at Vassar," one would infer that he is, as he seems to be, an Englishman, or more probably a Scotchman; but why should his book be largely made up of quotations from obscure American newspapers? This question is hard to answer.

One chapter in the book—that on bravery—is admirable. There is one story which is given as authentic, and which is alone almost a sufficient excuse for the existence of the book. It is this:

"A herd of wild cattle was being driven through the town [of San Diego]. A little child was playing in the street not far from the spot where the cattle were passing, when one of the bulls—a huge creature with large horns—made a sudden rush at the poor bairn. To add to the terror of the scene, the drover was tipsy, and in trying to turn the furious animal he fell off his horse. Warning yells arose from the spectators, as they beheld the terrible fate from which, as it seemed, nothing could save the child. At this very moment a lady happened to come into the street, and the noise of the tumult at once attracted her attention. She saw the child's appalling danger at a glance, and immediately sprang into the empty saddle. She succeeded in catching up with the wild bull, and threw her shawl over its head just as it was about to charge the child. She then, without leaving the saddle, lifted the child to her lap, and took it away to a place of safety. This brilliant act of bravery awoke round after round of hearty applause from every one who witnessed it. . . . As was said at the time, this gallant deed of Miss Lawrence's—for such was the lady's name—was not only heroic, but a feat of horsemanship which few people could equal."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Andrews—Stoddard. A Grammar of the Latin Language. Revised by Henry Preble. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.12.
Bertram, the Prince: An Idyl. Philadelphia.
Besant, W. All Sorts and Conditions of Men: An Impossible Story. Harper & Bros.
Converse, Rev. J. B. The Bible and Land. Morristown, Tenn.: The Author. $1.
Daudet, A. One of the "Forty." Continental Publishing Corporation.
De Salis, Mrs. Dressed Game and Poultry à la mode. Longmans, Green & Co. 60 cents.
Eggleston, E. The Household History of the United States and its People. D. Appleton & Co.
Elliot, Hon. H. The Life of Sidney, Earl of Godolphin, K. G., Lord High Treasurer of England, 1702 to 1710. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Garman, S. On the Lateral Canal System of the Selachia and Holocephala. Cambridge.
Hamilton, H. Virgil's Æneid. The First Six Books, Translated into English Rhyme. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Holden, W. Autobiography of Life. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Lampman, A. Among the Millet, and Other Poems. Ottawa: J. Durie & Son.
Lazarus, Emma. Poems. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50.
Lietze, E. Modern Heliographic Processes: A Manual of Instruction in the Art of Reproducing Drawings, Engravings, Manuscripts, etc., by the Action of Light. D. Van Nostrand Co. $3.
National Educational Association: Journal of Proceedings and Addresses, at the meeting in San Francisco, 1888. Topeka: Kansas Publishing House.

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